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PARENTAL INFLUENCE ON LOVE, SEXUAL BEHAVIOR,
AND SEXUAL SATISFACTION

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PARENTAL INFLUENCE ON LOVE, SEXUAL BEHAVIOR,
AND SEXUAL SATISFACTION

By

Carol A. Darling

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ABSTRACT

PARENTAL INFLUENCE ON LOVE, SEXUAL BEHAVIOR,
AND SEXUAL SATISFACTION

By

Carol A. Darling

The purpose of this study was to investigate how the parent-child relationship influences conceptualizations of love, sexual behavior, and satisfaction with one's sexual life among never-married college students. Although the peer group is recognized as one of the major influences in the sexual socialization of young adults, the intention of this study was to focus specifically on parental influence which could be obscured by including the peer component.

The conceptual approach utilized in the investigation employed a broad view of the family as an environment in which both socialization and education occur to enhance the development of human resources either explicitly or implicitly. Socialization, as examined within the context of this study, encompassed the three interrelated processes of interaction, modeling, and social exchange and their impact on the development of love, sexual behavior, and satisfaction with one's sex life.

The data were collected as part of a study designed to determine the factors which influence the sexual behavior and contraceptive use of never-married college students. A survey research design was

employed which used personal interviews of a random sample of 421 male and 402 female undergraduate students. The investigation of parental influence on love, sexual behavior, and satisfaction with sex life focused on a subsample of the larger study and included only those students who were currently not living at home and who reported living with both parents while growing up. The resulting subsample consisted of 696 respondents, 363 males and 333 females who were relatively evenly divided by year in school. Multiple step-wise regression and path analysis were used as the analytic mode.

The findings indicated that parents do influence conceptualizations of love, levels of sexual behavior, and satisfaction with sex life among young adults. For males, parental sexual messages affect the respondent's perception of parents as affective models, and in turn the student's relationship with his parents. While parental sexual messages influenced the sexual behavior of males, parental affective modeling was significantly related to perceived satisfaction with their sex lives. Sexual behavior, however, was the major influence on sexual satisfaction and was strongly related to age, as indicated by the student's year in school.

For females, the findings suggest a much more complicated set of interrelationships. While the affective modeling of parents had a positive influence on the respondent's relationship with her parents, it also had a negative influence on sexual behavior and a positive influence on sexual satisfaction. These relationships, however, were all related to age since females, as they increase in age, become more sexually involved, perceive love as a sharing relationship, and have

weaker ties with parents. Nevertheless, the residual effect of parental influence on sexuality during the formative years of females impacts upon later satisfaction with their sex lives.

Hence, the posited model of parental influence on love, sexual behavior, and sexual satisfaction suggests that parents not only influence sexual behavior, but also students' feelings about it. Although this model of parental influence explains only a small portion of the variance, the role of parents in the sexual socialization of their children is still important. In general, the model appeared relatively straightforward for males, but it was much more complex for females, thereby indicating the various conflicting pushes and pulls of positive and negative influences that for females impinge upon their conceptualizations of love, levels of sexual behavior, and perceived sexual satisfaction.

DEDICATED

To Harry Anderson, a very special father,
and
to the many families of which I am a part.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background of Problem

A great deal of attention recently has been directed toward the growing number of adolescents that are becoming involved in sexual intercourse at progressively younger ages. Not only is there widespread sexual activity within this group, but there is also considerable misinformation about pregnancy risks, contraceptive use is poor, and there are many unwanted pregnancies (Juhasz, 1976; Zelnik and Kantner, 1972, 1977). Since research suggests that intercourse is presently permissible for some males and females in a relationship of love or affection, coital behavior has become increasingly popular for many adolescents and young adults (Carns, 1972; Komarovsky, 1976).

According to Gagnon and Simon (1973), sexual behavior is scripted behavior which is shaped by social and cultural circumstances, as well as by individual fantasies. Adolescent males who focus on their perceptions of sexual scripts are relatively untrained in the communications and actions of love, while adolescent females who are committed to intimate love, are relatively untrained sexually. This leads to the possibility that among adolescents who are just learning the sexual scripts for heterosocial and heterosexual behavior, there may be some confusion between sexuality and love. This new and aware

generation has sensed that prior ways of socializing love and sex have been cheating them of intimacy, and rebellions against the "courting system" have begun an "intimate revolution." However, despite an honest effort, most of the rebels only manage to cultivate the outward semblances of the intimacy they seek (Bach and Deutsch, 1973). Thus, in an environment of changing social norms toward greater freedom for sexual expression, more adolescents are attempting to explore intimate adult behaviors resulting in increasing numbers of young persons participating in coitus at even younger ages (Miller and Simon, 1974; Vener and Stewart, 1974).

The greater participation in coital activities by adolescents is concurrent with an alarmingly high level of conception within this segment of the population. While total fertility and birth rates of American women have been declining over the past decade, these rates have been gradually increasing for adolescent females, with the total number of adolescent pregnancies exceeding one million per year (Jorgenson, 1977; Zelnik and Kantner, 1978b). Not only are the dangers to infant and maternal health greater for young mothers, but early pregnancy is also associated with increasing school drop-out rates as well as hasty decisions to marry, and can be a potential detriment to the development of the human capital potential of both the young parent and the infant (Furstenberg, 1976).

Children learn their most fundamental lessons about human relationships within their families. Familial experiences profoundly affect the capacity for intimacy; for communicating love and anger; for sharing and withholding; for giving as well as taking; for accepting or rejecting one's own sexuality and that of others; and for

participating in the entire range of human experiences from birth to death (Chilman, 1978). Although the family can be looked to as the primary socializer, educator, and developer of human resources in children, its inability to meet all the needs of its offspring within a complex technological society has resulted in the development of various social and educational support systems (Leichter, 1974). While the family plays a critical role in child rearing, society has also been investing a significant part of its resources in providing assistance to families that are unable, on their own, to assure their children of a reasonable start in life or are in need of supplementary assistance by educational institutions. This educational-training system not only contributes to the development of children, but also does much more. It takes over from the family a large part of the socializing tasks by emphasizing societal norms, strengthening certain behaviors, and reinforcing particular values (Ginzberg, 1976).

Another issue which evolves along with these changes is whether sexual, contraceptive, and reproductive behavior is a private or public issue. Human affairs remain private when the consequences of an act by a person or group of people are confined mainly to the person or group directly involved. In contrast, when the consequences are recognized by others as having an effect upon society in general, and there is an effort to influence these consequences, they become a public affair ("What is Public Affairs," 1969). As such, the sexual behaviors of adolescents go beyond the sexual interaction of the dyad and affect their parents, resultant progeny, peers, educational systems, health delivery systems, and societal support services.

Statement of Problem

Although the family does not perform all the child-rearing functions that it once did, the family is still regarded as the primary and crucial agent in a child's socialization (Elkin and Handel, 1978; Leichter, 1974; Paolucci, 1977; Hess and Tourney, 1967). However, very little research has dealt specifically with parental socialization of attitudes, values, and feelings related to sexuality. The research that has been done on parental influence in the area of sexual behavior has focused primarily on knowledge aspects of sexual activities and contraceptive practices and has indicated that parents are not major sources of sexual information (Thompson and Spanier, 1978; Finkel and Finkel, 1975; Vincent and Stelling, 1973; Gebhard, 1977; Thornberg, 1972; Spanier, 1976, 1977). These studies indicate the stronger influence of peers.

A related component of the problem results from the accelerating social changes that seem to have made people even more concerned with love and intimacy than they were in previous decades (Skolnick, 1978). This social-psychological phenomenon is evidenced by the numerous books on intimate relationships that are being written in an attempt to help individuals deal with the eroding bonds that used to tie them together (Davis, 1973). Why is intimate love so important? Because what men and women seek from love today is no longer a romantic luxury; it is an essential element of emotional survival--the hope of finding in intimate love something of personal validity, personal relevance, and personal confirmation of one's existence. In today's world, when people are made to feel faceless, as numbers on a list, they want

intimate love to provide the feelings of worth and identity that will preserve sanity and meaning (Bach and Deutsch, 1973).

Intimate love evolves from a close personal relationship which integrates deep affection, love, and sexual satisfaction. Sexual satisfaction is more than the number and quality of climaxes, frequency of coitus, positions assumed, or techniques used; it is an affirmation of love (McCary, 1978). Sexual satisfaction is often, but not necessarily, closely and complexly intertwined with relational satisfaction. A person's sex interest and responsiveness are directly related to partner sexual satisfaction, which, in turn, may contribute to relational satisfaction (Udry, 1968). Consequently, the study of intimate relationships and sexual satisfaction may, according to Rubin (1977, p. 59), "make a positive contribution to the quality of life" at a time when rapid changes in attitudes and behaviors concerning sex and love have caused great confusion.

In general, research studies on adolescent sexuality tend to either explore who does what, with whom, how and when, or to focus on such topics as contraceptive use, pregnancy, abortions, and the legitimacy or illegitimacy of children (Chilman, 1978). This narrow view imposes severe limitations on the many meanings of intimacy and sexuality. Not only are such views too limited from a humane perspective, but they also stifle the understanding of the causes and consequences of these sexual behaviors. In addition, very few of the investigations have explored the consequences of sexual behavior on perceived life satisfactions or human happiness, and almost no study has asked about the psychological relationship between sex and love (Chilman, 1978). Love, which is a highly prized youth value, is also,

for some individuals, a prerequisite for sex (Yankelovich, 1974; Otto, 1972; King and Sobel, 1975). While a few social scientists (Ellis, 1973; Slater, 1977; Greenwald, 1971) believe that love and sex are independent and, to some degree, unrelated functions, others (McCary, 1978; Kirkendall and Anderson, 1973; Lowen, 1972; Bach and Deutsch, 1970; Fromme, 1965) propose that love increases the pleasure of sex and that sex is an expression of love. The love received by a child in his/her early years can be a powerful influence in shaping his/her later feelings and concepts of love. Out of a child's experiences of parental love evolve later feelings of self and reactions to the world (Fromme, 1965; Harlow, 1971). Thus, the family plays an important role in giving the child a capacity to give, receive, and share love.

Hence, the convergence of these multiple reasons has stimulated the need for this investigation. Not only has there been an increase in the number of young adolescents involved in sexual intercourse, an acceleration in the birth rates among teenagers, a questioning of private versus public domain, and a quest for personal relevance through intimate relationships and sexual satisfaction, but there has also been a lack of research concerning the impact of parents on the social-psychological elements of intimacy, love, and sexuality. It is this lack of knowledge regarding the influence of parents and the roles they play in the socialization of love, sexual satisfaction, and intimacy in their children that has resulted in confusion for families, educators, and policy makers.

Conceptual Approach

The family can be regarded as the first and most important socialization agent. According to Elkin and Handel (1978), socialization can be defined as the process by which the ways of a given society or social group are learned so that one may function within it. In general, learning involves developmental change within the individual which sometimes evolves through teaching, entails communication, and occurs within emotionally significant relationships.

The family encompasses emotionally significant relationships and is both a major component in a child's socialization and an important element in a child's development and education. While the use of these terms involves some similarities, there are also some differences: (1) socialization is generally concerned with the processes by which persons acquire the ability to participate in society and includes enculturation, whereby individuals learn the ways of a particular culture; (2) development of humans considers the time dimension of change and growth; and (3) education entails those processes used to assist and/or enhance the learning of skills, knowledge, and other life tasks of one person by another. Thus, family members educate one another consciously and unconsciously, and can be considered as both teachers and learners (Paolucci, 1977).

Since the experiences of children have often been dichotomized under the concepts of socialization and education, there has been a tendency to call attention to the family as the agent of socialization, but not education, and make the school the agent of education, but not socialization. The conceptual void and discontinuities between these concepts have resulted in a narrow perspective of families (Leichter,

1974). Consequently, the conceptual approach utilized in this investigation will employ a broad view of the family as an environment in which both socialization and education occur to effect the development of human resources either explicitly or implicitly.

Parents as Socializers and Educators

Primary socialization within the family entails demands upon parents and upon offspring with effort required from each if the child is to achieve the levels of control, skill, orientation, and need satisfaction which will permit him/her to participate with others who are outside the family in a broader social environment (Clausen, 1974). Socialization can, therefore, be conceptualized as an intergenerational transmission of culture through acquisition of impulse control and role learning for social participation. These socio-cultural influences impact on the early experiences of the individual (1) through family structure which determines the nature of the child's earliest interpersonal experiences, but which in turn is affected by the broader social system with which it is integrated, and (2) through parental mediation in which parents consciously and unconsciously train their children for successful adaptation to a changing social order (Levine, 1973).

Socialization within the family can be conceptualized as both "process and product, i.e., a concern for interactional processes and sequences among family members, as well as the effects of this interaction upon the self-system of the interactants" (Weigert, Thomas, and Gecas, 1972, p. 2). Socialization can, therefore, be viewed as the residue of interaction, with each interaction episode leaving its

residual in the conceptions of self and other. The formation, modification, reinforcement, and elaboration of these conceptions is the essence of the socialization process (Turner, 1970).

The family is the arena in which the earliest and usually most intensive socializing interactions take place. Although the majority of socialization that occurs is unplanned, inadvertent, and a by-product of activities that serve other purposes, the family is also a place of deliberate socialization designed to bring about desired outcomes. Adults and sometimes older siblings consciously attempt to socialize children, while the children understand that it is socially expected that they should accept and cooperate with these socialization efforts. However, many socializing influences are not under parental control. When parent and child perspectives become divergent, the child may respond with resistance, but even though social efforts appear ineffective, private acceptance of the socialization messages can occur in conjunction with overt noncompliance (Turner, 1970).

Through the years the family environment has been the primary setting for family members to learn basic life tasks. The family organizes and uses various resources such as materials, time, labor, talents, skills and space to achieve its particularistic set of goals. Some of these resources are invested in the development of the human resources of its members, so they can become productive and self-fulfilled persons (Paolucci, 1977). Human resources are those physical, psychological, social, cultural and economic attributes which an individual possesses in order to fulfill his/her varying roles (Liston, 1974). It is not the sum total of these attributes that is so significant, but their unique integration or interaction as they pertain to

the achievement of some goal that the person wishes to attain. The family environment constitutes the primary input system for the development of an individual's human resources by facilitating direct transfers and exchanges of goods and services while integrating the content of societal norms and values (Paolucci, 1977).

The moment-to-moment process of education within the family and the general processes by which the family mediates educational experiences gained elsewhere have received little attention in the recent literature (Leichter, 1974). The emphasis in the literature on the family and other systems varies with the state of the individual's life cycle. The family is seen as the central arena of education for the very young child, while for older children the focus shifts to the school. For adults the focus shifts to their professions or occupations. Yet, as the life cycle progresses, multiple arenas of education co-exist with the family which provides a base where one can appraise, evaluate, and understand or twist, magnify, or ignore his/her everyday experiences.

Parental socialization and education of children, whether deliberate or inadvertent, can be conceptualized as occurring through three interrelated processes: interaction, modeling, and social exchange. These three processes occur simultaneously in the ongoing everyday activities of family life.

Interaction. Socialization entails a continuing interaction between the individual and those persons who influence him or her. An interaction episode begins with a gesture made by one person. Gesture is used in a broad sense to mean any behavior that can be assigned some meaning by the actor and observer and can range from a subtle body

posture to a carefully delivered lecture (Mead, 1934). The succession of such gestures, each of which is interpreted as the basis for a response, comprises the interaction sequence. Since socialization is a cumulative residue of interaction episodes, each episode is marked by a mutual testing for the response of the other and may be followed by a period of reassessment. Some of the residues of family interaction include:

1. Learning the family culture or a family's patterns, standards, and ways of interacting.
2. Learning responses to the frustrations and gratifications of various impulses.
3. Learning effective adaptations to environmental situations.
4. Learning an integrative framework by which to determine assigned meanings of experiences including values, motives, sentiments, and their symbolic transmission (Turner, 1970).

Within the family, interaction is both intimate and intense. Parents and children communicate not only intellectually by exchanging ideas, judgements, and sentiments, but also emotionally so that factual messages may be filled with love or hate. In addition, much of the communication in the family is nonverbal based on an intimate knowledge of what a smile, hug, grunt, or sigh means. Thus, in the most intimate moments of family life, words can become superfluous (Shipman, 1972).

Waring (1939), whose classic bulletin has not been changed substantially since the 1930s, discussed some of the interactional processes by which parents become the critical educators and developers of human resources. She suggested that approval fosters values, help stimulates abilities, respect encourages self respect, and affection

gives security. These interactional guidelines were outlined for parents who wanted to provide learning experiences for children which would facilitate their development into happy, healthy, and well-adjusted adults.

According to Shaefer (1972), the family is an important educational institution for family members from birth to maturity. Ten characteristics of parental interaction with the child are suggested as having a cumulative impact on the child's development:

Priority--Parents influence the early development of relationships, language, interests, and task-oriented behaviors.

Duration--The parent's interactions with the child usually extend from birth to maturity.

Continuity--Prolonged separations of parent and child are rare.

Amount--The total amount of time spent in parent-child interaction tends to be greater than between the child and other adults.

Extensivity--Parents share more different situations and experiences with the child than do other adults.

Intensity--The degree of involvement between parent and child is usually more intense than between the child and other adults.

Pervasiveness--The parent influences the child's contacts with other persons and institutions and controls the child's access to society and society's access to the child.

Consistency--Parents develop consistent patterns of behavior with their children.

Responsibility--Both society and parents recognize the parent's primary responsibility for the child's welfare and development.

Variability--Great variability exists in parental care of children, from the extremes of parental acceptance, involvement, and stimulation to the extremes of parental neglect and abuse (Schaefer, 1972, p. 28).

The cumulative effect of these interaction characteristics is of primary importance when viewing the family as an educator.

Modeling. Children learn by watching others. Thus, the contagious behavior of others results in a child taking on the actions of a model without visible inducement or compulsion; no candy, smile, or discomfort is needed for persuasion. While a reinforcement paradigm requires waiting for the behavior to appear before reinforcing it, modeling provides a means for bringing about a behavior pattern which might otherwise not occur. Modeling also goes beyond imitation by employing the adoption of behaviors which are symbolic equivalents of the model's behavior. Although many of the particular acts exhibited by an individual are identical with those of the model, many others are not. However, they express the same mood. Consequently, modeling can be defined as the acquisition and performance by a subject of an act concretely or symbolically similar to that previously exhibited by a model (Bronfenbrenner, 1970).

Three factors affect the modeling process: the characteristics of the subject, the characteristics of the stimulus act, and the characteristics of the model. The first factor is concerned with an individual's ability to perceive the stimulus act and to become motivated or interested in observing the model, learning the observed behavior, and performing that behavior. The characteristics of the

stimulus act constitute the second factor which focuses on the breakdown of complex sequences of behavior into smaller components so that the total behavior may be learned more readily.

The factor which has the greatest potential for influencing the modeling process concerns the characteristics of the model.

Specifically:

1. The potency of the model increases with the extent to which the model is perceived as possessing a high degree of competence, status, and control over resources.
2. The inductive power of the model increases with the degree of prior nurturance or reward exhibited by the model.
3. The most influential models for the child are those who are the major source of support in his/her environment and who play a prominent role in everyday life.
4. The inductive power of the model increases with the degree to which the person perceives the model as similar to him/herself.
5. Several models exhibiting similar behavior are more powerful inducers of change than a single model.
6. The potency of the model is enhanced when the behavior exhibited is a salient feature in the actions of a group to which the child already belongs or aspires to belong.
7. The power of the model to induce actual performance is strongly influenced by the observed consequences of the exhibited behavior for the model (Bronfenbrenner, 1970, pp. 132-134).

Parent models play a central role in children's social development since children have many opportunities to observe and imitate their parents in daily activities. Such observational learning may

lead children to share their parents' values, attitudes, and characteristic response styles, and although other adults and children may also provide models for imitation, parents are probably the most influential. While a certain amount of socialization takes place through direct training, personality patterns are acquired through a child's active modeling of parental attitudes and behaviors. Even though most of these attitudes and behaviors have never been intentionally taught by parents, parental modeling may often counteract the effects of direct training (Bandura, 1969). Thus, as the most powerful models for the child, parents and other intimate associates can become the most important potential agents for establishing patterns and bringing about change in the child's behavior (Bronfenbrenner, 1970).

Social Exchange. Embedded within the socialization and education processes of interaction and modeling is social exchange. Social exchange represents a general perspective of human behavior which allows for an analysis of interpersonal relationships based on what each member of the dyad exchanges with the other. The basic premise is that humans form interpersonal relationships in the light of benefits, costs, or profits expected from such associations (Thiabaut and Kelley, 1959; Homans, 1971, 1974; Blau, 1964). According to Homans (1961, p. 62) "the open secret of human exchange is to give the other man behavior that is more valuable to him than it is costly to you, and to get from him behavior that is more valuable to you than it is costly to him."

The ability to exchange is learned and begins at the time of conception. According to Kersten (1978) people pass through five

developmental stages of exchange that build upon one another, although individuals may differ in the rapidity of their progress through these stages, as well as in their other ultimate levels of development. Around the age of eighteen, the individual begins to exchange as an adult, but how a person exchanges can vary greatly depending upon early childhood nurturance and the positive and negative rewards received throughout childhood. Thus, learning to exchange is a developmental process involving the interaction of biological, cultural, social, and psychological factors.

Foa and Foa (1974) also focus on the developmental nature of exchanges in interpersonal relationships by examining various aspects of social cognition. Development is seen as a process of differentiation and generalization of social actions which is similar to Piaget's conceptualization of cognitive events. Initially, differentiations are linked to the mode or direction of exchange composed of the two elements--acceptance, or giving, and rejection, or taking away. Subsequent dimensions of differentiations include distinguishing between self and other, as well as the recipient of the behavior and six classes of interpersonal resources which include love, status, information, money, goods, and services.

Transactional resources in the family setting are seldom clear-cut due to the informality of family behavior. Conversely, exchanges in a highly structured and formal social setting, such as a bureaucracy, are comprised of a number of well-defined resources including specialized skills, knowledge, or power. As a result, one of the more difficult conceptual problems of family social exchange pertains to what is actually exchanged (Edwards, 1969). Family exchanges are based

on the assumption that what is given does not necessarily have to be returned in kind. In family social exchanges substitutions are frequently made so that money may be given in order to earn respect or a service may be rendered in order to insure continued love. Social exchanges can often be rewarding in and of themselves, irrespective of the resources gained from the exchange (Traupman, 1976). Individuals can have altruistic motivations toward their exchanges and, therefore, the givers receive positive feelings about themselves as loving parents or children.

According to Murstein, Cerrato and MacDonald (1977), a preoccupation with equity of exchange may even be negatively associated with satisfaction in an interpersonal relationship, depending on the nature of the relationship. While interpersonal exchanges and friendship are positively related, marriage relationships based on an intense concern with equity are negatively related to marital adjustment. Thus, the informality of attitudes toward exchange within family environments is related to higher quality interpersonal relationships.

Another element in familial exchange transactions is the assumption that it is possible for persons to build up equity in a relationship so exchanges equalize over an extended period of time. What is important is not necessarily who exchanges the most resources at a given time, but how both participants perceive their cost/benefit ratio over time. This concept is an important factor in parent-child relations which generally last a lifetime (Spakes, 1978).

The third assumption of the social exchange approach focuses on the qualitative aspects of the exchange, as well as the quantitative aspects. While the amount of resources exchanged has traditionally

received primary consideration, the addition of the qualitative perspective integrates the meaning of these resources to the persons involved (Spakes, 1978).

Since exchanges do not take place in a vacuum, there is a social context to the exchange relationship. This fourth assumption recognizes the critical factor of social sanctions on behavior. Social sanctions discourage individuals from forgetting their obligations; therefore, the social context of interaction, cultural understandings, and specific norms about reciprocity plays an important role in shaping exchange behavior. The adherence to group norms, in conjunction with the value of consistently acting with them, contributes to the complexity, meaning, and value of the exchange.

The emergent quality of a social exchange or successive exchanges has been a primary concern among social exchange theorists. While Murstein, Cerrato, and MacDonald (1977) related exchange to friendship intensity and satisfaction with interpersonal relationships, Altman and Taylor (1973) viewed social penetration or intimacy as the result of social exchange. They suggested that exchanges in interpersonal relations gradually progress from superficial nonintimate areas to more intimate and deeper layers of the self. With rewarding encounters, new areas of personality become accessible and more intimate exchanges develop along with a greater volume of interaction.

Although every interaction has components of feeling, the family is distinctive in the part played by organized sentiments called love. The cultural patterns of love are taught by both admonition and example which require that the learner become familiar with the appropriate behavior and the situations to which it is applicable, as well as learn

to identify certain internal sensations as indicators of love. Mastering the cultural forms of love, however, does not guarantee the ability to give and receive love effectively. Exchange of love sentiments involves intimacy which is often taken as a euphemism for sexual intercourse. If intimacy is the mutual penetration beyond the public layers of the self into the most private and sensitive core, then intimacy means that the sex act, as a physiological expression, is subordinate to its personal and social meaning. Therefore, the sexual act becomes a symbolic exchange of sentiments of love, as well as a vital and comprehensive bonding experience (Turner, 1970).

Traupman's (1976) focus on equity considerations in intimate relationships proposes that individuals in equitable relationships feel more love and less resentment in their relationships which will result in their feeling happier and more satisfied. Whether these close relationships and resultant intimacies are dyadic or familial, they are perceived as indicators of the social quality of life. As such, these close and satisfying family relationships contribute significantly to overall life satisfaction (Campbell, Converse, and Rodgers, 1976). Thus, according to Leichter (1974) the family can be viewed as an arena in which virtually the entire range of human experiences can take place. Violence, love, tenderness, honesty, deceit, sharing, power, and decision making can all be found within the family setting embedded in a variety of socialization and educational encounters, ranging from conscious instruction to modeling, interaction, and exchange influences at the margins of awareness.

A Proposed Model of Parental Influence
on Love, Sexual Behavior, and
Sexual Satisfaction

The proposed model of parental influence on love, sexual behavior, and sexual satisfaction attempts to incorporate indicators of parental socialization as a manifestation of close parental relationships which influence student conceptualizations of love, levels of sexual behavior, and perceptions of sexual satisfaction. Since it is recognized that intimate relationships result from human interactions and exchanges in a variety of social settings, the model in Figure 1 depicts a broad range of social relationships involved in the development of perceived intimacy. Hence, this model encompasses the socialization influences of parents, partners, and peers as they all relate to the resulting intimacy indicated by the individual's conceptualizations of love, sexual behavior, and sexual satisfaction.

A variety of socio-cultural norms and values affect the socialization of intimacy in children and young adults. Although the peer group is recognized as one of the major influences in the sexual socialization of young adults, the purpose of this study is to focus specifically on parental influence which could be obscured by including the peer component. The model in Figure 2 will be utilized to focus specifically on the extent of parental influence on intimacy by examining conceptualizations of love, sexual behavior, and sexual satisfaction of adult children. Figure 2 incorporates various indicators of parental socialization which have resulted from the combined effect of interaction, modeling, and social exchange processes. These indicators include parental modeling, expression of feelings, demonstration of affection, contact, discussion of sex, sexual messages, and expression

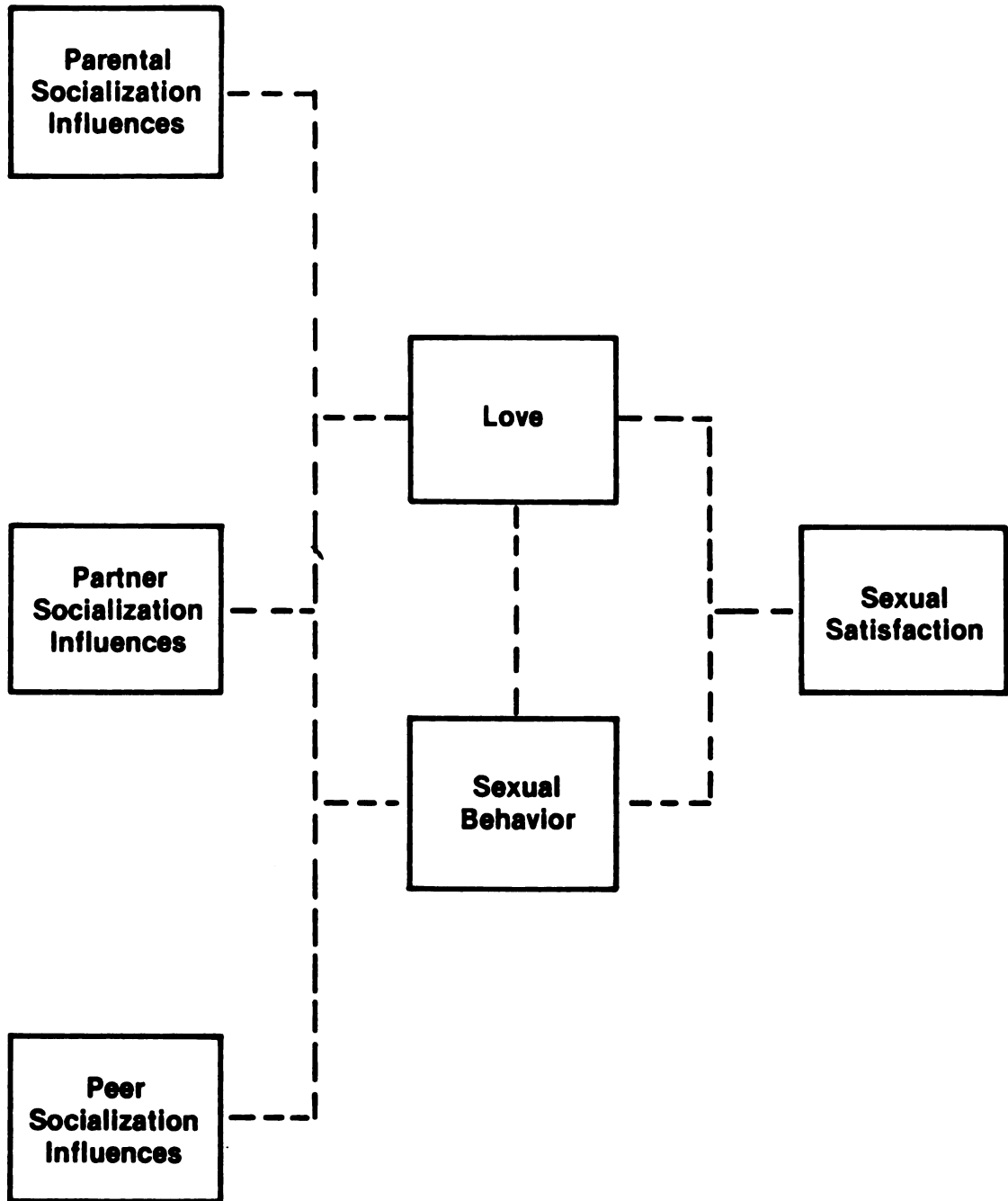


Figure 1. Parental, Partner, and Peer Influence on Love, Sexual Behavior, and Sexual Satisfaction

Indicators of Parental Socialization

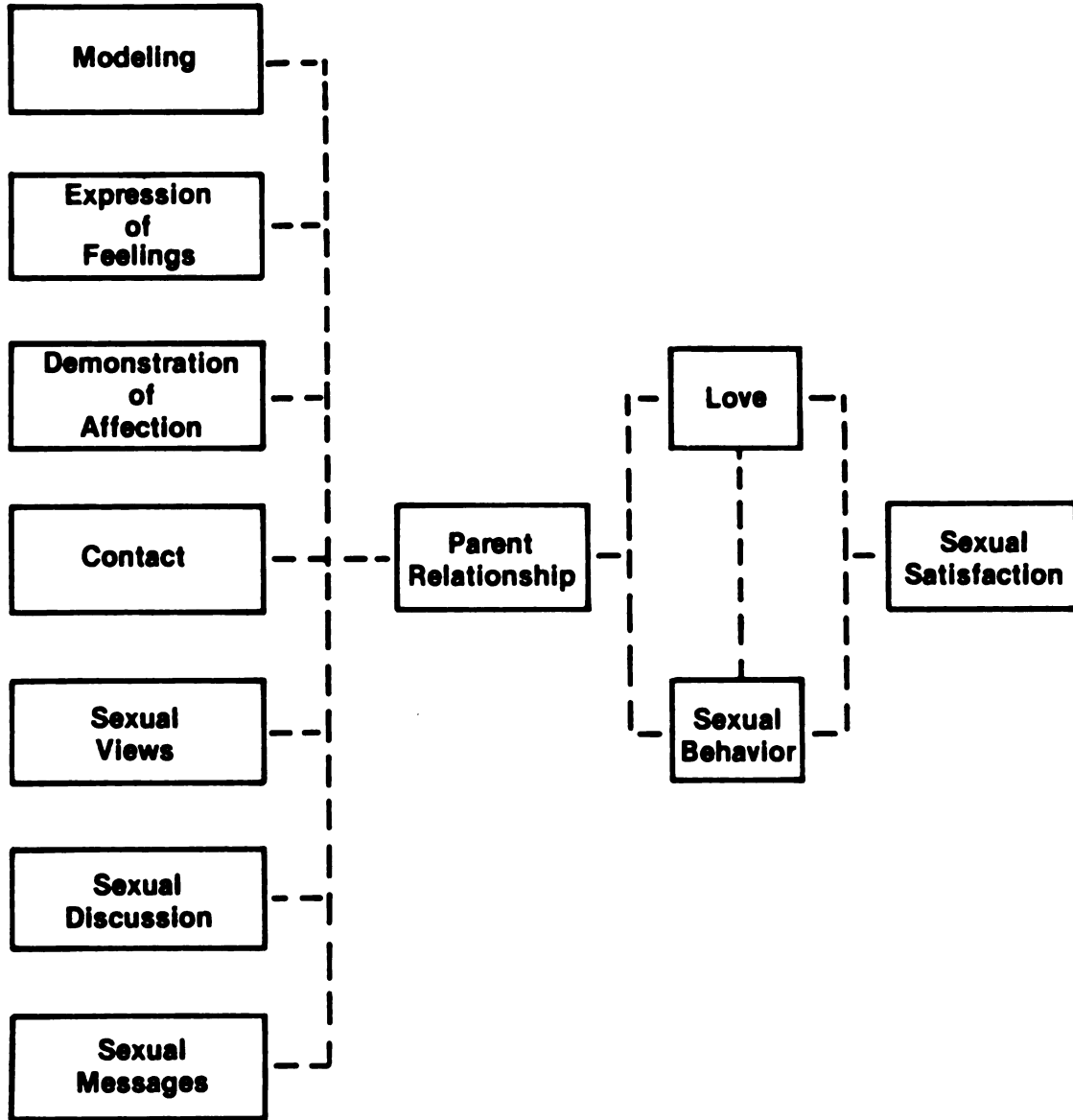


Figure 2. Parental Influence on Love, Sexual Behavior, and Sexual Satisfaction

of sexual views. Although this investigation is based on current perceptions of parental socialization influences and relationships, as well as current conceptualizations of love, sexual behavior, and sexual satisfaction, these concepts are the cumulative result of a developmental process of socialization and education.

Parental socialization as indicated by an integration of interaction, modeling, and social exchange processes contributes to the student's perception of the quality of the relationship with his/her parents. The perceived quality of this relationship is not only an indication of the level of satisfaction with the relationship, but is also assumed to influence conceptualizations of love which can then affect the student's sexual satisfaction. Degree of sexual satisfaction is perceived as a measure of received rewards in one's sex life. The proposed model conceptualizes satisfaction with one's sex life as resulting from the interaction of several factors including parental socialization influences, relationships with parents, and conceptualization of love within the context of one's sexual behavior.

Purpose and Objectives

The overall purpose of this study is to investigate how the parent-child relationship influences intimacy by examining conceptualizations of love, sexual behavior, and sexual satisfaction among never-married college students. Specifically, the objectives of this study include the investigation of the following research questions:

1. To what extent are indicators of parent-child socialization related to a student's perception of the relationship with his/her parents?

2. To what extent are parental socialization and the relationship between the student and his/her parents related to developmental levels of student conceptualizations of love?
3. To what extent are parental socialization and the relationship between the student and his/her parents related to levels of student sexual behavior?
4. To what extent are developmental levels of student conceptualizations of love related to the degree of satisfaction with one's sex life, while controlling for level of sexual behavior?
5. To what extent can the relationships among the variables be summarized and explained by the proposed model of parental influence on love, sexual behavior, and sexual satisfaction?

Definitions

Child: A male or female offspring, without any age distinctions.

Adolescent: A male or female individual within a period of life between puberty and maturity, ranging from approximately thirteen to nineteen. This age span is indicative and inclusive of the various age ranges utilized by researchers investigating adolescents.

Indicators of Parental Socialization: Variables which serve as indices of the contribution of modeling, interaction, and social exchange to the parent-child relationship.

Modeling: The student's perception of regard or esteem for his/her parent by the response to a question asking how much the student would "want to become the kind of person the mother/father is." This perception will be assumed to indicate a child's desire for

emulation of his/her parents based on the characteristics of the parent models as competent, nurturant, and supportive.

Expression of Feeling: The student's perception of parental ability to express feelings. The use of this indicator assumes that expression of feelings signifies interaction in a trusting environment in which intimate exchanges can occur.

Demonstration of Affection: The student's perception of the frequency of parental demonstration of affection for each other. The use of this indicator assumes that parents are role models for the demonstration of affection.

Contact: The amount of parent-child contact based on the number of times a student went home in a quarter, the number of times a student called home in a month, and the number of times the student wrote home during the last month. The use of this indicator assumes that contacts and time spent with parents are conditions that facilitate the socialization processes of modeling, interaction, and resource exchange.

Sexual Views: The student's perception of the liberality or conservativeness of parental views on sex based on the response to a question on how the student would characterize the parent's viewpoint on sex. The use of this indicator assumes that parental value positions on sex can influence the intimate orientations of their children.

Sexual Discussion: The student's perception of the frequency of sexual messages received from his/her parents, based on the response to a question concerning how often sex was the subject of general family conversation.

Sexual Messages: The student's perception of the kinds of things his/her parents communicated about sex. These messages may have been communicated directly by talking to the student or indirectly, either through what was said about the behavior of others or through the way parents acted towards the student or other people. It is assumed that parental communications about sex will reflect parental attitudes toward sex.

Parental Relationship: The student's perception of how well he/she got along with parents during the last two years of high school, in conjunction with current perceptions of the relationship as having no change or having become better or worse. It is assumed that a measure of the quality of the parental relationship will be an indicator of the degree of cumulative satisfaction with prior interaction, modeling, and social exchanges between the parents and the child.

Love: The student's conceptualization of love, which was secured through an open-ended question on what love means to the student now and coded according to the three-level developmental schema: (1) a getting relationship, (2) a giving relationship, and (3) a sharing relationship (Appendix D). It is assumed that the quality of parent-child interactions and exchanges will reflect orientations toward intimacy that will be manifested in varying developmental levels of conceptualizing love.

Sexual Behavior: The measure of a student's reported level of most intimate sexual behavior, ranging from no dating, dating with no physical relationship, kissing, light petting, and heavy petting, to intercourse. Sexual behavior will also be measured in terms of a

student's current involvement in intercourse, past involvement in intercourse, and noninvolvement in intercourse.

Sexual Satisfaction: The student's perception of the degree of sexual satisfaction by virtue of a response to the question, "In general, how satisfied are you with your sex life?" It is assumed that sexual satisfaction is an indicator of perceived rewards which have evolved from parental and other socialization influences and familial interaction and exchange orientations toward the development of love and intimacy.

Assumptions

In addition to the assumptions that relate to the variables, the general assumptions involved in this study include:

1. Parental socialization and education of children involves the processes of interaction, modeling, and social exchange.
2. Exchanges in these three processes are not necessarily equitable or reciprocal with regard to the specific resource transferred and the immediacy of the time frame.
3. Indicators of parental socialization and education can have both quantitative and qualitative dimensions.
4. Quantity and quality of parental socialization and education influences affect intimate interpersonal relationships both within the family and within other close relationships.
5. Socialization and education of children by their parents occur in a milieu of social sanctions on behavior and competitive social relationships.

6. Perceptions of satisfaction with one's sex life are comprised of an integration of sexual behavior and feelings of intimacy and love.
7. Indicators of parental socialization, as perceived by the respondents, contribute to the quality of parent-child relationships and denote the satisfaction with the reciprocal nature of interaction between parent and child.
8. Respondents have accurately reported the objective data, as well as their perceptions regarding subjective data.

Statement of Limitations

This study is based upon a secondary analysis of a limited portion of an investigation whose overall purpose was to determine the factors that affect the sexual behavior and contraceptive use of never-married college students. The original study was not designed for the specific objectives of this analysis, and, consequently, results can only be used in an exploratory manner to provide: (1) an indication of parental influence on intimacy, (2) a direction for further development of the research model, and (3) a guide for continued research efforts on this topic.

Since the data collection instrument was developed within the perspective of Lewinian field theory and reference groups, and not parental interaction, modeling, and social exchange, the questions are not specifically directed to these processes as they relate to parents and children. There are also no consistent measures to distinguish between both the quantitative and qualitative aspects of parent socialization and education, since some indicators are measured in terms of

quantity, while others are measured in terms of quality. In addition, the original research design did not include a method of gaining information regarding parental perceptions of parent socialization influences on parent-child relationships; thus, a comparison between parental and respondent perceptions cannot be made.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The research related to this study is organized into five categories. The first section, changing trends in sexual behavior, contains an investigation of trends in sexual activities and attitudes, and the second section presents an overview of the sexual behavior of never-married adults. A review of the relationship of parents to their children as sexual socializers constitutes the third section. The fourth section examines love and intimacy; the fifth section integrates these two concepts into a discussion of sexual satisfaction.

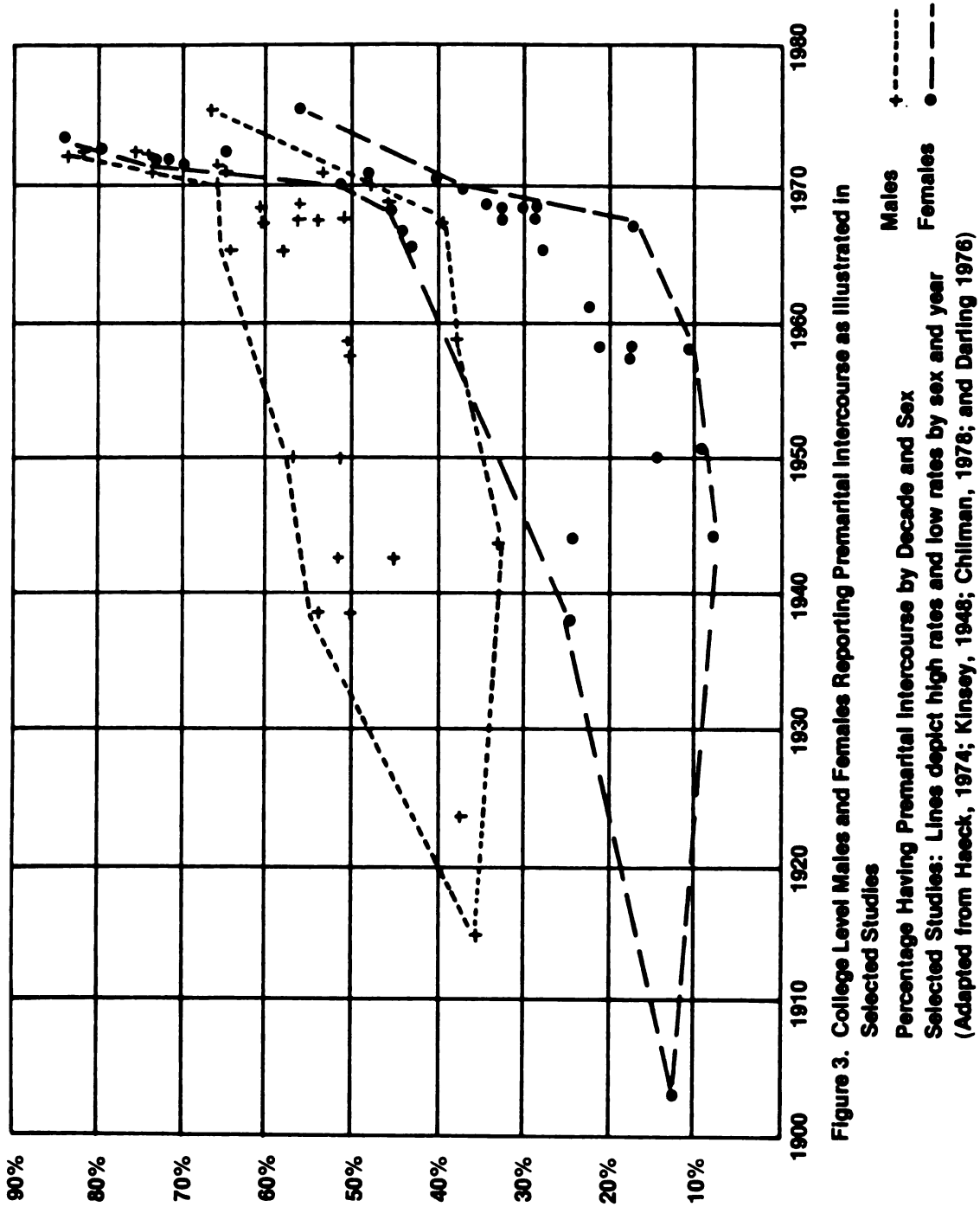
Changing Trends in Sexual Behavior

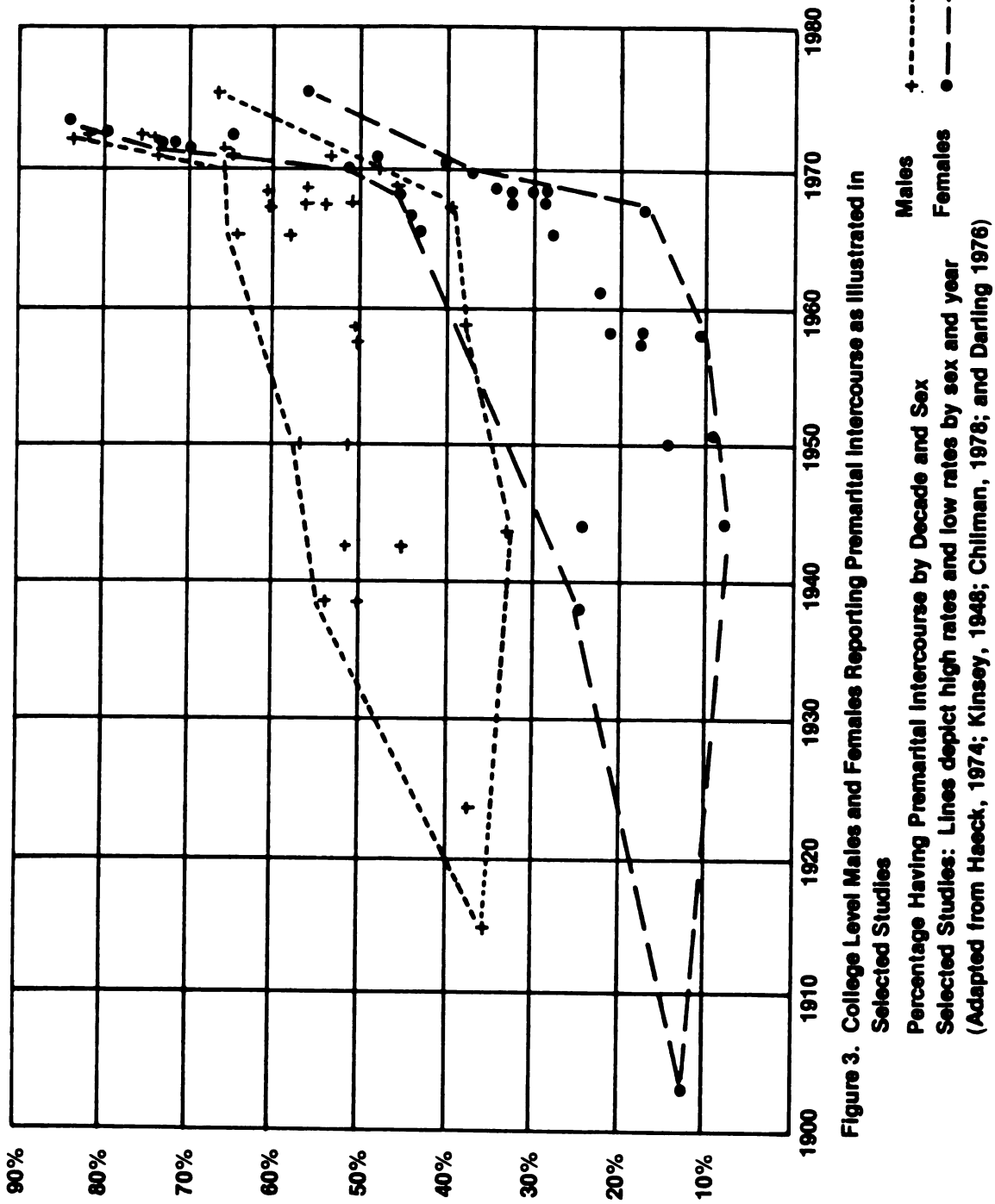
Since the mid 1960s, research in the area of human sexual behavior has become increasingly popular, contributing to the ongoing debate about the existence or nonexistence of the so-called "sexual revolution." According to McCary (1978), how can the occurrence of a sexual revolution be accepted when sexual ignorance and anxiety have not appreciably lessened? In contrast, others say that current levels of sexual interest and sexual activity have so changed that a true sexual revolution or sexual renaissance does exist (Croak and James, 1973; Otto, 1971). These perceptual differences evolve because of various qualities that are used to characterize the sexual revolution. According to

Webster's New World Dictionary (Guralnik, 1976), a revolution is a sudden, complete, or radical change. However, in order to determine the existence of such a revolution, the concept must be operationally defined by examining either behavioral changes such as coital rates; attitudinal changes such as feelings about virginity; promiscuity versus affectional interpersonal relationships; or subsequent emotions of pleasure, guilt, or immorality.

Evidence of changing coital rates is depicted in Figure 3, which indicates the increasing involvement of males and females in pre-marital intercourse (adapted from Haeck, 1974, with modifications from Kinsey, 1948; Chilman, 1978; Darling, 1976). This diagram portrays the resulting coital rates from thirty selected studies which generally are focused on college-age populations and are reported by the year of data collection and not publication (Appendix A). This method of arranging research findings was chosen since the time lapse between these two dates could allow for a misinterpretation of sexual behavior trends.

Figure 3 clearly shows the wide variation of male and female coital rates from the early 1900s to the mid 1960s and the sharp rate of increase during 1968 to 1976. This increase has been considerably greater for females, and therefore, a convergence of male and female rates is definitely evident. For example, in 1972, Bauman and Wilson (1974) reported a 73 percent coital rate for both males and females, while in 1973, Jessor and Jessor (1975) found the coital rate for senior males to be 82 percent and coital rate for senior females to be 85 percent. Such similarities between rates did not exist from the early





1900s to the late 1960s, but have become increasingly reported during the 1970s.

Convergence is not only occurring in coital involvement, but also in an adherence to an affectional commitment within coitus (Lewis and Burr, 1975; King and Sobel, 1975; Juhasz, 1976). While intercourse within an affectional relationship used to be more predominant for females, now both males and females are reporting coital involvement within a social and emotional context of love. Thus, there is evidence of a convergence between males and females of both coital participation rates and attitudes of commitment and affection during coitus (Miller and Simon, 1974).

Other attitudinal changes are reported by Guttmacher and Vadies (1972), who found that for both male and female college students the importance of virginity has declined. While virginity is no longer an important criterion for social approval, sincerity and loyalty in interpersonal relationships are currently given high social ratings. King and Sobel (1975) concur, stating that the concept of a sexual revolution characterized by impersonal relationships and promiscuity is contradicted by data which indicate that most student sexual activity occurs in the context of an intimate relationship with another person.

Robinson, King, and Balswick (1972) also investigated changes that might have occurred in both premarital sexual behavior and sexual attitudes during a five year period (1965-1970). The most radical change they found was that in 1965, 70 percent of the female respondents felt premarital intercourse was immoral, while in 1970 only 34 percent of the females reported this attitude. Robinson et al. (1972) found that male sexual behaviors have remained relatively constant since the

1940s, while a noticeable liberalizing change has occurred in both female sexual behaviors and attitudes. Carns (1973) supports this concept and suggests that the revolution has primarily taken place in female sexual consciousness. LoPiccolo (1973) adds a further dimension from his study of the perceived and real differences in the sexual values of mothers and daughters. He found that the notion of a sexual revolution might be a result of differing generational opinions of the appropriateness of certain sexual behaviors.

Closely tied to behavioral and attitudinal changes in sexuality is the issue concerning the current status of the "double sexual standard." In order to clarify previous thought regarding the double sexual standard, Reiss' interpretation of its meaning is noted as follows (1955, p. 226):

Premarital sexual intercourse is wrong for all women; women that indulge are, therefore, bad women. Premarital sexual intercourse is excusable (if not right) for all men and thus men that indulge are not thereby bad men.

In addition, Reiss' discussion of hypothesized characteristics of the standard proposed that from the male point of view, a double standard of premarital intercourse encourages sexual relations in outside groups; requires virginity in one's own group; and encourages eliminating virginity with one's premarital female acquaintances. These characteristics result in a variance with American society's value of justice; interfere with a mutually satisfying sexual adjustment in marriage; and are incompatible with many vital aspects of our social structure.

Although Reiss' propositions were formulated some years ago, there is still evidence of the continued existence of the double sexual

standard. Needle (1975) found that men were less likely than women to have affection for their first coital partner and were less likely to have coitus again with their first partner. Fifty-three percent of the males had their first intercourse with a partner for whom they had little or no affection, while this was true for only 10.7 percent of the females.

In contrast, several social scientists have concluded that pre-marital sexual behavior is becoming more permissive, especially among women (Kaats and Davis, 1970; Robinson, King and Balswick, 1972; Reiss, 1967). For example, Bauman and Wilson (1976) found that both males and females were less likely to report being affected by the double sexual standard than in the past. This attitude was attributed to an increased rebelliousness toward societal problems and institutions among university students in the mid 1960s, which resulted in improved contraceptive services offered by universities and public agencies and increased numbers of colleges which now offer courses on human sexuality. Thus, the double standard appears to have developed into a standard of permissiveness within a context of affection and equality.

The actual demise of the double standard is not an easy trend to substantiate, however, because of problems in measuring internal beliefs, external behaviors, and comparisons between public versus private practices and rhetoric. With the emergence of an increasing equalitarian awareness by both males and females, self reports on belief and adherence to the double standard have questionable validity, since respondents may have become conditioned to socially appropriate statements (Bauman and Wilson, 1976). Consequently, any change that may be occurring in the double standard would be difficult to validate.

In summary, it is evident that a considerable change has occurred not only in the proportion of young adults who have engaged in sexual intercourse, but also in social and personal attitudes.

Two articles written during the 1960s and 1970s have demonstrated that social norms related to sex have changed over the years (Lewis and Brisset, 1967; Brisset and Lewis, 1979). The earlier analysis revealed that sex was treated as work, which was probably the consequence of an American need to justify play and resolve the contradictory values of work for work's sake and pleasure for pleasure's sake. The more recent analysis reflects certain changes in the American consciousness over the last decade by conveying a more rational-intellectual preoccupation with sexual variation. It also appears that sexuality has become exalted and that one's sex life will help transcend the dreariness and alienating experiences found in contemporary society. When sex is characterized as play, there is also the implicit prescription that every man and woman should participate in sexual play. Thus, there is some evidence that social and cultural norms regarding sex have changed over the last decade from an orientation toward work to one of play and games.

Hence, to many Americans the liberalization of sexual attitudes has meant the freedom to enjoy all the parts of the body; to employ caresses previously forbidden by civil or religious edicts and traditions; and to become sensuous and exuberant rather than perfunctory and solemn, as long as these feelings are in the framework of a meaningful relationship (Hunt, 1974). These new feelings of being venturesome have led to an attitude of experimentalism and willingness to try something new, as well as to an open verbal expressiveness about many

aspects of human sexuality both in interpersonal and media communications (Otto, 1971). Interpersonal relationships have also become more equalitarian within a context of affection which has led to more equitable standards of permissiveness. Thus, within the milieu of experiencing love, caring, and equality in interpersonal relationships, the synthesis of love and affection has enabled sexuality to begin to shed its heritage of guilt and shame.

Sexual Behavior of Never-Married Adults

Between 1967 and 1974, the proportion of never-married college students who were involved in intercourse increased in conjunction with permissive attitudinal changes during that same period. Table 1 summarizes research data from ten studies conducted between 1967 and 1974, and is organized by the year of data collection and not the year of publication. There is evidence of increasing coital rates for both males and females, although the increasing rates for females are much more dramatic. While the proportion of males reporting coital involvement increased from 60 percent (Lewis and Burr, 1975) to 75 percent (Needle, 1975) or 82 percent (senior sample from Jessor and Jessor, 1975), the proportion of women indicating such behavior, more than doubled from 29 percent (Lewis and Burr, 1975) to 65 percent (Needle, 1975) or 85 percent (senior sample from Jessor and Jessor, 1975). The greater increase in female coital participation contributes to the equalization and convergence of male and female sexual behavior and suggests that the attitudes and standards governing the sexual behavior of never-married college students have also changed.

Table 1.--Comparison of College Student Coital Rates.

Investigator and Year of Publication	Year of Data Collection	Sample Location	Sample Size	Age of Respondents	Coital Rates F M
Lewis and Burr (1975)	1967-1968	Minnesota Oregon California Texas Georgia	2,453	College age	29% 60%
Fujita, Wagner and Pion (1971)	1968	Washington	446	College age	30% 45%
Bauman and Wilson (1974)	1968	North Carolina	186	College age	46% 56%
Robinson, King and Balswick (1972)	1970	Georgia	395	College age	37% 65%
Zuckerman (1973)	1970 & 1972 (Combination of two samples)	Delaware	194	18-21 (Sophomores and Juniors)	40% 53%
Vincent and Stelling (1973)	1971	South Carolina	267	College age	49% 66%
Bauman and Wilson (1974)	1972	North Carolina	175	College age	73% 73%
King and Sobel (1975)	1972	Northern California	668	College age	72% 83%

Table 1.--Continued.

Investigator and Year of Publication	Year of Data Collection	Sample Location	Sample Size	Age of Respondents	Coital Rates	
					F	M
Jessor and Jessor (1975)	1970	Colorado	Longitu- dinal Sample 1970=276 1973=226	18	51%	46%
	1971			19	70%	65%
	1972			20	80%	74%
	1973			21	85%	82%
Needle (1975)	1974	Maryland	1,642	College age	65%	75%

The variations in percentages from data gathered during similar years do not appear to be as extensive as the variations for the seven-year span (1967-1974), and are most likely due to some of the following differences in research designs and methodological techniques:

- The sample sizes vary greatly from 175 to 2,453 (Bauman and Wilson, 1974; Lewis and Burr, 1975).
- Zuckerman (1973) combined two samples taken from two different years, but with the dramatic increase in coital rates per year, the effect of each year's rate upon his conclusions is not known.
- Zuckerman (1973) also sampled only sophomores and juniors, while all the other studies included the freshman level through senior level within the samples.
- King and Sobel (1972) were not successful in their attempt to obtain a representative sample of freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors; the mean age for women was 20.7 and the mean age for men was 21.8, thereby resulting in a distribution skewed toward upper division students. Since sexual behavior increases over college years (Zuckerman, 1973; Jessor and Jessor, 1975), King and Sobel's findings could be inflated.
- Jessor and Jessor's (1975) investigation was a longitudinal study. Thus, it is difficult to compare their findings with other cross-sectional data since their increasing coital rates result from both an increase in class level (Freshmen to Senior) and change in data year.
- Vincent and Stelling (1971), Robinson, King, and Balswick (1972), and Bauman and Wilson (1974) all studied college populations in the south. However, according to Vincent and Stelling, the south has the nation's strongest reputation for the double standard. Lewis and Burr (1975), who tried to sample universities from four geographical regions, also found regional variations.
- Lewis and Burr (1975) used a combined sample representing four geographical areas, while six of the studies were conducted on the east coast, two on the west coast, and one in the west. According to Chilman (1978), a large proportion of the investigations have been conducted on the east coast, which may not be representative of the rest of the United States.
- Some researchers (Fujita, Wagner, and Pion, 1971; Bauman and Wilson, 1974; Jessor and Jessor, 1975) used random samples while others (Lewis and Burr, 1975; Robinson, King, and

Balswick, 1972; Zuckerman, 1973; Vincent and Stelling, 1973; King and Sobel, 1975) used purposive or convenience samples of entire classes of students, which can produce biased results.

The acknowledgment of these methodological variations yield only qualified conclusions about changes in sexual behavior.

Other research on sexual behavior indicates that sexual experience is cumulative and possesses a fixed pattern (Curran, 1973). For example, few males and females have experienced coitus without first experiencing the stages of light and heavy petting. Rates for premarital intercourse, however, have risen more sharply than those for petting, since heavy petting has become less of a substitute for intercourse than it once was, thereby indicating that fewer individuals stop with heavy petting (Chilman, 1978). Curran's data also suggest that the sequence of sexual experience differs for males and females, in that females tend to experience oral sex before intercourse, while males experience intercourse before oral sex. In addition, Curran found that the degree of a subject's sexual experience was related to interpersonal attraction, physical attractiveness, and dating experience.

In summary, research has shown that sexual activity has increased among unmarried college students, and this increase is marked by a sharp rise in coital rates for women. Although the long-term effects of these changes are presently unknown, Ard's (1974) 20-year follow-up study of 161 married couples who were sexually active premaritally, indicated that increasing degrees of premarital intimacy did not have a detrimental effect on later marriage.

One of the major reasons for the documentation of college student sexual activity is that many of the studies on sexual behavior

are conducted on college campuses, where students, as legal adults, have been free to make decisions to participate in such research studies. Research, however, can be inhibited by limited funding and by restrictions imposed by administrators, legislators, and public opinion. Nevertheless, further research is still needed, not only on the sexual behavior of young adults, but also on other segments of the population such as married couples, formerly married persons, and mature individuals, for whom virtually no information exists on sexual attitudes and behaviors.

Parents as Sexual Socializers

Many factors significantly affect a child's emerging sexual attitudes and conduct, such as the way in which parents love, fondle, and hold the infant and the soothing or harsh sound of their voices. Parents, whether they realize it or not, begin children's sexual training in the earliest days of their lives. Even if parents avoid discussing sex altogether, children can detect their attitudes through silent communication (McCary, 1978). Therefore, some of the most crucial aspects of sex education are taught unconsciously (SIECUS, 1970). In addition, it appears that children have acquired much of their sex education by the time they are of school age. Most of their sexual attitudes, or at least the foundation for them, are to a large degree formed by the time they are three or four (Auerbach et al., 1976). Gadpaille (1971) suggests that even the way boy's father lives, his self esteem, and the manner in which he treats his wife and children all constitute a boy's earliest sex education from his father.

According to Gagnon (1965) much of the early learning from parents tends to be negative. He suggests that parents respond to children's sexual behavior in one of two ways: to tell the child to cease the behavior because it is wrong or bad, or to avoid saying anything and attempt to distract the child by redirection. The child then learns that there is something vaguely wrong with sexuality. Furthermore, as a result of parental reluctance to discuss sexual activities, sexual body parts, or excretory functions, the child is left with a minimal elementary vocabulary that will later be replaced by terms he/she learns from peers. Not only do parents rarely modify their early sexual messages, but the child's lack of vocabulary to describe what he/she sees and feels, as well as difficulties with sexual communications to parents, also permit fantasies to flourish for long periods of time without correction.

The process of sexual socialization has been referred to by Spanier (1976) as "sexualization." Sexualization can be conceptualized as a developmental process having five major components which entail: "development of a gender identity; development of gender roles; development of sex-object preference; acquisition of sexual skills, knowledge, and values; and development of sexual attitudes or a disposition to behave" (p. 42). Spanier's research on formal and informal sex education as determinants of premarital sexual behavior focused on a comparison of the effects of classroom sexual socialization with family, peer group, and extrafamilial influences. In general, the findings indicated that informal sex education has significantly more impact on premarital sexual behavior, with pressures and experiences in given

dating or peer-group situations taking precedence over past sexualization influences.

Lewis' (1973) investigation found that parents do not seem to contribute the major amount of input into the sexual socialization of their children, and when parents were the main source of sex education, their children tended to follow more traditional norms in their pre-marital sexual relationships. Furthermore, the greater the number of sexual topics discussed by parents, the less likely were the children in their adolescent and young adult years to engage in coitus. Thus, rather than having stimulated coital activity, parents who were the main source of sex education for their children appeared to have been effective deterrents, particularly in the sexual socialization of female children.

Research studies have found that parent-youth relations do make a difference in adolescent sexual behavior. Adolescents were more likely to have intercourse if their mothers held nontraditional attitudes, especially if their mothers did not combine affection with their guidance measures. Adolescents were also more likely to have intercourse if they perceived themselves to be in poor communication with their parents and unhappy at home (Zelnik and Kantner, 1972; Sorenson, 1973; Jessor and Jessor, 1975; Chilman, 1974). These findings do not necessarily mean that good parent-child communication or lack of conflict will prevent adolescent sexual activity, because in some cases adolescent sexual activity can be the precipitator of diminished parental attachment.

Although parents are known to transmit sexual attitudes and values, they have not been noted as a primary source of sex information.

Through time the major source of sex information has been the peer group, as illustrated by the following studies (Gagnon and Simon, 1973; Thornburg, 1972; Gebhard, 1977):

Table 2.--Peers as a Source of Sex Information as Illustrated in Selected Studies from 1915 to 1977.

Investigator	Publication Year*	Sample: Age & Sex	Peers as Source of Sex Information
Exner	1915	College: Males	85%
Hughes	1926	School age: Males	78%
Ramsey	1943	High school: Males	90%**
Kinsey	1948	Wide range: Females	74%
Thornburg	1972	College: Males & females	38%
Gebhard	1977	College: Males	50%

* Year of data collection was not reported.

**Includes self discovery

Although peer impact on sexual information is greater than any other influence, its overall impact appears to have been declining over time. According to Thornburg (1972) literature is the second main source of sex information, while mothers are third. Gebhard (1977) found that children and adolescents are learning facts about sex at considerably younger ages than their parents and grandparents did, as a result of three factors: increased maternal effort to impart information,

increased sex education in the schools, and greater and more explicit treatment of sex in the media.

It is important to examine not only the source of sexual information, but also the content of sexual messages. With the greater tendency for increasingly younger children to acquire sexual information and to engage in sexual behaviors, are adolescents able to critically discriminate between fact and misinformation? Another important problem is that the youth who possess some sex information may be unaware of the psychological and social aspects of sex which determine the meaning of any sex act. It is difficult to explain to children the intricate relationship of sexuality to other parts of life and that a sexual act gains its significance from the psychosocial matrix in which it occurs (Gebhard, 1977). Consequently, much of the dissemination of sexual messages is often done inadvertently by socialization agents who may not be aware of the nonsubstantive attitudinal dimensions that are being presented. Therefore, the sources, as well as the content, of sexual information seem to be very important in preparing young individuals for their integration into the social life of the community (Spanier, 1977; Thornburg, 1972).

Since there were few research investigations comparing attitudes and opinions of parents and students toward the many aspects of human sexuality, McNab (1976) conducted an investigation to determine if the knowledge of parents' sexual attitudes was related to their sons' and daughters' sexual attitudes. His findings indicated that variables pertaining to college students' value systems were significant predictors of their sexual attitudes. In addition, parents' sexual attitudes were shown to influence the attitudes of their sons



and daughters. Thus, it appears that a loving, accepting family system is an important factor in the creation of an environment conducive to the development of children's sex attitudes which will allow them to make future decisions regarding their own sexuality (McNab, 1976).

According to Maccoby and Jacklin (1974), parental socialization of sexuality does not differ for males and females. While parental reactions to children's displays of sexual behavior or curiosity might be expected to be different for boys and girls, considering the different standards of adult male and female sexual conduct, no tendencies have been found for girls to be more reinforced for modesty or punished more for sexual exploration. However, the validity of these reports is questionable since a child's sexual behavior primarily occurs either when the child is alone, when he/she is with other children, or when the child happens to be interrupted by an adult. In addition, information on similarity of socialization experiences is often based on parental reports in which parents claim they give an equal amount of sexual information to males and females and claim they react similarly to the masturbation, nudity, and sex play of their children, whether male or female.

In contrast, Gagnon and Simon (1975) report that the psychosocial development of sexuality in adolescence is quite different for males and females. The onset of puberty causes different reactions in males and females, and while males focus on the biological aspects of sexuality, females relate to puberty in more social terms, as a factor of maturity and proximity to marriage. These differences are indicative of the distinction in the developmental process for males and

females: the movement from sexuality to sociosexuality which is characteristic of males is reversed for females.

Social sanctions against masturbation cause different guilt and anxiety feelings for participating adolescent males and females. In the males, who have higher reported rates of masturbation (Kinsey, 1948, 1953), this feeling is produced by difficulties encountered in presenting an emerging sexual self to family members where sexuality has remained ill defined. In contrast, females are less active in physiological sexual activity, but receive far more training than men in self consciously conceiving themselves as being sexual on an objective level by defining attractiveness in sexual terms. In addition, females are more highly socialized than males to value intense affect-laden relationships and the rhetoric of romantic love (Gagnon and Simon, 1975).

The persons who socialize children attempt to lead them to develop sex-appropriate identities and roles according to whatever standards of appropriateness are current in society. Children observe the social life around them and establish their own sexual identities by fitting their feelings and behaviors to the varieties of male and female behaviors that are part of their observed world and realm of interaction (Elkin and Handel, 1978). Since many of the overt sex-typed responses for females, such as attractiveness, poise, or passivity, necessitate reactions from other people, she is dependent on a continual interaction and feedback from the social environment. This adult and peer acceptance probably contributes to the greater degree of conformity and concern with socially desirable behaviors which is often attributed to females (Kagan, 1964).

The male, on the other hand, develops many important sex-typed behaviors while alone. The perfection of gross motor or mechanical skills involves solitary practice which strengthens his conviction about the acquisition of masculine attributes. Moreover, being independent of the attitudes and opinions of others is a sex-typed trait, and, therefore, a male learns to suppress anxiety over social rejection because this type of anxiety is not considered masculine in this culture (Kagan, 1964).

D'andrade (1974) contends that gender differences in sexual behavior are not just the result of differences in personal characteristics or socialization experiences, but are culturally transmitted patterns of behavior determined in part by the functioning of society. His analysis of sexual behavior from a cultural context indicates that males tend to be more sexually active, while females appear to be more sexually restricted. Furthermore, females tend to be more inhibited by sexual restrictions than are males. The resulting interaction of these two factors yields greater sex differences in the amount and kind of sexual activity in those societies that are more sexually restrictive, with males being much more active than females and females being much less responsive than males. Thus, the different sexual socialization of males and females can be attributed to an integration of psychosocial development within a social-cultural context, with parents acting as both transmission and mediation agents.

Love and Intimacy

The ability to love is a learned phenomenon resulting from many experiences, most of which take place early in life. The love

received by a child in his/her early years is a powerful experience in shaping the kind of adult he/she will become. Out of a child's experiences with parental love evolve later feelings of optimism or pessimism, reactions to the world as being friendly or threatening, or notions about individual adequacy. If children grow up having enjoyed their parents, they are left with positive and favorable feelings toward them, and if a child's oldest and longest attachment has been positive, he/she is open and ready to accept other attachments. People who have enjoyed their family attachments while growing up manifest their ability to love by being accepting and friendly to others. Thus, anyone with the ability to love has learned about love by experiencing it (Fromme, 1965; Bohannon, 1970).

An individual's capacity to give and receive love is a developmental process beginning at birth. Even sexual love is not a new experience in life since the use of a child's body for pleasure is at the center of the infant's experiences--the first step in learning to love (Fromme, 1965). Different types of love experiences are regularly distributed over the life cycle from infancy through adulthood. Every stage of growth integrates a form of love experience, and through participation in each love relationship, one progresses to the next stage of psychological development in the life cycle. The core of this process is the exchange of deeply personal values between the participants in the love relationship. Each person involved in love brings qualities or characteristics to the relationship which are essential to the personal growth of his/her partner (Orlinsky, 1972).

Harlow's (1971) study of love suggests that the developmental aspect of love is based on five affectional systems of love or

bonding: (1) the bond between mother and child, (2) the bond between child and mother, (3) the bond between peers, (4) the bond between members of the opposite sex, and (5) the bond between father and child. These systems of love are not physically or temporally separate; they overlap so that affectional motivations are continuous in different forms and facets of love. According to Grunebaum (1976) couple relationships are based on the interaction of the bond between the parent and child, the bond between peers, and the bond between members of the opposite sex. While sex is an important element in couple relationships, it may be the ability to maintain friendships and the residues of parent-child relationships that determine the durability of couple relationships. It is parental love that provides the security necessary for the unfolding of all loves and becomes the model imitated by all of the love relationships (Arieti and Arieti, 1977).

The developmental process of learning about love can vary for males and females. The female is generally taught to control her expressions in romantic relationships because she is usually believed to have more invested, with a greater potential for profit or loss. Not only is the female presented with an anticipation of a highly romanticized conceptualization of love and marriage, but she is also made aware of the status and role consequences of marriage which make the selection of a love object a crucial experience (Kanin et al., 1970).

Love can occur in many forms with a variety of dimensions. Interpersonal attraction, which can be considered an individual's tendency or predisposition to evaluate a person in a positive or negative way, includes a variety of human feelings such as friendly liking, companionate love, romantic or passionate love, parental love, love of

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humankind, and love of country. Initially, social scientists focused on interpersonal attraction's mildest form of liking, but more recently investigations are exploring more intense variations such as companionate love and romantic or passionate love. Liking generally seems to be a straightforward phenomenon encompassing the affection felt for casual acquaintances. People like those persons who reward them and dislike those persons who thwart desires. In comparison, companionate love is the affection one feels for those with whom their lives are deeply intertwined. Based on both attraction and need fulfillment, companionate love also includes the more moderate emotional levels of mutual respect, affection and compassion, but not the deeper emotional levels of passionate love (Berscheid and Walster, 1978).

Romantic or passionate love as defined by Walster and Walster is:

A state of intense absorption in another. Sometimes "lovers" are those who long for their partners for complete fulfillment. Sometimes "lovers" are those who are ecstatic at finally having attained their partner's love, and momentarily, complete fulfillment. A state of intense physiological arousal (p. 9).

Romantic love does not strictly coincide with a reinforcement paradigm. According to Maslow (1954), romantic love evolves from one's need for love, security, and belongingness. When an individual gratifies another's deficiency needs, love is returned. Thus, love grows out of one's unfulfilled needs, deficiencies and self dissatisfactions.

Romantic or passionate love can also be explained by Schachter's (1964) two component theory of emotion, in which both the mind and body make a critical contribution to a person's emotional experience, as well as romantic feelings. According to Schachter, semiconscious assumptions about what one should be feeling in a given situation have



a profound impact on what is felt in that situation. Generally, people pick up their ideas about love from their culture, families, and their own experiences. In addition, persons experience emotions when they are physiologically aroused. Many types of experiences, both pleasurable and nonpleasurable, are likely to cause such arousal and although romantic love is often associated with intense pleasure, it can also be associated with anxiety, fear, frustration, anger, or even total confusion. Hence, romantic love may occur when there is a state of physiological arousal and a social script which defines that experience as romantic love.

Seemingly opposite in character is the tender, protective, and nurturant attachment of parental love. Although it has often been viewed as a mother's love for her nursing or dependent infant, a father can also feel this kind of love for his young children. The reciprocal of parental nurturance as a form of love is a child's dependence which changes greatly from infancy to a point at which it is diffused beyond the immediate attachment to his/her parents. This dependency changes from the physical dependency of an infant on his/her parents to an interpersonal dependency, an erotic dependency of the child on his/her opposite-sex parent, and a cultural dependency of a juvenile upon his/her same-sex parent. Love attachments between children also exist. While in a child's earlier years these relationships tend to reflect the modes of love experienced in parent-child relationships, later in childhood these love relationships reflect the interdependence on intimate friendships (Orlinsky, 1972).

According to Walster, Berscheid, and Walster (1976), even in the most intimate relationship of parent and child, husband and wife,

best friends, or lovers, considerations of exchange and equity strongly influence the viability and pleasantness of the relationship. Blau (1964) also contends that exchange processes occur in love relationships as well as in social associations. Male-female reward-seeking from each other begins prior to marriage at the very onset of a love relationship. The prospect of certain rewards from the other is what forms the basis of a relationship in the first place, but in order to receive those rewards, each partner must in turn provide the kinds of rewards expected by the other. If one lover is considerably more involved than the other, his/her greater commitment invites exploitation and provokes feelings of entrapment, both of which obliterate love. Only when two lovers' affection for and commitment to one another expand at roughly the same pace, do they mutually tend to reinforce their love. Thus, love on the part of one individual for another is the response or responses evoked in one individual through the equitable exchange of experiencing rewards, pleasures, or need gratifications as products of one's interactions with the other person (Centers, 1974). The more equitable the relationship, the more viable it will be (Blau, 1964).

Closely associated with the concept of love is intimacy or intimate love, which many individuals are seeking as an affirmation of their selfhood and a confirmation of their personal existence in life. Walster, Walster and Berscheid (1978) define intimacy as a relationship between loving people whose lives are deeply entwined (p. 154). Such a relationship generally includes some of the following characteristics:

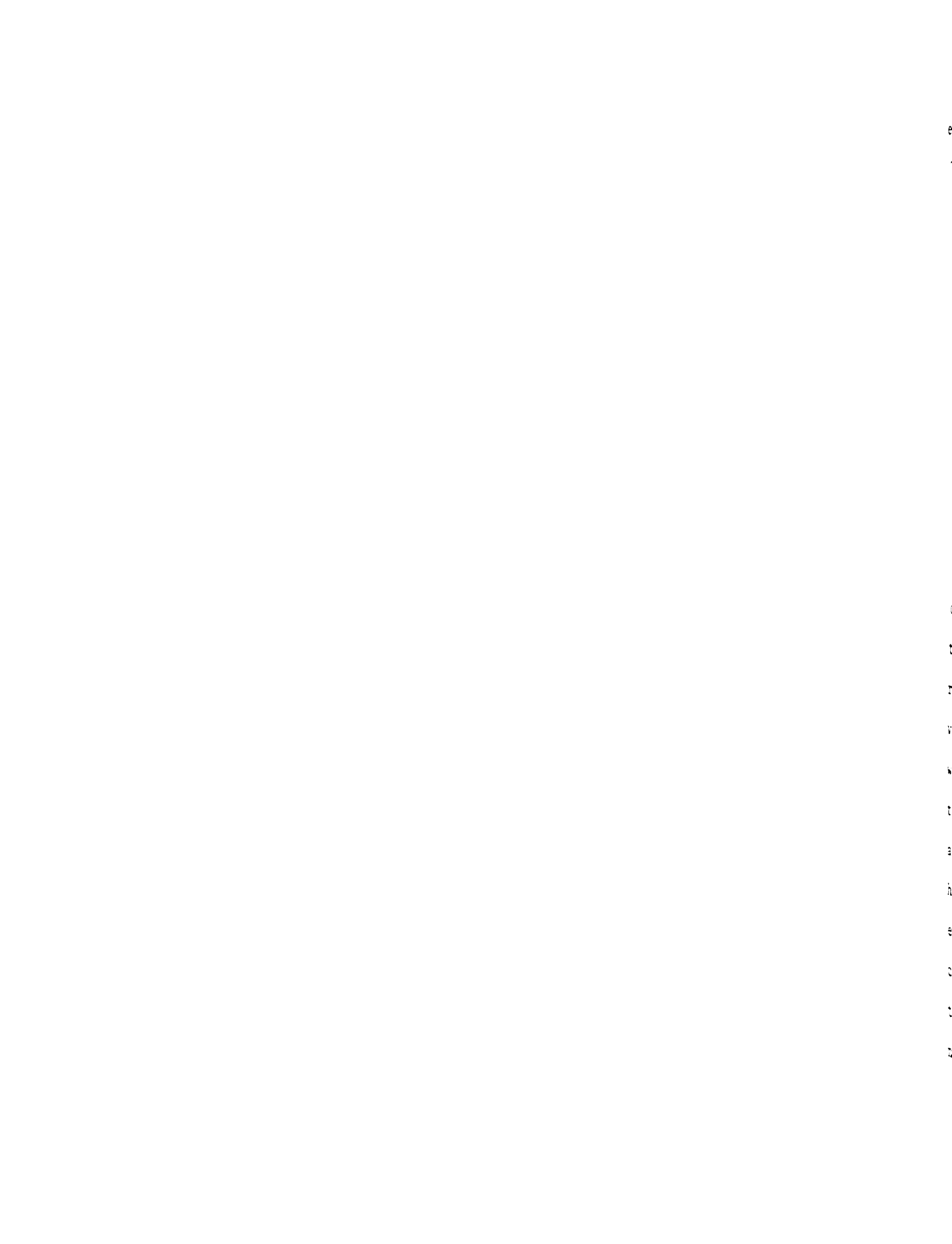
- Intensity of Liking or Loving: An intimate relationship will continue if the participants basically like or love one another.
- Depth and Breadth of Information Exchange: Participants in an intimate relationship generally share profound information about one another's personal histories, values, strengths, weaknesses, idiosyncrasies, hopes, and fears.
- Length of Relationship: Casual relationships are usually short-term while intimate relationships generally endure over a long period of time, with husband-wife and parent-child relationships being the most enduring of all.
- Tolerance of Perceived Inequity: Participants in intimate relationships are usually not concerned with the immediacy of achieving equity.
- Value of Resources Exchanged: The value and potency of rewards and punishments exchanged in an intimate relationship increase as a relationship grows in intimacy.
- Variety of Resources Exchanged: The variety of rewards and punishments that participants in an intimate relationship can give one another increases as the relationship grows in intensity.
- Benefits of Maintaining the Relationship: Participants in an intimate relationship have a unique and potentially potent punishment, the termination of the relationship (Walster, Walster, and Berscheid, 1978, pp. 148-9).

Oden (1974) describes intimacy as an "intensely personal relationship of sustained closeness in which the intimus sphere of each partner is affectionately known and held by the other through congruent

empathetic understanding, mutual accountability, and contextual negotiability" (p. 25). The notions of congruency, mutuality, and negotiability indicate the exchange orientation of his conceptualization of intimacy. Derlega and Chaikin (1975) further expand the perspective of viewing intimacy as an exchange, by suggesting that the development of an intimate relationship is based on self-disclosure, reciprocity, and the building of trust through reciprocal self-disclosure.

While intimate relationships can exist within families and peer groups, a deep-level intimacy which combines love and sex is predominantly found in relationships with significant others. Although within the dyad, love is not necessary for sex, sex appears to be needed for a deep expression of love (Fromme, 1965). Therefore, the individual can constantly renew his/her sense of personal value through loving, being loved, and being involved physically, which is not only a means whereby the sexual drive can be expressed, but also a vital source of self-esteem (Hettlinger, 1974). Love makes the other person feel important, and in mutual love one seeks to find in another person those qualities that he or she feels are necessary for the full development of his or her personality (Steen and Price, 1977).

For those individuals who are self-actualized, orgasm is both more and less important than for other people. While loving at a higher level of commitment improves sex, love that partners mutually express for each other makes sex frustration less acute when gratification is blocked. In other words, couples who have reached a high level of commitment do not need sexual expression so urgently, but can enjoy it more fully when it does occur (Maslow, 1970). At the highest level of sexual expression, physical sensations and love are freely



expressed and fused with empathy and sensibility toward the partner. This is considered as true sexual intimacy (Fujimoto, 1972).

Another dimension of love is its social regulation, that is how it is controlled within the various social systems of a given society. To some extent, the kin network, which is a pervasive system in all societies, controls the levels and expression of a love relationship. When the kinship ties are strong, the love process is under greater control with its proper functioning dependent upon the direction of the love relationship into approved channels. Love relationships must either be kept to a small number or they must be directed, so there is no disruption of approved kinship linkages (Goode, 1959).

Free choice of a love object, the norm in our society, depends on the openness of the social system, potential social mobility, and the existence of a peer group which exerts some control over the love relationship. Parents are another source of control and often use various persuasive techniques to encourage their children to associate with a certain kind of person. Primarily, parents control love relationships by influencing children's informal social contacts, moving to appropriate neighborhoods, and clarifying that certain individuals have ineligibility traits such as race, religion, manners, clothing, etc. The whole purpose of controlling love is so that the individual can make a proper choice of a marriage partner, proper in the sense that this choice will be acceptable to the generalized and specific cultural norms of the society (Goode, 1959).

Sexual Satisfaction

Satisfaction, an elusive concept, can be examined from an exchange perspective in terms of a person's emotional response to the amount of a particular reward he/she has received. While satisfaction with a reward is not directly related to the value of the reward, satisfaction seems to vary directly with the amount of the reward received and inversely with the amount still desired. What is still desired may be determined by an individual's needs, but for some kinds of rewards, what is still desired may be what he/she expects to get, but has not yet received (Homans, 1974).

Campbell, Converse and Rogers (1976), who have used level of satisfaction as a quality of life indicator, have described the concept as the perceived discrepancy between level of aspiration and level of achievement, ranging from the perception of fulfillment to that of deprivation. Satisfaction implies a judgemental or cognitive evaluation of a psychological experience. However, the quality of this experience may not correspond very closely to external conditions of life, but is based on an individual's perceived satisfaction of needs. Since individual needs differ, what will satisfy one person might be totally unsatisfactory to another. An individual may even find the same circumstance satisfactory at one point in his life, but unacceptable at another life stage. A sense of satisfaction is, therefore, a highly personal experience heavily influenced by the individual's past experiences, current expectations, and future aspirations.

Satisfaction with a particular attribute of a domain of life is considered to be dependent on how an individual perceives the attribute and the standard against which he/she judges that attribute.

Although the concept of comparison standards is difficult to define, it is most likely dependent on the simultaneous implementation of some or all of the following criteria: aspiration levels, expectation levels, equity levels, reference group levels, personal needs, and personal values. The multiplicity of elements that comprise an individual's standard of comparison makes this concept a complex one (Campbell, Converse and Rogers, 1976).

The findings of Campbell et al. have indicated that close and satisfying family relations have been found to contribute significantly to overall life satisfaction. The major contributors to this satisfaction with family life are the individual's relationships with his/her children and spouse. In their quality of life study, Andrews and Withey (1976) found that one's family life, as well as sex life, were important factors in an individual's personal well-being.

There is little research on sexual satisfaction; however, one study on happiness conducted on Psychology Today readers did include a few questions on satisfaction with one's sex life. The 52,000 respondents ranged in age from 15 to 95 and, in general, were younger, more affluent, better educated, and more liberal than the average middle American. Consequently, generalizations to all Americans cannot be made. Nevertheless, the respondents reported that sexual satisfaction comes from the quality, not quantity, of sexual experiences, with people who feel they are missing something reporting less happiness than people who are content with their sexual experiences. Many individuals assumed that most people of their age and sex have had more partners and are more satisfied sexually than they are. To illustrate, 22 percent of the single, male respondents and 21 percent of the single,

female respondents have never had intercourse, but only 1 percent and 2 percent, respectively, think their peers are virgins. Over half of the men (55 percent) and 34 percent of the women are dissatisfied with their sex lives, but only 29 percent and 19 percent, respectively, think their peers are unhappy. It also appears that for these individuals, the combination of sex and love is very important. If the quality of sexual behavior and love relations is good, there is a high degree of happiness, although women seemed to be having difficulties with both (Shaver and Freedman, 1976).

The ingredients of a satisfying sexual relationship, according to McCary (1978), consist of experiencing an uninhibited expression of love and excitement, having these manifestations eagerly accepted, and receiving in turn an equally unrestrained expression of love, intimacy, and concern. People who confine their intimate activities to a mere search for an orgasmic release soon discover that sex can become quite boring, since the degree of pleasure and fulfillment derived from sex can be either great or small, based in direct proportion to what has been mutually exchanged.

Summary

In general, a search of the literature has revealed some of the changing trends in sexual behavior concerning the sexual revolution, double sexual standard, and coital involvement of never-married adults. Although the parents' role in sexual socialization of children has been overtly minimal, there has been no investigation of parental impact on sexual satisfaction through embedded attitudinal interactions and exchanges that enhance the development of intimacy and love. The

relationship of intimacy, love, and sex is widely noted in the literature, but no studies were found that explored the parameters of sexual satisfaction. In order to examine some of these relationships and fill a research void, this study will attempt to investigate parental influence on love, sexual behavior, and sexual satisfaction.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Data for this investigation were collected as part of a study designed to determine the factors which influence the sexual behavior and contraceptive use of never-married college students. The study was funded by the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development and was conducted through the Department of Human Development in the College of Human Medicine at Michigan State University.* A survey research design was employed utilizing personal interviews of undergraduate students at Michigan State University.

Data Collection

The data were collected through the use of a two-part instrument, an interview schedule and a questionnaire which contained both open-ended and structured-response questions. This instrument focused on the sexual behavior and contraceptive use of the respondents and on their reference groups; social structural variables such as family, social class, and community groups; internalized values, attitudes, and self perceptions; and factors of the near-social environment (Kallen,

*The study was funded by the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development through Contract # N01-HD52803 and Grant #1-HD10689 and conducted by David J. Kallen in the Department of Human Development in the College of Human Medicine at Michigan State University.



1974). Both parts of the instrument were given to all respondents; the time necessary for completion ranged from 1.5 to 5.5 hours, depending on the respondent's sexual and contraceptive history (Stephenson, Kallen, Darling, Tanas and Dossey, 1977).

The data collection instrument was developed by the team of researchers involved in the project and included both original questions and items devised by other researchers such as the Internal-External Locus of Control Scale (Rotter, 1973), the Social Desirability Scale (Crowne and Marlowe, 1964), the University Alienation Scale (Burbach, 1972), and others. Although a pilot study of the instrument was not conducted, a preliminary study using a convenience sample of students in various classes was used to provide a basis for examining relationships among sexual behavior, contraceptive use, and risk taking (Kallen, 1974).

The organization of content within the interview and the validity of self reported data on sensitive issues have been topics of concern to researchers. The study of sensitive family topics, as reported by Gelles (1976), notes the difficulty of securing information about family members' behavior due to its private and intimate nature. He suggests that the most difficult part of any interview on a sensitive topic is the point where the researcher has to face asking the respondent the key question or questions under consideration. One of the recommendations made was the use of a "funneling technique," in which the flow of the interview is designed to deal with peripheral items before the focus is turned toward the central questions.

Another basic issue among researchers of sensitive topics is the concern for validity between an interview and a questionnaire.

DeLamater and MacDorquodale (1975) compared the influence of an interview versus a self-administered questionnaire, as well as any possible effects resulting from the location of sexual experience questions within the instrument. The findings indicated that none of these variations significantly affected reports of sexual behavior. In general, the major conclusion of DeLamater and MacDorquodale was that the difficulty of getting valid data from respondents about sensitive topics may have been consistently over-estimated, and reports of sexual and other threatening behaviors may have been relatively uninfluenced by methodological variations. However, since they researched only a small number of issues on a college student population, care must be taken regarding over-generalization and possible future application of laissez-faire methodological techniques.

When applying these concerns to the current investigation, not only were both an interview and questionnaire used, but the content of the instrument was also conceptually organized according to a flow of questions that would be logical and meaningful in the context of the respondent's experience. The interview schedule began with items on community location, high school friendships, family relationships and dating behaviors. Thus, a rapport could be established before the more sensitive topics of sexual and contraceptive histories were introduced. As a safeguard for sensitive issues and privacy, a respondent was free to not respond to a particular question or to discontinue the interview at any time. Although two respondents used the option of ending the interview, their point of termination was far beyond the first introduction of sensitive items and was probably based upon the length of time that was necessary to complete the interview. In addition, the

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respondents were aware that measures to protect their confidentiality were being employed.

The personal interview was conducted by professional female interviewers who had been trained in the use of the data collection instrument. After the random sample was drawn, the respondents were sent a letter informing them of their inclusion in the study and requesting their cooperation. Each student was then contacted by phone and arrangements were made for the interview which could have been scheduled in a variety of places such as his/her dormitory room, student union, library, or any other location which would facilitate convenience to the student and privacy between the interviewer and the respondent. Students who did not originally respond favorably to being included in the study were later called by another interviewer who in many cases was able to complete the interview. Immediately after all the interviews were completed, each respondent was sent a letter from the principal investigator thanking them for participating in the interview. Approximately six months later, each respondent was also sent a preliminary statement of the results of the study.

A supervisor of interviewers was employed to organize and direct the collection of data, as well as to make random checks on the accuracy of the information. In addition, the first completed interview of each interviewer was checked by the project director before the interviewers were permitted to make any additional contacts with students. The same interviewers and supervisor were also utilized in coding the data because of their familiarity with the project and the data collection instrument.

Sample

The subjects in the study consisted of a random sample of 875 never-married Michigan State University undergraduates who were enrolled during fall term, 1976 (Stephenson, Kallen, Darling, Tanas, and Dossey, 1977; Kallen and Stephenson, 1978). The sample, which was drawn from current fall registration data, included only those students who indicated they were single and who were under the age of 26. Respondents whose sexual relationships were exclusively homosexual were not included in the sample. For technical reasons concerning sampling variation and problems of statistical analyses, the responses of black students and of foreign students were also not included in the final sample size of 823 respondents. Fifty-one percent (N = 421) of the respondents were males and 49 percent (N = 402) were females, with 82 percent of the males and 93 percent of the females ranging between the ages of 17 and 21. Both male and female respondents were relatively evenly divided by year in school.

Prior to selection of the sample, appropriate statements of approval and permission were secured from various administrative offices and screening committees within the university. Since the desired sample consisted of 800 respondents with approximately equal numbers of freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors, a stratified sampling scheme with quotas was utilized to obtain a sample that was larger than the desired size (Kish, 1965). The sample was composed of two parts including the primary sample and a supplement, which was only to be used if the primary sample did not produce the desired proportion of males and females per year in school. It was not necessary to use the supplemental sample, Eighty percent of the students who

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were selected in the sample were actually interviewed. The other 20 percent either could not be located or refused the interview due to personal reasons or time restrictions. Although students had the option of terminating the interview, only two respondents did not complete the interview once it began (Stephenson, Kallen, Darling, Tanas and Dossey, 1977; Kallen and Stephenson, 1978).

Research Subsample

The investigation of parental influence on love, sexual behavior, and sexual satisfaction, focused on a subsample of the larger study. The criteria for selection of the subsample included (1) students currently not living at home, and (2) students reporting living with original or adoptive parents while growing up. Students who answered questions relating to parent relationships, expression of feelings, and modeling, by choosing the response, "does not apply (no mother)" or "does not apply (no father)" were also excluded from the subsample. These criteria resulted in the elimination of 21 males and 21 females who lived at home, as well as 37 males and 48 females who did not live with both parents while growing up or could not answer parent related questions and chose a "does not apply (no father/mother)" response. The resulting subsample consisted of 696 respondents, 363 males (52.5 percent) and 333 females (47.8 percent). Within this chapter are the descriptive and summary data for the subsample on the variables presented in Appendix B, while Appendix C contains the descriptive and summary data for the total research sample. A comparison of these two sets of data indicates a high degree of similarity between the subsample and the total sample.

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Selected characteristics of the research subsample concerning age and year in school are in Table 3. The mean age of males is 20.0 years and the mean age of females is 19.6 years with 82.9 percent of the males and 93.9 percent of the females ranging between the ages of 17 and 21. A one-way analysis of variance indicated that the difference in age between males and females is significant. Both male and female respondents were relatively evenly divided by year in school with no significant difference between males and females.

Measurement of Variables

As the model in Figure 2 illustrates, the indicators of parental socialization are independent variables with respect to parental relationship, love, sexual behavior, and sexual satisfaction. But, parental relationship, love, and sexual behavior are also independent variables with respect to the overall dependent variable, sexual satisfaction. The sex of the respondent is considered to be a contextual variable and has been utilized as a control to differentiate between males and females and their socialization influences, parent-child relationships, love conceptualizations, sexual behavior, and sexual satisfaction. Year in school has also been used as a contextual variable, because both love and sexual behavior are based on a developmental conceptualization. Since the data collection instrument was designed to meet a variety of research purposes, not all of the items will be analyzed in this study. Those parts of the data collection instrument that will be used to examine the research questions in this investigation include the following (Appendix B):

Table 3.--Selected Characteristics of Research Subsample: Age and Year in School.

Characteristics	Males		Females	
	N=363	%	N=333	%
<u>Age</u>				
17	12	3.3	13	3.9
18	69	19.0	77	23.1
19	77	21.2	79	23.7
20	76	20.9	73	21.9
21	67	18.5	71	21.3
22	27	7.4	10	3.0
23	19	5.2	6	1.8
24	10	2.8	3	.9
25	5	1.4	1	.3
26	1	.3		
Mean	(20.0)		(19.6)	
F Ratio	12.509			
Significance	.000			
<u>Year in School</u>				
1. Freshmen	80	22.0	75	22.5
2. Sophomores	93	25.6	92	27.6
3. Juniors	96	26.4	79	23.7
4. Seniors	94	25.9	87	26.1
Mean	(2.6)		(2.5)	
F Ratio	.108			
Significance	.743			

<u>Variables</u>	<u>Research Questions</u>	<u>Item Numbers</u>
Indicators of Parental Socialization		
Modeling	1, 2, 3	283, 284
Expression of Feelings	1, 2, 3	962, 963
Demonstration of Affection	1, 2, 3	945
Contact	1, 2, 3	256-258
Sexual Views	1, 2, 3	328, 329
Sexual Discussion	1, 2, 3	322
Sexual Messages	1, 2, 3	323.1-323.12
Parent Relationship	1, 2, 3	21, 22, 281, 282
Love	2, 4	314
Sexual Behavior	3, 4	216
Sexual Satisfaction	4	336

In addition, all of the above variables will be used in testing the model to determine the degree to which indicators of parental socialization, parental relationship, developmental levels of love, and sexual behavior contribute to the dependent variable, degree of sexual satisfaction.

Various items of the data collection instrument were combined for the development of specific variables. Either a one-way analysis of variance or chi square was employed to determine if the differences between males and females were significant. Each of these measures is described below.

Indicators of Parental Socialization

Modeling is the student's perception of regard or esteem for his/her parents and was determined by combining the student's response to two questions: (1) "How much do you want to become the kind of person your mother is?" and (2) "How much do you want to become the kind of person your father is?" Each of the items was rated on a five-point scale from very much like him or her to very unlike him or her. Answers to the two questions were summed to form a score for parental modeling with a possible range of two to ten. Summary data on parental modeling are presented in Table 4, which indicates a high degree of similarity for males and females.

Table 4.--Students' Perceptions of Parental Modeling.

Statistic	Males N = 363	Females N = 333
Range	2-10*	2-10*
Mean	6.9	6.9
Mode	8.0	8.0
Standard deviation	1.9	1.9
Missing Cases	0	0
F Ratio	.098	
Significance	.754	

*Low score indicates low modeling; high score indicates high modeling.

Expression of Feelings is the student's perception of parental ability to express feelings based on the summation of responses to two questions: (1) "In general, how easily do you think your mother expresses her feelings?" and (2) "How easily do you think your father expresses his feelings?" The responses have a five-point range from very easily to not at all easily with a total possible range from two to ten. Summary data on students' perceptions of parental expression of feelings are presented in Table 5, which indicates that males view their parents as more expressive of feelings than do females.

Table 5.--Students' Perceptions of Parental Expression of Feelings.

Statistic	Males N = 363	Females N = 333
Range	2-10*	2-10*
Mean	7.0	6.6
Mode	7.0	6.0
Standard deviation	1.7	1.8
Missing Cases	1	0
F Ratio	9.727	
Significance	.002	

*Low score indicates low expression of feelings; high score indicates high expression of feelings.

Demonstration of Affection is the student's perception of the frequency of parents' demonstration of affection for each other, based on a question worded to this effect, with a five-point scale ranging from very often to never. Frequencies for this variable are presented

in Table 6, which indicates that, in general, students perceive their parents as being somewhat to fairly demonstrative (males = 60.1 percent and females = 54.6 percent with no significant difference between males and females).

Table 6.--Students' Perceptions of Frequency of Parental Demonstration of Affection.

Response Categories	Males		Females	
	N=363	%	N=333	%
1. Never	7	1.9	17	5.1
2. Seldom	78	21.5	70	21.0
3. Sometimes	116	32.0	90	27.0
4. Fairly often	102	28.1	92	27.6
5. Very often	60	16.5	64	19.2
Missing Cases	0		0	
Mean	(3.4)		(3.3)	
Standard deviation	(1.2)		(1.2)	
Chi square	7.246			
df	4			
Significance	.124			

Contact is the amount of contact the student has with his/her parents based on three questions: (1) "How many times do you usually go home in a quarter?" (A seven-point scale ranging from never to six or more times was used.) (2) "How many times in the last month have you called home?" (An eight-point scale was used, ranging from never to more than ten times.) (3) "How many times in the last month have

you written home?" (An eight-point scale ranging from never to more than ten times was used.) These items were summed to form an index of parental contact with a possible range of three to twenty-three.

Summary data on students' reported parental contact are presented in Table 7, which indicates that females have significantly greater contact with their parents than do males although, in general, all students have a moderate amount of contact with their parents.

Table 7.--Students' Reported Contact with Parents.

Statistic	Males N = 363	Females N = 333
Range	4-19*	4-21*
Mean	9.6	10.7
Mode	9.0	10.0
Standard deviation	2.9	3.1
Missing cases	0	0
F Ratio	22.410	
Significance	.000	

*Low score indicates low parental contact; high score indicates high parental contact.

Sexual Views constitute the students' perception of the liberal-ity or conservatism of parental views on sex based on the responses to two questions: (1) "How would you characterize your mother's viewpoint on sex?" and (2) "How would you characterize your father's viewpoint on sex?" Each of the items was rated on a five-point scale from very conservative to very liberal. Answers to the two questions were

summed to form a score for parental sexual views with a possible range of two to ten. Summary data on students' perceptions of parental views on sex are presented in Table 8, which indicates that, in general, parents are perceived as being somewhat conservative. In comparison with males, female students reported that their parents were more conservative. This difference was found to be significant.

Table 8.--Students' Perceptions of Parental Views on Sex.

Statistic	Males N = 363	Females N = 333
Range	2-10*	2-10*
Mean	5.4	4.7
Mode	6.0	4.0
Standard deviation	1.9	2.0
Missing cases	0	0
F Ratio	23.056	
Significance	.000	

*Low score indicates conservatism; high score indicates liberality.

Sexual Discussion is the student's perception of the frequency of sexual communication received from his/her parents. A measure of the frequency of sexual information was based on the answer to the question: "When you were growing up, how often was sex the subject of general family discussion?" Responses could vary on a five-point scale from very often to never. Frequencies for this variable are presented in Table 9, which indicates that students perceive parents as seldom

Table 9.--Students' Perceptions of Frequency of Parental Sexual Discussion.

Response Categories	Males		Females	
	N=363	%	N=333	%
1. Never	61	16.8	102	30.6
2. Seldom	193	53.2	158	47.4
3. Sometimes	98	27.0	60	18.0
4. Fairly often	8	2.2	10	3.0
5. Very often	3	.8	3	.9
Missing cases	0		0	
Mean	(2.17)		(1.96)	
Standard deviation	(.8)		(.8)	
Chi square	21.912			
d.f.	4			
Significance	.002			

discussing sex with their children and that females perceived parental sexual messages less frequently than did males.

Sexual Messages is the student's perception of the kinds of things parents communicated about sex. These messages may have been communicated directly by talking to the student or indirectly, either through what was said about others' behavior or through the way parents acted towards the student or other people. For each of the items presented in Table 10, respondents were asked to indicate if that item was a major or minor communication or not a communication of their parents.

Table 10.--Students' Perceptions of Degree of Communication Regarding Specific Parental Sexual Messages (Major Communication, Minor Communication, Not a Communication).

Sexual Message	Males (N=363)				Females (N=333)							
	Major		Minor		Major		Minor		Not			
	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N		
323.1 Sex is dirty	6.6	(24)	22.6	(82)	70.8	(257)	8.7	(29)	22.5	(75)	68.8	(229)
323.2 Sex is fun	7.2	(26)	35.3	(128)	57.6	(209)	6.6	(22)	36.0	(120)	57.4	(191)
323.3 No nice person has sex before marriage	20.4	(74)	35.8	(130)	43.5	(158)	43.8	(146)	27.0	(90)	29.1	(97)
323.4 It is all right for males, but not for females to have sex before marriage	8.8	(32)	21.5	(78)	69.7	(253)	9.6	(32)	24.6	(82)	65.6	(218)
323.5 It is wrong to demonstrate your affection for someone in public	11.6	(42)	45.5	(165)	43.5	(156)	17.4	(58)	39.3	(131)	43.2	(144)
323.6 Petting can too easily lead to intercourse	20.8	(79)	31.1	(113)	47.1	(171)	35.7	(110)	32.7	(109)	31.5	(105)
323.7 Nice girls don't enjoy sex	4.7	(17)	15.4	(56)	79.9	(290)	10.2	(34)	12.6	(42)	77.2	(257)
323.8 Sex in marriage is a woman's duty	4.1	(15)	10.5	(38)	85.4	(310)	4.2	(14)	8.7	(29)	87.1	(290)

Table 10.--Continued.

Sexual Message	Males (N=363)				Females (N=333)							
	Major		Minor		Major		Minor		Not			
	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N		
323.9 Sex is a good way of expressing your love for someone	31.7	(115)	34.4	(125)	33.9	(123)	34.2	(114)	36.6	(122)	29.1	(97)
323.10 There is nothing wrong with sex before marriage if two people love each other	11.8	(43)	29.2	(106)	58.7	(213)	8.7	(29)	18.9	(63)	72.4	(241)
323.11 Sex is like any other activity that is enjoyable	5.5	(21)	18.5	(67)	76.0	(276)	4.5	(15)	19.8	(66)	75.7	(252)
323.12 Pregnancy before marriage can lead to terrible things	58.7	(213)	27.0	(98)	14.3	(52)	61.0	(203)	25.2	(84)	13.8	(46)

The four messages which constituted the largest percentage of major communications for males include the following:

<u>Messages</u>	<u>% indicating major communication</u>
--Pregnancy before marriage can lead to terrible things	58.7%
--Sex is a good way of expressing your love for someone	31.7%
--Petting can too easily lead to intercourse	20.8%
--No nice person has sex before marriage	20.4%

The same four messages constituted the largest percentage of major communications for females, but occurred in a different rank order.

<u>Messages</u>	<u>% indicating major communication</u>
--Pregnancy before marriage can lead to terrible things	61.0%
--No nice person has sex before marriage	43.8%
--Petting can too easily lead to intercourse	35.7%
--Sex is a good way of expressing your love for someone	34.2%

Three of the messages are admonitions against sex with the negative qualities of premarital pregnancy receiving the highest level of expression for both males and females. While the fourth message communicates a positive quality of sex, it is the second-ranking major communication for males, but the fourth-ranking major communication for females. All messages of admonition are received more by females than by males.

A factor analysis using a varimax rotation resulted in a data reduction of the twelve messages into three factors: (1) sex is a dirty experience (Questions 323.3, 323.5, 323.6, 323.12); (2) sex is a

dangerous experience (Questions 323.1, 323.4, 323.7, 323.8); and (3) sex is a positive experience (Questions 323.2, 323.9, 323.10, 323.11). The responses for each item in a factor were summed with a possible range of four to twelve, which resulted in the summary data presented in Table 11. A comparison of means indicates that the dangerous quality of sex is the strongest message communicated to the respondents, especially for females. The difference between males and females on the parental message of "sex is a dangerous experience" was significant, but there were no significant differences between males and females on the messages "sex is a dirty experience" and "sex is a positive experience."

Parental Relationship is the student's perception of the quality of relationship between the respondent and his/her parents and was determined by combining responses to two questions regarding the maternal relationship and two questions on the paternal relationship. The two questions for mother and respondent relationship are: (1) "How well did you get along with your mother during the last two years of high school?" (A five-point scale was used, ranging from very well to not at all well.) (2) "Since coming to college has your relationship with your mother become better, become worse, or has there been no change?" (A three-point scale was used, ranging from better to worse.) If the maternal relationship became better in college, one point was added to the numerical value representing the maternal relationship during high school; if the relationship became worse, one point was subtracted from the numerical value of the relationship during high school; if there had been no change in the maternal relationship since high school,

Table 11.--Students' Perceptions of Content of Parental Sexual Messages:
Three Factors.

Statistic	Males N=363	Females N=333
Factor 1: Sex is a dirty experience		
Range	4-11*	4-12*
Mean	5.2	5.3
Mode	4.0	4.0
Standard deviation	1.5	1.7
Missing cases	0	1
F Ratio	1.321	
Significance	.251	
Factor 2: Sex is a dangerous experience		
Range	4-12*	4-12*
Mean	7.6	8.4
Mode	7.0	9.0
Standard deviation	2.0	2.2
Missing cases	1	0
F Ratio	22.312	
Significance	.000	
Factor 3: Sex is a positive experience		
Range	4-11*	4-12*
Mean	6.3	6.2
Mode	5.0	6.0
Standard deviation	1.8	1.8
Missing cases	1	0
F Ratio	.558	
Significance	.456	

*The higher the score the more predominant the message.

there was no change in the numerical value of the relationship during high school. The identical questions were asked the respondent concerning the relationship with his/her father and were combined as described above. The maternal and paternal relationship scores were summed with a possible range of two to fourteen to produce a current rating of the perceived quality of the parent-respondent relationship. Summary data on students' perceptions of the relationship with their parents are presented in Table 12, which indicates that, in general, students get along with their parents fairly well with a high degree of similarity between male and female respondents regarding the perceived quality of the relationship with their parents.

Table 12.--Students' Perceptions of Relationship with Parents.

Statistic	Males N = 363	Females N = 333
Range	5-14*	5-14
Mean	11.3	11.2
Mode	12.0	12.0
Standard deviation	1.9	1.9
Missing cases	0	0
F Ratio	.821	
Significance	.395	

*Low score indicates low quality parental relationship; high score indicates high quality parental relationship.

Love. The student's conceptualization of love was secured through an open-ended question: "What does love mean to you now?" The

responses were coded according to a three-level developmental schema involving concepts of exchange: (1) a getting relationship, (2) a giving relationship, and (3) a sharing relationship. The development of these coding categories and the procedures employed by the coders are detailed in Appendix D. Frequencies presented in Table 13 indicate that the largest percentage of males conceptualize love as a getting relationship and secondly as a giving relationship, while the largest percentage of females conceptualize love as a giving relationship and secondly as a sharing relationship. However, the difference between male and female conceptualizations of love was not significant.

Table 13.--Students' Conceptualizations of Love.

Categories of Definition	Males		Females	
	N=363	%	N=333	%
1. Getting Relationship	127	39.0	95	30.5
2. Giving Relationship	109	33.4	119	38.3
3. Sharing Relationship	90	27.6	97	31.2
Missing Cases	37*		22*	
Mean	(1.9)		(2.0)	
Standard deviation	(.8)		(.8)	
Chi square	4.963			
d.f.	2			
Significance	.084			

*Missing cases are due to the coding category "other."

Sexual Behavior. A measure of a student's reported level of most intimate behavior was obtained for each relationship he/she has been in. The respondent was asked to indicate the most intimate behavior engaged in on a time line of his/her history of sexual behavior. The coding categories for the different levels of sexual behavior on this time line include: (1) no date, (2) no physical relationship, (3) kissing, (4) light petting, (5) heavy petting, and (6) intercourse. This information was combined to form two indices: lifetime sexual behavior and current sexual behavior. Lifetime sexual behavior is a measure of the most intimate behavior a respondent has engaged in and is composed of four levels: (1) No date, no physical relationship, kissing; (2) Light petting; (3) Heavy petting; (4) Intercourse. Current sexual behavior is a measure of current sexual involvement and is comprised of three levels: (1) Virgins--no history of involvement in an intercourse relationship; (2) Nonvirgins--not currently involved in an intercourse relationship, and (3) Nonvirgins--currently involved in an intercourse relationship.

The frequencies presented in Table 14 indicate that 64.2 percent of the males and 56.8 percent of the females have had coital involvement with 36.9 percent of the males and 41.2 percent of the females reporting current involvement in intercourse relationships. With both indices of sexual behavior there is a significant difference between males and females. In the lifetime sexual behavior index more males than females are involved in intercourse, while in the current sexual behavior index more females than males are virgins and more females than males are currently involved in an intercourse

Table 14.--Students' Reported Levels of Sexual Behavior.

Index of Sexual Behavior	Males		Females	
	N=363	%	N=333	%
Lifetime Sexual Behavior				
1. No date to kissing	17	4.7	6	1.8
2. Light petting	59	16.3	73	21.9
3. Heavy petting	54	14.9	65	19.5
4. Intercourse	233	64.2	189	56.8
Missing cases	0		0	
Mean	(3.4)		(3.3)	
Standard deviation	(.9)		(.8)	
Chi square	11.078			
d.f.	3			
Significance	.011			
Current Sexual Behavior				
1. Virgin	130	36.3	144	43.9
2. Nonvirgin--No current involvement	96	26.8	49	14.9
3. Nonvirgin--Current involvement	132	36.9	135	41.2
Missing cases	5		5	
Mean	(2.0)		(2.0)	
Standard deviation	(.9)		(.9)	
Chi square	14.700			
d.f.	2			
Significance	.001			

relationship. Thus, a larger percentage of males than females have had coital experiences, but fewer males are currently involved.

Sexual Satisfaction. The student's perception of his/her degree of sexual satisfaction was determined by the answer to the question: "In general, how satisfied are you with your sex life?" The responses formed a five-point scale from very satisfied to very dissatisfied. The frequencies for this variable are presented in Table 15, which indicates that, in general, both males and females tend to be somewhat satisfied, with females reporting a higher degree of satisfaction. This difference between males and females was significant.

Table 15.--Students' Reported Levels of Sexual Satisfaction.

Category of Response	Males		Females	
	N=363	%	N=333	%
1. Very dissatisfied	8	2.2	9	2.7
2. Fairly dissatisfied	55	15.2	32	9.6
3. Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	75	20.8	75	22.6
4. Fairly satisfied	143	39.6	109	32.8
5. Very satisfied	80	22.2	107	32.3
Missing cases	2		1	
Mean	(3.6)		(3.8)	
Standard deviation	(1.2)		(1.1)	
Chi square	13.434			
d.f.	4			
Significance	.009			

Data Analysis Procedures

The collected data were coded by a team of twenty coders, who originally functioned as the professional interviewers, and were quality checked by a subgroup of the coders. All data were punched on computer cards and verified mechanically by the Computer Center's Data Preparation Service at Michigan State University. Prior to statistical analysis procedures, some data were recoded so that the highest numerical code was reflective of the most positive quality. Data analysis was performed on a Control Data Corporation (CDC) 6500 Scope Hustler Computer with the use of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, and Bent, 1975).

The data analyses employed various techniques including (1) frequency distributions, means, ranges, standard deviations, and significance tests such as one-way analysis of variance or chi square on all variables; (2) factor analyses on parental sexual messages and indicators of parental socialization; and (3) multiple regression analyses for testing the hypotheses. In addition, a path analysis technique was utilized on the model to determine the underlying relationships among the variables.

As a method for determining the number and nature of underlying variables among a larger number of measures, factor analysis with varimax rotation was used on the twelve items concerning content of parental sexual messages (Kerlinger, 1973; Kerlinger and Pedhazur, 1973). The three resulting factors, which were discussed earlier in this chapter, along with the other six indicators of parental socialization were also subjected to a factor analysis. The results of this factor analysis are presented in Table 16.

Table 16.--Factor Analysis of Indicators of Parental Socialization.

Indicators of Parental Socialization Socialization	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Modeling	.030	-.098	.532*
Expression of Feelings	.322	-.213	.451*
Demonstration of Affection	.360	-.117	.433*
Contact	.016	.020	.218
Sexual Views	.610*	-.371	-.027
Sexual Discussion	.549*	-.061	.236
Sexual Messages			
(1) Sex is dirty	-.117	.542*	-.257
(2) Sex is dangerous	-.170	.886*	.049
(3) Sex is positive	.628*	-.064	.061
(Eigenvalues)	(2.188)	(.773)	(.538)

*Indicates inclusion of item within factor.

Each of the three factors that emerged was comprised of individual items that were conceptually and logically meaningful. Factor 1, positive sexual communication, included parental sexual views, parental sexual discussion, and messages from parents that sex is a positive experience. Factor 2, negative sexual communication, was comprised of two messages from parents that sex is dirty and sex is dangerous. The third factor, parental affective modeling, encompassed parental modeling, expression of feelings, and demonstration of affection. The three factors together integrated the conceptual approach of this investigation regarding parental socialization through interaction, modeling,

and social exchange. All further analyses use as their basis the three factors: positive sexual communication, negative sexual communication, and affective modeling.

Multiple regression was utilized to examine the relationships identified in the hypotheses in order to explore the relative contributions of the independent variables to the variation in the dependent variables, as well as the direction of the relationship of the independent variables to each dependent variable. The use of multiple regression is based on the following assumptions: (1) the sample is drawn at random; (2) the variables are measured on an interval scale; (3) the scores of the dependent variable Y are normally distributed at each value of the independent variable X and have equal variances at each X point; (4) the errors are random and normally distributed; and (5) the relationship between the independent variables and dependent variable is linear (Kerlinger and Pedhazur, 1973; Kim and Kohout, 1975). Separate regression analyses were completed for males and females with the inclusion of the contextual variable, year in school, in each of the separate analyses.

A path analysis was employed to test the proposed model because of this technique's usefulness in studying the direct and indirect effects of variables which can be considered as either causes or effects of variables. While path analysis is not a method for discovering causes, it can be applied to a causal model formulated by the researcher on the basis of knowledge and theoretical considerations. The assumptions which are the basis for the application of path analysis are: (1) the relationships among the variables in the model are linear, additive, and causal; (2) residuals are not correlated among themselves;

(3) there is a one-way causal flow in the model; and (4) the variables are measured on an interval scale (Kerlinger and Pedhazur, 1973; Kim and Kohout, 1975).

An alpha level of .05 was selected as the minimum level for testing each of the hypotheses. While arbitrarily selected, this alpha level was considered to be a reasonable control over Type 1 errors, yet liberal enough to detect potentially discriminating variables which could be isolated for further study.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

This study has investigated parental influences on love, sexual behavior, and satisfaction with one's sex life. Based on the research questions and review of literature, the following hypotheses were established and tested:

Hypothesis 1

Indicators of parent-child socialization will be positively related to a student's perceptions of the relationship with his/her parents.

Hypothesis 2

Parental socialization and the relationship between the student and his/her parents will be positively related to developmental levels of student conceptualizations of love.

Hypothesis 3

Parental socialization and the relationship between the student and his/her parents will not be strongly related to student sexual behavior.

Hypothesis 4

Developmental levels of student conceptualizations of love will be positively related to the degree of satisfaction with one's sex life, while controlling for level of sexual behavior.

In addition, the proposed model was tested in order to explain and summarize the relationships among the variables and to determine the degree to which indicators of parental socialization, parental

relationship, developmental levels of love, and sexual behavior contribute to the dependent variable, degree of satisfaction with one's sex life.

This chapter is organized into two parts and includes the results which pertain to the hypotheses under investigation and the findings related to the testing of the proposed model. Both the sex of the respondent and year in school were taken into consideration in all analyses.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

Indicators of parent-child socialization will be positively related to a student's perceptions of the relationship with his/her parents.

The results of the multiple regression analyses are presented in Table 17, which indicates that for both males and females the hypothesis was supported. Affective modeling was the only variable for males that significantly contributed to the parent relationship with a standardized beta of .339. For females, affective modeling with a standardized beta of .403 also contributed significantly to the parent relationship. In addition, negative sexual messages had a significant negative relationship for females which indicated that the perception of the parent-child relationship for females is closer when parents do not give negative sexual messages and weaker when they do communicate negative sexual messages. While the regression analyses for a student's relationship with his/her parents explained 37.3 percent of the variation for males, it only explained 18.6 percent of the variation for females.

Table 17.--Multiple Regression Analyses with Parent Relationship as the Dependent Variable and Parental Affective Modeling, Positive Sex Messages, Negative Sex Messages, and Students' Year in School as Independent Variables.*

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Regression Coefficients	Standardized Regression Coefficients	F	Significance
<u>Males</u>				
Affective Modeling	.050	.339	40.980	.000
Year in School	.043	.096	3.695	.055
Positive Sex Messages	.007	.048	.826	.364
Negative Sex Messages	-.007	-.043	.673	.413
(Constant)	.601		7.243	.007
Overall F:	14.099			
R Square:	.373			
Significance:	.000			
<u>Females</u>				
Affective Modeling	.056	.403	54.104	.000
Negative Sex Messages	-.018	-.122	4.733	.030
Positive Sex Messages	-.011	-.080	1.952	.163
Year in School	.019	.043	.734	.392
(Constant)	.906		16.895	.000
Overall F:	18.360			
R Square:	.186			
Significance:	.000			

*See definitions of variables on pages 24-27, 88.

Hypothesis 2

Parental socialization and relationship between the student and his/her parents will be positively related to developmental levels of student conceptualizations of love.

The results of the multiple regression analyses are presented in Table 18, which indicates that the hypothesis was not supported for either males or females. The R Square for males explained only 1.2 percent of the variation; this was not significant. Furthermore, none of the factors had a significant relationship to the dependent variable, thereby suggesting that parent socialization influences and the parent-child relationship do not have a significant influence on the developmental levels of a student's conceptualization of love.

Although for females the independent variables contributed to conceptualizations of love with a statistical significance of .002, only 5.5 percent of the variation was explained. Furthermore, the student's relationship with his/her parents was negatively related to developmental levels of love, and not positively related, as was stated in the hypothesis. Thus, the higher the perception of the parent-child relationship, the lower the developmental level of love. In other words, those female students with strong parent-child relationships are developmentally at the "getting" level of conceptualizing love, while those female students whose parent-child relationships are not as strong tend to conceptualize love as a sharing experience.

Since year in school was the second factor which was significantly related to the developmental level of love, it appears that for females, a progression occurs from a getting level of love to a giving or sharing level as the student increases in age or year in school. For females, the variable positive sexual messages did not have an F

Table 18.--Multiple Regression Analyses with Love as the Dependent Variable and Parent Relationship, Affective Modeling, Positive Sex Messages, Negative Sex Messages, and Students' Year in School as Independent Variables.

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Regression Coefficients	Standardized Regression Coefficients	F	Significance
<u>Males</u>				
Positive Sex Messages	-.014	-.061	1.076	.300
Year in School	.040	.053	.870	.352
Parent Relationship	-.084	-.051	.727	.394
Negative Sex Messages	.009	.033	.314	.575
Affective Modeling	.066	.024	.137	.711
(Constant)	1.903		21.084	.000
Overall F:	.711			
R Square:	.012			
Significance:	.593			
<u>Females</u>				
Parent Relationship	-.292	-.186	9.161	.003
Year in School	.102	.144	6.601	.011
Negative Sex Messages	-.016	-.069	1.375	.242
Affective Modeling	-.009	-.039	.396	.530
(Constant)	2.551		55.643	.000
Overall F:	4.430			
R Square:	.055			
Significance:	.002			

*See definitions of variables on pages 24-27, 88.

value that allowed it to remain as an independent variable in the regression analysis. Hence, as females are in school longer and are away from close relationships with parents, they see love as a sharing experience, or as females ideas about love mature and they become involved in a sharing relationship with an important other, they become less involved with their parents and thus, relate less well with them. This phenomenon is most apt to occur with increases in age.

Hypothesis 3

Parental socialization and the relationship between the student and his/her parents will not be strongly related to student sexual behavior.

The results of the multiple regression analyses are presented in Tables 19 and 20, in which lifetime sexual behavior and current behavior are used respectively as the dependent variables. For both males and females the hypothesis was not rejected. In each table, analyses for males and females are statistically significant, however, the major independent variable that contributes to both lifetime sexual behavior and current sexual behavior is the contextual variable, year in school. In Table 19 the total R Square for males explains 15.1 percent of the variation with 9.1 percent of the variation attributed to year in school. For females the total R Square indicates that 9.6 percent of the variation can be explained by the independent variables with 5.8 percent attributable to year in school. The results in Table 20 are similar, indicating that for males 12.5 percent of the variation can be explained by the independent variables with year in school contributing 7.7 percent, while the analysis for females indicates that the independent variables explain 7.7 percent of the variation

Table 19.--Multiple Regression Analyses with Lifetime Sexual Behavior as the Dependent Variable and Parent Relationship, Affective Modeling, Positive Sex Messages, Negative Sex Messages, and Students' Year in School as Independent Variables.*

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Regression Coefficients	Standardized Regression Coefficients	F	Significance
<u>Males</u>				
Year in School	.265	.315	40.038	0
Positive Sex Messages	.054	.204	14.927	.000
Negative Sex Messages	.051	.171	10.719	.001
Affective Modeling	.025	.090	2.59	.108
Parent Relationship	-.114	-.061	1.32	.252
(Constant)	1.038		6.17	.013
Overall F:	12.501			
R Square:	.151			
Significance:	.000			
<u>Females</u>				
Year in School	.203	.255	22.785	.000
Affective Modeling	-.040	-.164	6.873	.009
Parent Relationship	-.123	-.070	1.421	.234
Positive Sex Messages	.009	.039	.414	.520
Negative Sex Messages	.004	.014	.057	.812
(Constant)	3.462		68.648	0
Overall F:	6.853			
R Square:	.096			
Significance:	.000			

*See definitions of variables on pages 24-27, 84, 88.

Table 20.--Multiple Regression Analyses with Current Sexual Behavior as the Dependent Variable and Parent Relationship, Affective Modeling, Positive Sex Messages, Negative Sex Messages, and Students' Year in School as Independent Variables.*

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Regression Coefficients	Standardized Regression Coefficients	F	Significance
<u>Males</u>				
Year in School	.233	.298	34.626	0
Positive Sex Messages	.041	.165	9.507	.002
Negative Sex Messages	.033	.118	4.906	.027
Parent Relationship	-.194	-.112	4.331	.038
Affective Modeling	.027	.106	3.517	.062
(Constant)	.265		.452	.502
Overall F:	9.943			
R Square:	.125			
Significance:	0			
<u>Females</u>				
Year in School	.205	.245	20.469	.000
Affective Modeling	-.033	-.130	4.244	.040
Positive Sex Messages	.016	.062	1.043	.308
Parent Relationship	-.133	-.072	1.472	.226
Negative Sex Messages	-.005	-.018	.085	.771
(Constant)	2.067		21.634	.000
Overall F:	5.408			
R Square:	.077			
Significance:	.000			

*See definitions of variables on pages 24-27, 84, 88.

with year in school contributing 5.2 percent. Thus, the practical significance of the effect of parents on lifetime or current sex behavior is minimal.

For males (Table 19) both positive sexual messages and negative sexual messages are positively and significantly related to lifetime sexual behavior with standardized beta weights of .204 and .171, respectively. While it is curious that both positive and negative messages are related to lifetime sexual behavior, the contribution of the relationship of these divergent variables can be accounted for by differences in male and female socialization, which results in males' becoming more independent of the attitudes and opinions of others than females and learning to suppress anxiety over social reactions. Thus, a large quantity of sexual messages leads males to increased levels of sexual involvement, and it makes little difference if these messages are positive or negative.

In addition to the variable, year in school, parental affective modeling for females contributes negatively to lifetime sexual behavior (Table 19). In other words, the more that parents express feelings and demonstrate affection, as well as the more that students desire to be like their parents, the lower the female student's level of sexual involvement. This finding supports previous research and theoretical propositions that females are socialized to be more conforming and concerned with socially desirable behaviors and are more sexually restricted (Kagan, 1964; D'andrade, 1974).

In relation to lifetime sexual behavior, the analysis of current sexual behavior, in Table 20, depicts similar results. For males there is one additional independent variable, parent relationship, which

relates weakly to current sexual behavior. This negative relationship indicates that the higher the perceived quality of parent-child relationship, the less likely the male is to be currently involved in a sexual intercourse relationship. Conversely, a weaker parent relationship appears to be related to current sexual involvement. In addition, for both males and females, less variation in current sexual behavior, as compared to lifetime sexual behavior, is explained by the independent variables.

Hypothesis 4

Developmental levels of student conceptualizations of love will be positively related to the degree of satisfaction with one's sex life, while controlling for level of sexual behavior.

The results of the multiple regression analyses are presented in Tables 21 and 22 in which lifetime sexual behavior and current sexual behavior, respectively, are used as the independent variables. The hypothesis was not supported, since for both males and females developmental levels of love were not significantly related to lifetime sexual behavior and current sexual behavior. The major component of satisfaction with sex life is sexual behavior, with current sexual involvement providing a greater contribution to satisfaction with sex life than lifetime sexual behavior. For males, year in school had a weak, but significant relationship to satisfaction with sex life. However, this relationship was negative, thereby indicating that males, as they increase in age during their college years, have decreasing satisfaction with their sex lives. For females, the variable year in school did not have an F value that allowed it to remain as an independent variable in the regression analysis.

Table 21.--Multiple Regression Analyses with Sexual Satisfaction as the Dependent Variable and Love, Lifetime Sexual Behavior, and Students' Year in School as Independent Variables.*

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Regression Coefficients	Standardized Regression Coefficients	F	Significance
<u>Males</u>				
Lifetime Sex Behavior	.334	.292	26.211	0
Year in School	-.131	-.134	5.570	.019
Love	.019	.014	.073	.787
(Constant)	2.770		109.982	0
Overall F:	8.945			
R Square:	.079			
Significance:	.000			
<u>Females</u>				
Lifetime Sex Behavior	.325	.263	22.388	.000
Love	-.068	-.050	.801	.371
(Constant)	2.881		111.515	.000
Overall F:	11.373			
R Square:	.070			
Significance:	.000			

*See definitions of variables on pages 24-27, 77.

Table 22.--Multiple Regression Analyses with Sexual Satisfaction as the Dependent Variable and Love, Current Sexual Behavior, and Students' Year in School as Independent Variables.*

Independent Variables	Unstandardized Regression Coefficients	Standardized Regression Coefficients	F	Significance
<u>Males</u>				
Current Sex Behavior	.413	.337	36.330	0
Year in School	-.139	-.143	6.525	.011
Love	.022	.017	.098	.754
(Constant)	3.083		204.318	0
Overall F:	12.324			
R Square:	.105			
Significance:	0			
<u>Females</u>				
Current Sex Behavior	.360	.309	31.840	.000
Love	-.071	.054	.982	.322
(Constant)	3.255		267.803	.000
Overall F:	16.104			
R Square:	.096			
Significance:	.000			

*See definitions of variables on pages 24-27, 77.

Testing the Model

The fifth research question explored the extent to which the relationship among the variables could be summarized and explained by the proposed model of parental influence on love, sexual behavior, and sexual satisfaction. For this purpose a path analysis technique was employed. Path analysis provides possibilities for causal determinations among sets of measured variables. This technique is not necessarily a procedure for demonstrating causality, but is a method for tracing the implications of a set of causal assumptions (Miller, 1977; Kim and Kohout, 1975). The development of the causal assumptions and scheme is based on the previous discussion of the socialization processes of interaction, modeling, and social exchange and their resultant effects on a student's relationship with his/her parents, as well as on a student's conceptualization of love, sexual behavior, and sexual satisfaction.

Using a conceptual approach that views parents as influential socialization agents, a causal diagram for the hypothesized model was devised (Figure 4). Although this model eliminates other major influences such as peers, which are acknowledged to be important, their inclusion in the model would obscure an analysis of the components inherent in parental influence. In general, this model depicts the effects of parental socialization during the lifespan development of the student by the use of three factors representing parental indicators of socialization: positive sexual messages, negative sexual messages, and affective modeling. These factors are examined in conjunction with their direct and indirect influences on the students' perception of the present relationship with parents, their indirect impact on

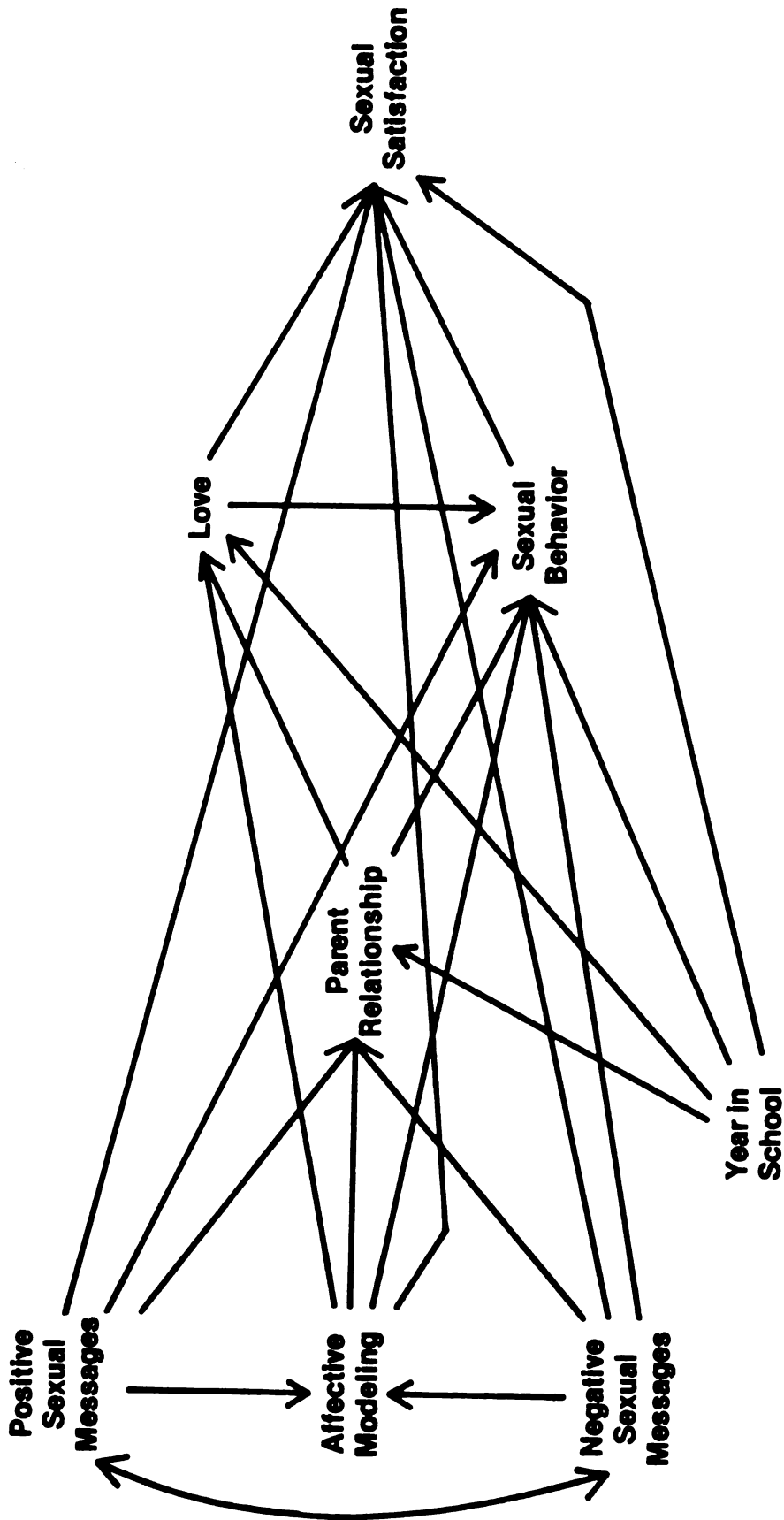


Figure 4. Causal Diagram for the Hypothesized Model of Parental Influence on Love, Sexual Behavior, and Sexual Satisfaction

students' developmental conceptualizations of love, levels of sexual behavior, and satisfaction with sex life. Because of the developmental nature of love and sexual behavior and their mutual influence on satisfaction with sex life, year in school was examined in relation to those variables which are current college measures: parent relationship, conceptualizations of love, levels of sexual behavior, and satisfaction with sex life.

More specifically, positive sexual messages and negative sexual messages should be related to affective modeling, but will not be causally related. Parents give positive sexual messages which conceptually will be highly related to affective modeling and conversely, parents who demonstrate affection will be displaying positive messages about sex. In addition, parents who are conveying positive messages about sex will not be conveying negative messages about sex. Parents who are perceived as expressing positive sexual messages will also be perceived as good affective models and thus, respondents will have a desire to be like their parents.

The interrelationship of positive sexual messages, negative sexual messages and affective modeling should influence the parent relationship since students who want to be like their parents will perceive the relationship with their parents as being good. Affective modeling will be related to love because young people who wish to emulate their parents' freedom of expression of feeling and the parents' ability to demonstrate affection for each other should view love as a sharing relationship. The content of parental sexual messages should affect sexual behavior. Male and female behavior should then differ, since parental sexual socialization for females has been more restrictive.

The respondents' relationship with their parents will be negatively related to year in school because respondents who are in college and living away from home will be influenced to a lesser degree by the relationship with their parents and the desire to be like their parents. As students get older they will become more involved in sexual relationships, and thus the influence of parents as models will shift to other significant individuals within the respondents' environment. Hence, the parent relationship and parent affective modeling will be negatively related to level of sexual behavior. There will also be a negative relationship between the parent-child relationship and love because involvement in a sexual relationship which includes love will result in a desire to share with that individual and to shift away from parents. Furthermore, students' lifetime sexual behavior will be positively influenced by levels of love since sharing affection has been considered as a conditional prerequisite for sexual involvement, especially for females (Miller and Simon, 1974). Thus, the sharing level of love which evolves as students increase in age will positively influence a level of sexual involvement that progresses toward coitus.

Age, as measured by year in school, is an important variable which will have direct influence on the students' relationship with their parents, developmental levels of love, sexual behavior, and satisfaction with sex life. Since sexual messages and affective modeling have been occurring throughout the developmental lifespan of the individual and not just during the college years, year in school was not considered as an influence on these factors. Parental relationship, however, is a measure of college students' perceptions of the parent-child relationship; developmental levels of love, level of lifetime

sexual behavior, and satisfaction with sex life are likewise measures of current behavior and perceptions. These four variables will be influenced by age since becoming older is related to increased involvement in sexual behavior and sharing love with significant others which are the two components that comprise satisfaction with sex life. In the meantime, the relationship with parents will have weakened and respondents will be less likely to model their parents' expressions of feelings and demonstrations of affection.

As the respondent becomes older, the sharing of love and involvement in sexual behavior will increase which will result in the respondents becoming satisfied with their sex lives. Parental modeling of affection and expressions of feelings and sexual messages will not only affect satisfaction with sex life directly, but also indirectly through love and sexual behavior. Students, who try to be like parents who demonstrate affection and express feelings, will themselves be more demonstrative and are therefore, more likely to be in an affectional relationship that includes intercourse. Learning how to express affection from parent models will enhance that ability in the respondents and effect a loving and sexual relationship that will result in a greater degree of satisfaction with one's sex life. In addition, the modeling of positive sexual messages and the lack of modeling of negative sexual messages will influence the sexual behavior component of satisfaction with sex life. Hence, satisfaction with one's sex life will increase as the respondent becomes older because of a shift in affective models from parents to significant others, increased coital involvement, and deeper levels of sharing love. In conjunction with these interrelationships, the influence of parental models during the

developmental lifespan of the individual will have a residual impact on satisfaction with sex life through the affective domain.

Since males and females have had different socialization experiences from parents, peers, and society, the sex of the respondent is considered to be an important influence upon the causal determinations among the independent and dependent variables. Males are raised to be more independent while females are socialized to be more conforming, and thus, parental influence on love, sexual behavior, and satisfaction with sex life will not be as impactful for males. Love will also have less importance for males than females since the affect dimension of male socialization is a lesser part of their social interactions. In general, satisfaction with sex life for both males and females will be primarily influenced by sexual behavior, although male-female differences in the level of sexual behavior and current sexual involvement can influence the student's perceived satisfaction with his/her sex life.

In summary, the model conceptualizes the parent-child relationship as a mediating link between indicators of parental socialization and components of intimacy with the recognition that conceptualizations of love and levels of sexual behavior influence degree of satisfaction with sex life. Since conceptualizations of love and levels of sexual behavior are developmental phenomena, year in school has been utilized as a contextual variable. Rather than current sexual behavior, lifetime sexual behavior was used as the measure of sexual behavior, since the focus of the model related to parental socialization influences during the developmental lifespan of the student. Males and females were analyzed separately because of differences in socialization. The overall aim of this analysis was to clarify and

delineate some of the factors that affect love, sexual behavior, and satisfaction with sex life, as well as to determine differing parental influences for male and female children. In addition to examining the direct and indirect influences among the variables, another advantage of using a path analysis of the hypothesized causal model is the resultant opportunity to examine the simultaneous covariation of various variables.

The zero-order correlation matrix for these variables is presented in Table 23. Figures 5 and 6 give the path coefficients for the model as it applies to males and females, respectively, and Figures 7 and 8 represent the respecified final path analytic models for males and females, respectively. Only those variables which had an influence on subsequent variables in the causal system significant at the .05 level, were retained. All four figures include the standardized and unstandardized path coefficients and the overall R Square for the model.

As predicted, parents do have some influence on the intimacy of their children and this influence varies according to the sex of the child. For males, the model in Figure 7 indicates that positive sexual messages had a direct positive influence on affective modeling and negative sexual messages had a direct negative influence on affective modeling. Parental sexual messages indirectly influenced the relationship between the student and his parents through affective modeling. Affective modeling had a direct and positive influence on the student's relationship with his parents, thereby indicating the impact of recalled early parent behaviors on parental interaction, modeling, and social exchange in the areas of sexual discussions, sexual

Table 23.---Zero-Order Correlations for Males (Females).

Variable	AFFMOD	POSSEX	NEGSEX	YRINSCHL	CLPARREL	LOVE	LIFSXBHEH	SEXSATIS
AFFMOD	1.000	.275 (.331)	-.268 (-.291)	-.088 (.062)	.378 (.414)	-.027 (-.086)	.075 (-.156)	.164 (.059)
POSSEX	1.000	1.000	-.258 (-.395)	-.087 (-.063)	.155 (.115)	-.077 (-.011)	.158 (-.034)	.003 (-.091)
NEGSEX	1.000	1.000	1.000	-.268 (.049)	-.125 (-.209)	.054 (-.011)	.092 (.066)	.032 (-.058)
YRINSCHL	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	.051 (.077)	.055 (.124)	.307 (.242)	-.048 (.068)
CLPARREL	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	-.054 (-.177)	.029 (-.134)	.133 (.069)
LOVE	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	-.027 (.056)	-.006 (-.026)
LIFSXBHEH	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	.243 (.254)
SEXSATIS	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000

AFFMOD = Affective Modeling
 POSSEX = Positive Sex Messages
 NEGSEX = Negative Sex Messages
 YRINSCHL = Year in School
 CLPARREL = College Parent Relationship
 LOVE = Exchange Levels of Love Conceptualizations
 LIFSXBHEH = Lifetime Sexual Behavior
 SEXSATIS = Sexual Satisfaction

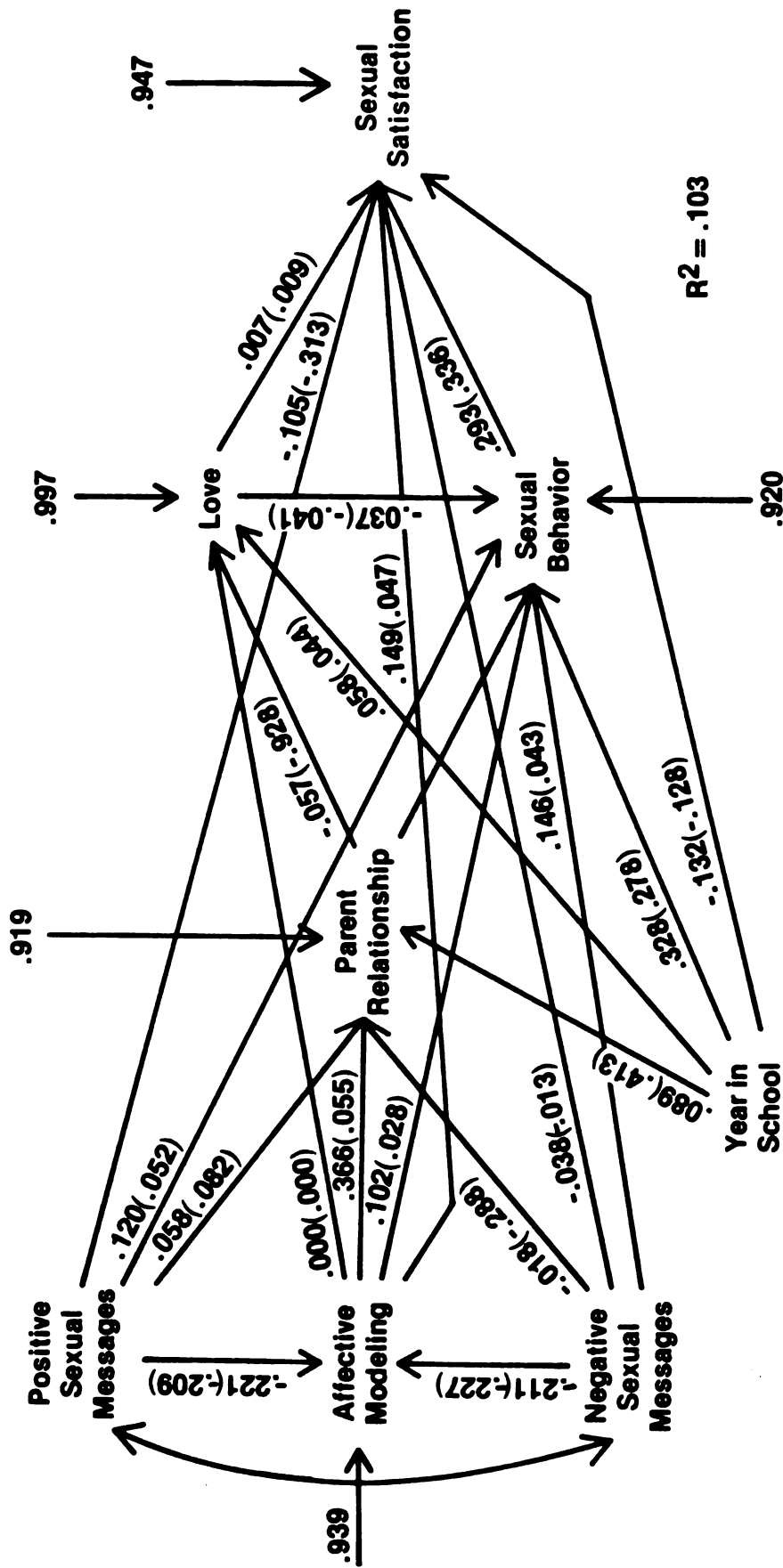


Figure 5. Path Analytic Model for Males of Parental Influence on Love, Sexual Behavior, and Sexual Satisfaction. Model Shows Standardized (and Unstandardized) Coefficients. (N = 322)

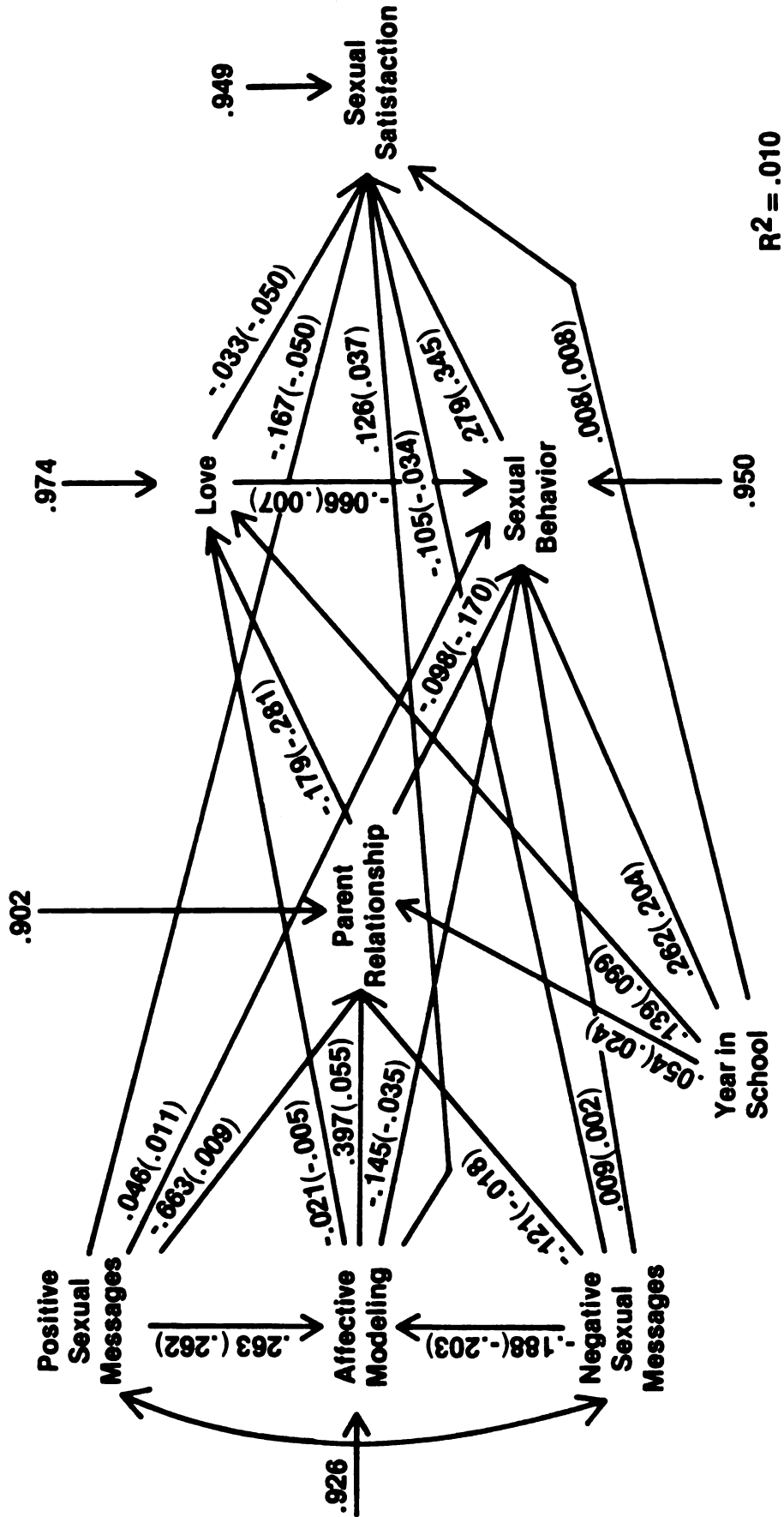
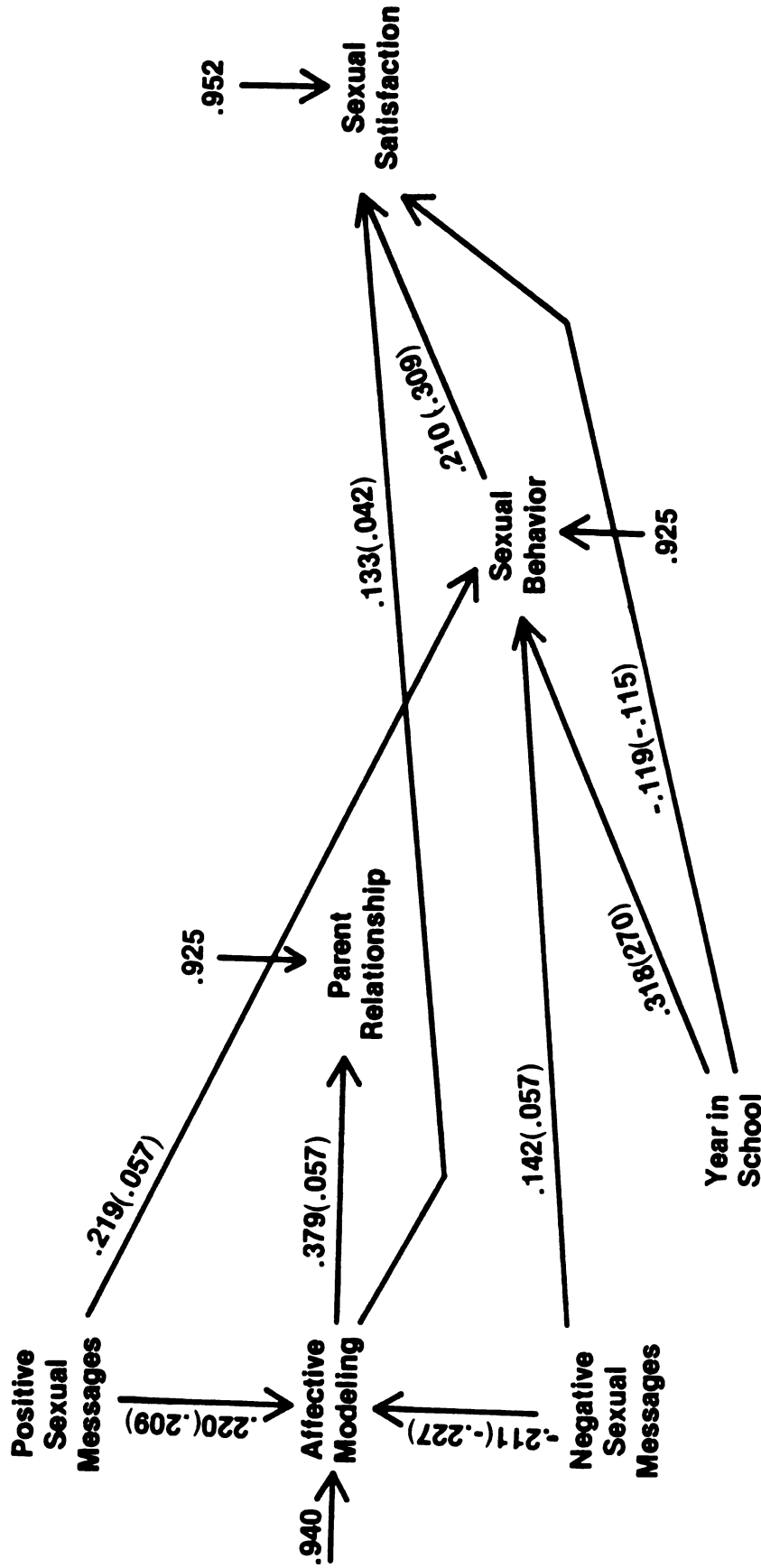


Figure 6. Path Analytic Model for Females of Parental Influence on Love, Sexual Behavior, and Sexual Satisfaction. Model Shows Standardized (and Unstandardized) Coefficients. (N = 309)



$R^2 = .093$

Figure 7. Final Path Analytic Model for Males of Parental Influence on Love, Sexual Behavior, and Sexual Satisfaction. Model Shows Standardized (and Unstandardized) Coefficients. (N = 322)

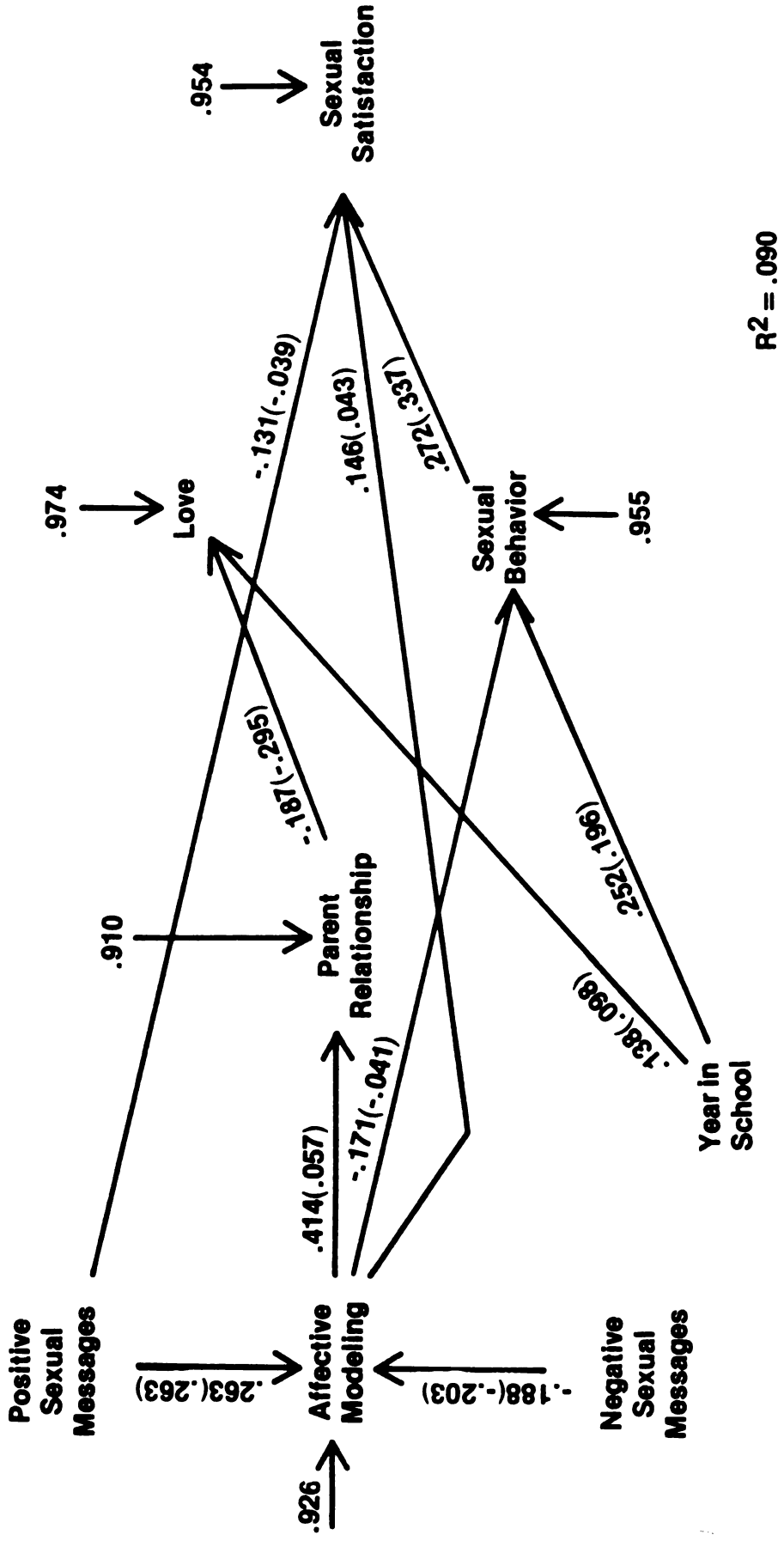


Figure 8. Final Path Analytic Model for Females of Parental Influence on Love, Sexual Behavior, and Sexual Satisfaction. Model Shows Standardized (and Unstandardized) Coefficients. (N = 309)

views, and parental modeling of expressions of affect and feelings. The male's relationship with his parents had no further influence on the variables in the model.

The indicators of parental socialization, in other words, positive sexual messages, negative sexual messages, and affective modeling, as well as the student's relationship with his parents had no influence on a student's conceptualizing love as a getting, giving, or sharing relationship. Since love also had no influence on sexual behavior and sexual satisfaction, it was eliminated from the final model.

Level of sexual behavior was positively and directly influenced by both positive and negative sexual messages, which indicates that any sexual message or sexual discussion tends to influence or encourage sexual involvement by males. While year in school positively and directly influenced level of sexual behavior, influence on satisfaction with sex life is both direct and indirect through sexual behavior. Thus, as males increase in year in school, they are more likely to have progressed toward sexual intercourse which positively influences satisfaction with sex life. However, an examination of the direct influence of year in school upon satisfaction with sex life indicated a decrease in satisfaction as age increased. Since Table 14 indicated that 26.8 percent of the males who are nonvirgins are not currently involved in an intercourse relationship, it is possible that the lack of current sexual involvement is contributing to this inverse relationship between year in school and sexual satisfaction. Once sexual intercourse has been experienced, its continuation appears to contribute to satisfaction with one's sex life. Sexual satisfaction was also

influenced directly by parental affective modeling. Thus, for those males who want to be like their parents and report parental expression of feelings and demonstration of affection, there is a higher degree of satisfaction with one's sex life. In addition, sexual satisfaction was indirectly influenced by both positive sexual messages and negative sexual messages through sexual behavior. In other words, the discussion of sex, either positively or negatively, along with liberal sexual views positively impacted on a developmental progression toward sexual intercourse which, in turn, positively influenced satisfaction with sex life.

In summary, students, who see as models parents who convey feelings and communicate positive sexual messages, express satisfaction with their sex lives. (Negative sexual messages are related to lower affective modeling and lower satisfaction with sex life.) At the same time, it seems that for males, any sexual messages, whether positive or negative, are correlated with increased levels of sexual behavior in conjunction with year in school. Thus, while sexual behavior seems to be a consequence of both developing maturity and communicating sexual information within the home, being satisfied with one's sexual life is related to the extent to which parents served as affective models. While the level of sexual involvement is also related to satisfaction with one's sex life, year in school has a negative impact on sexual satisfaction for reasons which are not entirely clear. In fact, year in school has a contradictory influence on sexual satisfaction having both a direct-negative effect and an indirect-positive effect because of its relationship to sexual behavior.

The final path analytic model for females (Figure 8) contains both similarities and differences compared to the final path analytic model for males (Figure 7). As was true for males, affective modeling is positively influenced by positive sexual messages and negatively influenced by negative sexual messages which leads to a positive indirect influence on the parent-child relationship. Thus, female students want to be like parents who express feelings, demonstrate affection, and communicate information about sex. While the standardized path coefficients from positive and negative sexual messages to affective modeling are lower for females than for males, the path coefficient from affective modeling to parent relationship is higher for females than for males. These coefficients indicate that compared to males, sexual messages are a less important influence on affective modeling for females, while affective modeling is a more important influence on parent relationship for females. Affective modeling, that is, parental demonstration of affection, parental expression of feelings, and the desire of the student to be like her parents directly influences the student's perception of the current relationship with her parents.

Year in school has a positive influence on love and sexual behavior, indicating that as a female increases in age and year in school, her level of sexual involvement progresses toward intercourse and her level of conceptualizing love approaches a sharing relationship. However, parental influence through affective modeling has a direct-negative influence on level of sexual behavior. Thus, those students who desire to be like their parents and positively perceive their parents' expression of feelings and demonstration of affection tend to

be at a lower level of sexual involvement. In contrast, those students who do not want to model after their parents have reached a greater level of sexual involvement progressing towards intercourse.

Developmental levels of love are negatively influenced by the parent relationship, indicating that students who perceive the relationship with their parents as being very good are more likely to perceive love as a getting relationship than as a giving or sharing relationship. These students have had a lesser involvement in sexual activity and do not as yet perceive love as a sharing relationship between two individuals. On the other hand, those females who view love as a sharing experience have a weaker parent relationship probably because of their greater involvement with a significant other. Love is also positively influenced by year in school, thereby further indicating that love is a developmental phenomenon that is related to an increase in age. As a female gets older, her parental ties decrease, she becomes more involved in sexual intercourse, and she progresses toward conceptualizing love as a sharing relationship.

In addition, love is indirectly influenced by positive and negative sexual messages through affective modeling which indirectly influences love through the parental relationship. Thus, the more that parents project liberal sexual views, discuss sex, and give positive sexual messages, as well as refrain from verbalizing negative sexual messages, affective modeling is enhanced. This desire to be like parents in terms of expression of feelings and demonstration of affection positively influences the student's relationship with her parents which influences conceptualizing love as a getting relationship. Thus, students who have close relationships with parents continue to

conceptualize love at the more primitive getting level. In contrast, as females become older and presumably more involved in a love relationship with a significant other, their conceptualization of love progresses toward the sharing level.

While degree of satisfaction with sex life is positively and directly influenced by level of sexual behavior, it is also directly influenced by two divergent parental influences. As in the model for males, degree of sexual satisfaction is positively and directly influenced by affective modeling. Thus, for those females who want to be like their parents and report parental expression of feelings and demonstration of affection, there is a higher degree of satisfaction with sex life. However, satisfaction with sex life is negatively influenced by positive sexual messages. Positive sexual messages lead to high affective modeling and affective modeling directly and positively influences sexual satisfaction, but it also leads one to be less sexually involved which indirectly and negatively influences sexual satisfaction. Thus, parental sexual messages result in pushes and pulls for females that do not exist for males.

Satisfaction with one's sex life is lower for females whose parents are sexually liberal, discuss sex frequently, and give positive sexual messages. In this instance, it appears that satisfaction, which is based on an individual's perceived discrepancy between aspiration and achievement (Campbell, Converse, and Rogers, 1976), is being affected by positive sexual messages in which the female finds a gap in relation to her own level of perceived satisfaction and what she believes the level should be. Since satisfaction is based on a personal evaluation influenced by past experiences, current expectations, and

future aspirations, a female's current feelings of satisfaction with her sexual life can be influenced by the positive sexual messages she receives from parents, a current evaluation of her sexual satisfaction, and the level of aspiration she has regarding future satisfaction with her sex life.

It is important to note the resultant differences for males and females in their respective final path analytic models (Figures 7 and 8):

- While positive and negative sexual messages directly influenced parental affective modeling, and in turn, influenced the parent-student relationship for both males and females, for males both positive and negative sexual messages influenced sexual behavior positively. Sexual messages from parents to males, both positive and negative sexual messages influenced progression from kissing and light petting to intercourse. For females, there was no relationship between parental sexual messages and sexual behavior.
- Although the variable love dropped out of the model for males, for females, love was found to be positively influenced by year in school and negatively influenced by the student's perception of the relationship with her parents. This covariation is also linked to female sexual behavior and is important, since the increasing age of females results in increasing levels of sexual behavior progressing toward intercourse, a developing conceptualization of love toward a sharing relationship, and a lower perception of the parent-student relationship.

--For both males and females, sexual behavior is directly and positively influenced by year in school, but for females, parental affective modeling also has a simultaneous and direct-negative influence on sexual behavior. As the age of females increases, sexual behavior progresses from kissing and light petting to intercourse. Intercourse is influenced by students not desiring to be like parents and perceiving a lack of parental demonstration of affection and expression of feelings.

--While for both males and females satisfaction with sex life is positively and directly influenced by a level of sexual behavior that progresses toward intercourse, as well as positively and directly influenced by affective modeling, male sexual satisfaction is also negatively and directly influenced by year in school. As a male increases in age, as indicated by year in school, his satisfaction with his sexual life decreases. This phenomenon covaries with an increasing level of sexual behavior (Table 14). Although more males than females have had intercourse, a higher proportion of males are not currently involved in a sexual relationship. Thus, as age increases, a greater percentage of males become involved in intercourse. However, those males who are not currently involved in an intercourse relationship may be less satisfied with their sex lives.

--For females, satisfaction with sex life is directly and inversely influenced by positive sexual messages, while for males no direct relationship exists. It is interesting to note that positive sexual messages have simultaneous direct-negative,

indirect-negative, and indirect-positive influences on how satisfied females are with their sex lives. In contrast, positive sexual messages have only an indirect-positive influence on male satisfaction with sex life through affective modeling.

While multiple regression analyses were of value in testing the hypotheses, the utilization of path analyses facilitated an examination of both the entire model and of the interrelationships among the variables within the context of a causal scheme. In general, the results indicate that parents do have some influence on the intimacy of their children, but there are gender differences with regard to the path coefficients, directionality, and magnitude of influence. While the proposed model does not explain a great amount of variation, it does begin to delineate some interesting perspectives regarding the influence of parents on the love, sexual behavior, and sexual satisfaction of their children. While the model appears relatively straightforward for males, it is much more complex for females, thereby indicating the various conflicting forces that impinge upon the love, sexual behavior, and sexual satisfaction of females.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter includes a summary and discussion of the study findings, as well as conclusions and implications for further research, theory, and family life education.

Summary of the Study

The overall purpose of this study was to investigate how the parent-child relationship influences conceptualizations of love, sexual behavior, and satisfaction with one's sexual life among never-married college students. The conceptual approach utilized in the investigation employed a broad view of the family as an environment in which both socialization and education occur to enhance the development of human resources either explicitly or implicitly. Socialization, as examined within the context of this study, encompassed the three interrelated processes of interaction, modeling, and social exchange and their impact on the development of intimacy and sexual satisfaction.

The data utilized to test the hypotheses were collected as part of a study designed to determine the factors which influence the sexual behavior and contraceptive use of never-married college students.*

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A survey research design was employed which used personal interviews of a random sample of 421 male and 402 female undergraduate students. However, the investigation of parental influence on intimacy focused on a subsample of the larger study and included only those students who were currently not living at home and who reported living with both parents while growing up. The resulting subsample consisted of 696 respondents, 363 males and 333 females who were relatively evenly divided by year in school.

Multiple regression analyses and path analyses were employed to test the hypotheses and the model, with the following results:

1. Indicators of parent-child socialization were positively related to student perceptions of the relationship with his/her parents. The most significant factor which influenced the parent-child relationship for both males and females was affective modeling. Thus, those students who wanted to be like their parents and who had parents who demonstrated affection and expressed their feelings had a closer relationship with their parents.

2. Indicators of parent socialization and the relationship between the student and his/her parents were not positively related to developmental levels of student conceptualizations of love. For males, the relationship between parental influence and conceptualizations of love was not significant. Although for females the relationship was significant at the .002 level, the relationship was negative, thereby suggesting that a close parent relationship was indicative of conceptualizing love as a getting relationship. In the developmental scheme used for this study a getting relationship is at an earlier stage than either a giving or a sharing relationship.

3. Indicators of parent-child socialization and the relationship between the student and his/her parents were not related to student sexual behavior. For both males and females, year in school, which is an age-related variable, was the predominant factor that contributed to variations in both lifetime sexual behavior and current sexual behavior. While positive and negative sexual messages were significantly related to male sexual behavior, the relative contribution of these messages to the explained variation was minimal. Parental affective modeling was significantly related to female sexual behavior, but the relationship was negative, indicating that parental demonstration of affection and expression of feelings had a suppressive influence on female sexual involvement.

4. Developmental levels of student conceptualizations of love were not related to the degree of satisfaction with sex life, while controlling for the level of sexual behavior. The major factor contributing to satisfaction with one's sex life was sexual behavior, with current involvement in an intercourse relationship contributing more greatly to sexual satisfaction than lifetime level of sexual involvement. The relationship of love to satisfaction with one's sex life was not significant for either males or females.

A path analysis of the proposed model indicated that parents do influence their children's intimacy. There are both similarities and differences in the ways parents influence males and females. For males, the relationship between the student and his parents is directly and positively influenced by parental affective modeling and indirectly influenced by positive and negative sexual messages through affective modeling. While positive sexual messages positively influenced

affective modeling, negative sexual messages inversely influenced affective modeling. Sexual behavior is positively influenced by both positive and negative sexual messages, as well as year in school. Satisfaction with one's sex life is directly and positively influenced by level of sexual involvement and parental affective modeling, but inversely influenced by year in school. However, satisfaction with one's sex life is also positively and indirectly influenced by year in school through sexual behavior. In the final path analytic model for males, developmental levels of conceptualizing love were not related to any of the variables.

For females, as for males, the relationship between the student and her parents is directly and positively influenced by parental affective modeling and indirectly influenced by positive and negative sexual messages through affective modeling. Positive sexual messages positively influence affective modeling, and negative sexual messages inversely influence affective modeling. While female sexual behavior is positively influenced by year in school, it is negatively influenced by parental affective modeling, indicating that close ties to parents tend to inhibit female coital involvement. As females increase in age and level of sexual behavior, they also progress toward conceptualizing love as a sharing relationship which is related to weaker parent-child relationships. Thus, the covariation of year in school and parent-child relationship with love and sexual behavior indicates that females, as they increase in age, perceive love as a sharing relationship and progress towards a coital level of sexual behavior. At the same time the sharing level of love is associated with a weaker parental relationship and a lower desire to model after parents.

Sexual satisfaction for females is positively influenced by their sexual behavior and parental affective modeling. However, sexual satisfaction is inversely influenced by positive sexual messages. Hence, the absence of positive sexual messages, in conjunction with conservative parental sexual views negatively influences parental affective modeling. Students who do not perceive their parents as affective models are more sexually involved, which, in turn, positively influences female satisfaction with sex life. However, the direct relationship between affective modeling and sexual satisfaction indicates that females who do perceive their parents as affective models are more satisfied with their sex lives. Furthermore, parents' positive sexual messages and liberal sexual views can negatively influence female sexual satisfaction. Satisfaction is based on an individual's perceived congruence or discrepancy between aspiration and achievement. If a woman's sexual experiences do not meet the high expectations which were influenced by positive parental messages about sex, she may be dissatisfied. More has been promised than has been delivered. Thus, the direct and indirect influences of parental affective modeling and positive sexual messages depict the pushes and pulls of parental influence upon female sexual behavior and satisfaction with sex life.

While the test of the model indicated that parents do influence the intimacy of their children, there are definite gender differences in path coefficients, directionality, and magnitude of influence. In addition, the integration of various positive and negative influences upon female conceptualizations of love, levels of sexual behavior, and perceptions of sexual satisfaction results in a more complex model for females than for males.

Discussion

Parental socialization and education of children, whether deliberate or inadvertant, can be conceptualized as occurring through three interrelated processes: (1) interaction, in which successive transactional gestures form an interaction sequence between the individual and those persons who influence him or her; (2) modeling, in which the individual takes on the actions of others without visible inducement or compulsion; and (3) social exchange, in which individuals form interpersonal relations in the light of benefits, costs, or profits expected from such associations (Turner, 1970; Bronfenbrenner, 1970; Homans, 1961, 1974). The emergent quality of these social interactions and exchanges has been identified by researchers as either intense friendship, satisfaction with interpersonal relationships, social penetration, intimacy, or love (Murstein, Cerrato, and MacDonald, 1977; Altman and Taylor, 1973; Traupman, 1976).

Within this investigation, three variables--affective modeling, positive sexual messages, and negative sexual messages--were created to indicate parental socialization influences. While all three of these variables had varying degrees of influence on intimacy as depicted by developmental conceptualizations of love, levels of sexual behavior, and satisfaction with one's sex life, affective modeling was most representative of the conceptual approach and had the strongest linkages to the variables concerning the parent-child relationship and student intimacy. Affective modeling was composed of three elements including student desire to be like his/her parents, parental demonstration of affection, and parental expression of feelings, all of which integrated the concepts of interaction, modeling, and social

exchange. Since affective modeling was strongly related to the student's relationship with his/her parents (beta weight for males was .379 and beta weight for females was .414), it appears as if, indeed, the emergent quality of these social interactions and exchanges has resulted in satisfaction with the interpersonal relationship, intimacy, or love between parent and child (Figures 7 and 8).

In addition, there is a significant relationship between affective modeling and sexual satisfaction (beta weight for males was .133 and beta weight for females was .146) (Figures 7 and 8). Although this relationship is not as strong as that between affective modeling and parent relationship, it nevertheless points out the far-reaching effects of inadvertant parental socialization through the processes of interaction, modeling, and social exchange; and the importance of affective modeling to the quality of children's future sex lives.

While some studies have examined parental influence on a variety of specific aspects of sexuality, this study provides a more comprehensive perspective on this complex phenomenon, especially for females. While affective modeling relates positively to the parent-child relationship and student sexual satisfaction, parents also have a negative impact on levels of love and sexual behavior among females. The greater the parental affective modeling, the lower the level of female sexual behavior, and the better the parent relationship, the lower the developmental level of love. These parental influences, however, covary with age or year in school. Thus, as a female becomes older her level of sexual involvement increases toward intercourse and her conceptualization of love progresses from perceiving love as a getting relationship to perceiving love as a giving or sharing relationship. Since coital

involvement is influenced by a low level of parent affective modeling and conceptualizing love as a sharing relationship is influenced by a low level of parent-child relationship, age becomes an important element in parental influence on love and sexual behavior.

These findings relate to an investigation by Smith (1976) in which he assessed the relative explanatory powers of parental "push" and peer "pull" orientations between adolescents and their parents. The "push" explanation proposes that parental failure to meet adolescent needs and to establish a satisfactory parent-adolescent relationship causes adolescents to be less favorably oriented towards parents and more favorably oriented toward peers who hold values different from those of parents (Clausen, 1968; Walters and Stinnet, 1971; Smith, 1976). In contrast, the "pull" explanation suggests that adolescents are induced by the attractions of peers and their activities to become less favorably oriented toward parents (Edwards and Brauburger, 1973; Richer, 1968; Smith, 1976). Smith's findings support the parental push explanation, while lending no support to the peer-group pull explanation of differences in adolescent orientations toward parents. Different orientations toward parents were related in considerable degree to adolescents' perceptions of parents as having provided benefits, as being experts in certain areas relevant to adolescent life, and as being warm.

In relation to the investigation of parental influence on intimacy, Smith's study suggests that parents' inability to meet certain needs of their offspring to establish a positive relationship has inadvertantly resulted in a stronger orientation to peers and their activities. In this study, those activities involve the formation of

interpersonal relationships which include various levels of sexual behavior. With regard to males, parental affective modeling and the student's relationship with his parents have no significant effect on sexual behavior. However, for females parental affective modeling has a negative influence on sexual behavior and the parental relationship has a negative influence on perceiving love as a sharing relationship. These relationships are contingent upon age, as indicated by year in school.

While Smith's study relates to the push and pull of referents during adolescence, the relationship between parents and their children changes as they both grow and change through the course of human life-span development. Although family solidarity has often been considered in horizontal relationships such as the husband-wife dyad, in recent years some researchers have begun to study vertical or intergenerational family solidarity. Bengston and Black's (1973) study of affectional solidarity between the parent and child recognizes that affect for another person is not a unilateral phenomenon, since an individual not only has feelings toward the other person, but he/she also has feelings about the other's feelings toward him/her. The Bengston and Black investigation explored how the increased similarity in social status created by the launching of the child into an adult position of independence and responsibility affects the occasionally strained relations between generations that tend to characterize adolescence. While the results of Bengston and Black's study indicate low solidarity among parents and youth, or those who are least independent of their parents, there is a linear relationship from the lowest to the highest age-group in the degree of perceived affectual solidarity. Thus, the

data suggest an age-related progression in the attribution of positive affect toward the relationship with one's parents.

Since the investigation of parental influence on intimacy involved a sample of college undergraduates who were beyond adolescence and yet, in some cases, not completely launched or independent of their parents, it is possible that the results are being influenced by both the parental push and affectual solidarity phenomena. Not only is the freshman-through-senior age span a short period in an individual's life, but it is also unique in that a student is in a transitional launching phase which can have both strong peer associations and close parental ties.

Parental influence on the intimacy of never-married college students differed for males and females regarding love, sexual behavior, and sexual satisfaction. These differences are indicative of previous research in which females have been found to be more dependent on adult and peer acceptance than males, which probably contributes to a greater degree of conformity and concern with socially desirable behaviors (Kagan, 1964). Thus, females who are close to parents would be more likely to conform to messages of sexual noninvolvement, while the reverse would be true for those who have weaker family ties.

Males, on the other hand, are socialized to be independent of the attitudes of others. Therefore, a male learns to suppress anxiety about any behaviors which would not be socially acceptable, since these reactions are not considered appropriate for males (Kagan, 1964). As a result, males appear to be independent of the positive or negative quality of parental sexual messages, since both messages are positively related to level of sexual behavior. To illustrate, boys are often

given the double message of, "Don't experiment sexually," and, "Of course, a real boy never pays attention to anything anyone tells him" (Walster and Walster, 1978, p. 117). Consequently most males begin sexual exploration fairly early. In contrast, society's message to girls is quite different, "Don't do it!" and, as consequence, women are still considered to be slow starters sexually (Walster and Walster, 1978, p. 118).

These differences between males and females are not only evident in the two path analytic models (Figures 7 and 8), but also in the comparison of significant differences between males and females with regard to the variables used in this study (Chapter III). As reported in Chapter IV, parental influence on male conceptualizations of love, sexual involvement, and satisfaction with one's sex life are minimal. In contrast, for females, parental influence covaries with year in school to influence conceptualizations of love, sexual behavior, and satisfaction with one's sex life resulting in both positive and negative associations. An examination of the following significant male-female differences in the variables of this study bring forth some additional insights regarding the path analytic models for males and females:

--There is a significant difference between males and females in their perceptions of parental expression of feelings. Males, as compared to females, view their parents as being more expressive of feelings (Table 5). Since females are generally socialized to be more expressive of feelings than males, it may be that females' perceptions of parents as being less expressive

are based on higher expectations of parental expressiveness on the part of females.

--There is a significant difference between males and females in their present behavior regarding contact with parents either by telephone calls, letters, or visits (Table 7). Females have a greater contact with parents which coincides with a greater influence of parents on the love, sexual behavior, and satisfaction with their daughters' sex lives.

--There is a significant difference between males and females regarding parental views toward sex and frequency of parental sexual discussions (Tables 8 and 9). Males, as compared to females, perceive their parents as being more liberal and as engaging more frequently in sexual discussions. These differences coincide with the positive influence of the factor, positive sexual messages, upon the sexual behavior of males. There is no such influence for females.

--There is a significant difference between males and females regarding sexual messages of parents to their children. Females, as compared to males, are more likely to perceive that the message, "sex is dangerous," is a major communication from parents (Table 11). Thus, parents appear to be more protective of their daughters regarding the dangers of sex, and as such are perceived by females to be giving stronger negative sexual messages.

--There is a significant difference between males and females regarding both lifetime sexual behavior and current sexual behavior (Table 14). While a larger proportion of males than

females have had coital involvement, a larger proportion of females than males are currently involved in an intercourse relationship. The relationships among these variables could also influence the significant difference between males and females in regard to perceived sexual satisfaction (Table 15). Females report a higher degree of satisfaction with their sex lives than do males which could be indicative of the greater current involvement of females.

--There is also a significant difference between the ages of males and females (Table 3). While increases in age, as measured by year in school, have been found to be an important variable in the path analytic models for males and females (Figures 7 and 8), a difference of .4 years in the mean ages of males and females was not considered to be a major influence on the results of this study. In summary, it is evident that an examination of male-female differences among the variables, as well as the path analytic models indicates that parental influence on love, sexual behavior, and satisfaction with sex lives can be quite different for sons and daughters.

One of the central propositions in this investigation concerned the influence of parents on love and its relationship to sexual behavior and satisfaction with sex life. However, for males, love, as it was conceptualized and measured in this study, was not significantly related to any of the other variables. For females, there was a negative relationship between developmental level of love and parent relationship and a positive relationship between level of love and year in school. What is interesting is that for both males and females, there

was no significant relationship between love and sexual behavior or love and sexual satisfaction. Why this lack of relationship occurred needs to be explored.

One problem is that love is a very elusive concept. Parents rarely give children any specific instructions about the nature of love; instead family ideas about the nature of love and sex are picked up as incidental learning. Children observe what parents say and do in their verbal and nonverbal communications when they kiss, hug, and touch--or fail to touch--one another. Most of the ideas cannot be verbalized by children though, since these events are only dimly perceived and terribly confusing. While ideas of love and sex may be hazy, they are, nevertheless, deeply etched into children's minds where, throughout the lifespan, they have a profound impact on notions about love (Walster and Walster, 1978).

Along with this perceptual confusion during development, characteristically, the word "love" is used often with a wide variety of meanings. When asked to tell what love means, individuals' responses are often obscured by discussions of the object of the love experience, the source of the love experience, the expected benefits or losses, and, more infrequently, the individual's affective response to the experience. Thus, responses can be vague and evasive (Blau, 1972). In addition, many individuals assume love is a very pleasurable state. Love is associated with the joy of loving, and being loved is associated with the pleasure of having someone understand you and sexually communicate with you. However, love may also have unsettling moments, since it can be associated with anxiety, with emotional and sexual longing, and with uncertainty, confusion, and pain. Thus, while love means pleasure for

some, others equate it with pain. These different ideas about love profoundly affect individual's emotions and, ultimately, the personal bonds that are made in the name of love (Walster and Walster, 1975).

In addition to the respondents' possible confusion concerning their answers to an open-ended question on what love means to them, it is also possible that the codes which were based on the developmental levels of student conceptualizations of love did not effectively measure the true nature of the participants' responses. Furthermore, it could be that the interviewers who recorded the respondents' answers to the open-ended question about love were not always able to write down the total response verbatim. Thus, some of the students' remarks might have been misinterpreted or miscoded.

An indication of the weak relationship between love and sexual behavior evolved from examining students' responses to two other questions within the instrument. These two questions were used to determine if the respondents were in love during their first intercourse relationship and their current/most recent intercourse relationship, as well as whether or not the respondents realized they were in love before or after engaging in intercourse. The results, which are presented in Appendix E, indicate the following: 48.5 percent of the males (N = 111) and 20.0 percent (N = 37) of the females were not in a love relationship during their first intercourse relationship; during their current/most recent intercourse relationship, 67.2 percent (N = 154) of the males and 57.4 percent (N = 85) of the females were not in love; and of those individuals involved in a current/most recent intercourse relationship beyond the first intercourse relationship, only 19.2 percent (N = 44) of the males and 28.4 percent (N = 42) of the females

were in love before they had intercourse. Thus, the majority of college students in this study who have been in more than one intercourse relationship were not in love, indicating that for these college students, intercourse relationships can exist without love.

A question that arises is why do students become involved in intercourse without love? According to Walster and Walster (1978), people crave excitement and getting involved in a passionate relationship, in which an individual can experience the delight of really getting to know someone or of exploring a new sexual relationship, is exciting. In a new relationship, an individual can see if he/she will be attractive to someone and can explore another individual's personality to find out what he or she really thinks about things. In addition, sex is exciting. In fact, sex is probably most exciting when there is some novelty in the form of love-making, in the site of love-making, or in the partner (Walster and Walster, 1978).

Consequently, it appears that college students may be seeking new adventures and excitement in which passion and infatuation play more of a central role than developing a deep love attachment in which exchanges and sharing occur. This explanation is similar to the ideas presented in a newspaper article by Dreyfuss (1979). While students find sex partners more easily today than they did in the past and do not feel as guilty about sex as their parents did, couples are having problems forming lasting relationships. Sex is now expected of couples, and it is supposed to be good sex. However, an intimate relationship takes time and involves a complex learning experience between two people. Becoming readily involved in intercourse gives practically no preparation for talking about intimacy and sexuality, and when it comes to

putting in effort to keep the love growing, many couples quit. Therefore, within this study of parental influence on intimacy, the fact that love was not related to sexual behavior and sexual satisfaction may have resulted from a measurement problem regarding students' definition of love and a confusion among students about what love and intimacy really mean. In addition, confining the measurement of sexuality to levels of sexual activity is not sufficient for the development of an understanding of human sexuality and its emotional manifestations.

While there were no conclusive results regarding the relationship of love to other variables, that fact is still a finding and parallels the following quote (Walster and Walster, 1978, p. 1):

Love is such a tissue of paradoxes and exists in such an endless variety of forms and shades that you may say almost anything about it that you please, and it is likely to be correct.

(Henry Finck, Romantic Love and Personal Beauty, 1902, p. 224).

Like love, satisfaction with one's sexual life is another elusive concept. In general, level of satisfaction has been used as a quality-of-life indicator and has been defined by Campbell, Converse and Rogers (1976) as the "perceived discrepancy between aspiration and achievement, ranging from the perception of fulfillment to that of deprivation" (p. 8). Although happiness is used as a synonym for satisfaction, happiness suggests an experience of feeling or affect, while satisfaction implies a judgmental or cognitive experience. Thus, researchers such as Campbell, Converse, and Rogers have chosen to define the quality-of-life experience mainly in terms of satisfaction of needs. Because it is common to evaluate people's lives in terms of their possessions and accomplishments, there is a tendency to forget that satisfaction is a psychological experience and that the quality of

this experience may not correspond very closely to external conditions of life.

Although satisfaction is a difficult concept to measure, in a paper presented to The American Statistical Association, Campbell (1977) referred to a comment once made by John Tukey, saying:

It is often much worse to have a good measurement of the wrong thing than it is to have a poor measurement of the right thing-- especially when, as is so often the case, the wrong thing will, in fact, be used as an indicator of the right thing (p. 1).

There is no doubt that a need exists to refine and extend the measurement of sexual behavior for various age groups, since these data would reveal a great deal. However, there is also a need for a different set of measures to provide information about the subjective experiences of sexual life. These measures will not be very precise or elegant, but their establishment will be an effort to measure the right thing.

While the major factor which influenced satisfaction with one's sex life was sexual behavior, it is important to note that parents also had an influence on sexual satisfaction. For both males and females, parental affective modeling positively and significantly influenced sexual satisfaction. These findings relate to those of Campbell, Converse and Rogers (1976), whose results indicated that close and satisfying family relationships have been found to contribute significantly to overall life satisfaction. Andrews and Withey (1976), in their quality-of-life study, found that one's family life, as well as one's sexual life, were important factors in an individual's personal well-being. Thus, it appears that those students who want to be like their parents and who have parents who demonstrate affection and

express feelings have a higher satisfaction with their sexual lives. While in this study sexual satisfaction was not specifically related to love, it was, nevertheless, the affective modeling by parents which had a direct influence on the sexual satisfaction of their children.

Conclusions

While studies of adolescent sexual behavior tend to rely on a reference group model in which peers are the major influence, the posited model of parental influence on love, sexual behavior, and sexual satisfaction suggests that parents not only influence sexual behavior, but also students' feelings about it. Although this model of parental influence explains only a small portion of the variance, the role of parents in the sexual socialization of their children is still important. In general, the model appeared relatively straightforward for males, but it was much more complicated for females, thereby indicating the various conflicting pushes and pulls of positive and negative influences that for females impinge upon conceptualizations of love, levels of sexual behavior, and perceived satisfactions with sex lives.

Despite the theoretical importance of the relationship of love to sexual behavior and sexual satisfaction, the findings indicated that love had no significant influence on sexual behavior. Although this lack of relationship could be attributed to measurement techniques or the composition of the sample, the absence of a love component could imply that affection is no longer a necessary prerequisite for sexual intercourse. Love was also not significantly influenced by indicators of parental socialization which suggests that modeling, interaction, and social exchanges within the family are not making a major contribution

to the respondents' conceptualizations of love as a sharing relationship. Hence, love remains a complex phenomenon which needs further study.

Parental influence on sexual behavior is quite different for males and females. While discussions of sex within the family are a positive influence on male sexual behavior, parental influence through affective modeling has a negative influence on female sexual behavior. Although the influence of parents on the sexual behavior of college students was significant, as anticipated a large proportion of the variance remains unexplained by the proposed model.

Parents not only influence sexual behavior, but also how students feel about it. Although parental affective modeling had no influence on developmental levels of love, the residual effect of parental expressions of feelings and demonstration of affection made a positive contribution to the respondents' satisfaction with their sex lives. In comparison to males, however, the satisfaction of females with their sex lives was an extremely complex and interesting phenomenon. The direct and indirect influences of parental sexual messages and affective modeling resulted in numerous positive and negative influences that occurred simultaneously. It is the covariation of parental restrictiveness and affective support for females and the dynamics of these interrelations upon the sexual satisfaction of females that is of particular value in understanding parental sexual socialization.

Research studies of the comparative influences on sexual socialization have placed great importance on the peer group, as well as other major influences, while deemphasizing the role of parents. However, in this investigation the main focus was specifically on

parents. Furthermore, this study did not limit its perspective to sexual behavior, but included conceptualizations of love and satisfaction with one's sex life. The variables, age and sex of respondent were also included and found to have a critical impact on the results of this investigation. As a consequence, far greater insight has been gained into the complexity, dynamics, and residual effects of parental influence on conceptualizations of love, levels of sexual behavior, and perceived satisfaction with sex life.

Implications

Exploring parental influence on the intimacy of never-married college students, with respect to love, sexual behavior, and sexual satisfaction, has resulted in the generation of several implications for further research, theory, and family life education.

Research and Theory

An overall research goal would be to develop knowledge and theory regarding parental influence on sexual behavior. These contributions could serve as a guide to young people, parents, policy makers, and educators in assisting individuals to function in ways that are both satisfying to themselves and satisfactory to the larger society. Behaviors that are satisfying to the individual and satisfactory to society are those that are most likely to promote physical and mental health; educational-occupational achievement; economic well-being; and a happy, secure and satisfying family life or interpersonal relationship (Chilman, 1978).

While sexuality has often been considered as somewhat peripheral to well-being, this investigation, as well as other quality-of-life

studies, has indicated that various elements of family influence and sexual behavior are intertwined in both the satisfaction with one's sex life and the quality of one's life. However, perceived sexual satisfaction and quality of life change with variations in external conditions of life and age, as well as with past experiences, current expectations, and future aspirations. Thus, there is a definite need for a multidisciplinary longitudinal study which would examine the development of human sexuality from infancy to adulthood. While cross-sectional research is not as expensive or complex as longitudinal research, some social norms have been changing so rapidly that information gathered cross-sectionally from one age cohort may not provide accurate predictive or retrospective information about another. Retrospective research has a similar problem due to the inaccuracy of recall and the influence of current value systems upon past behavior. In addition, changes in social and cultural norms over time can influence current value systems and perceptions of sexual behavior as evidenced in the two studies by Lewis and Brisset (1967) and Brisset and Lewis (1979). While the earlier analysis found that sex was viewed as work, the more recent investigation reflected a change in orientation in which sex was perceived as play and games.

There are several investigations using college students as respondents, but fewer studies exist among adolescents and other age groups such as younger children and older adults. However, satisfaction with sex life, as well as love and sexual behavior, can change as an individual matures. To illustrate, in one of the few articles that exists on sexual satisfaction, Simon (1975), by interviewing four men on the topic of male sexual satisfaction, points out how perceived

sexual satisfaction can change through time. The following responses were obtained from answers to the question, "We are all constantly maturing and growing older. As you have grown, how has your concept of sexual satisfaction changed?"

Herbert: Between the time I was in college and now, I have changed profoundly. Then I was closer to where the sexual revolution is supposed to be. I was very interested in making out. It was scoring, and I realize how superficial and unsatisfying that was. Now I see that it was little more than organ grinding connected to some silly status game. Since then, I've found how sustaining a long-term relationship can be. I also have a greater idea of the pleasures of security and comfort with someone to whom I am very committed and who is equally committed.

Lionel: My marriage is a very strong marriage, one based on many things more important than sex. Many of our most intimate moments are over the dinner table when we talk to one another. It is not that sex is unimportant, it's just not what intimacy is based on. In the last 15 years I have learned a lot more about sex. My outside experience seem to have helped. I think I have helped my wife be less inhibited. I think I am less intimidated by the conventional rules for what middle-aged, middle-class men should be and do.

Evan: As you grow older, you do mature. At least I hope I have. That means that your sense of a good relationship also deepens. If you don't love, you die. I don't think I understood that when I was younger (p. 52).

Thus, as age increased, concepts regarding love, sex, and sexual satisfaction changed. Since the present study only dealt with a narrow range in the human developmental life-span, it seems apparent that future investigations should cover a broader range of ages including groups below and beyond a college-age sample. In addition, the sample consisted of respondents who had never been married, but there is also a need to study the intimate involvements, love, and sexual satisfaction of married, separated, divorced, and remarried individuals. Furthermore, an emphasis should be placed on developing measurement techniques to

study in greater depth some of the various dimensions of love, sexual behavior, and sexual satisfaction.

There is still a considerable lack of information regarding parental influence on love, sexual behavior, and sexual satisfaction. While data from the individual respondents in this study was valuable, it is recommended that in the future data be obtained from both the parents and study participants, and, if possible, some participant observation of the family might be included. It is also important that investigations continue to examine differences between males and females regarding sexual behaviors, sexual attitudes, and parental socialization. In addition, further studies of family influences on intimacy might include the effects of: (1) family planning values, attitudes, and behaviors of parents; (2) values, attitudes, goals and behaviors of parents with regard to sex roles and sexual behaviors; (3) parents' marital and sexual satisfaction as it relates to children's marital and sexual satisfaction; (4) the family as a support system and influence on self concept; (5) parental attitudes and behaviors with respect to patterns of childrearing; (6) quantity and quality of parent-child interactions including communication, as well as shared interests and activities; and (7) social exchange of resources between parents and children. While there are several other dimensions of parent-child relations that could be examined for their relationship to love, sexual behavior, and sexual satisfaction, the underlying proposition is that parents do have impact on their children's intimacy. Although the measurement of parental influence is difficult because of the embedded nature of parental socialization, it is definitely an area that needs further exploration.

Family Life Education

Sex education has often been the prescribed prevention for early pregnancies, illegitimacy, and early marriage. However, this approach is far too limited, since research shows that sex education programs have had little impact on preventing these behaviors (Chilman, 1978). The healthy development of one's sexuality involves the total development of the individual as a masculine or feminine person, not simply as a person who has specific sexual knowledge. As shown in research, sexual behaviors are linked to several factors such as levels of self-esteem, interpersonal attitudes and skills, family relationships, personal and family values and expectations, membership in social reference groups, and the availability of birth control services (Chilman, 1978). Consequently, the concept of sex education portrays a narrow view of sexuality, focusing on sexual behavior and knowledge, while family life education conceptualizes education as guidance for living within an environmental context of a family group and a rapidly changing society.

This study of parental influence on intimacy has indicated that courses in family life education need to consider the influence of parents, since parents have an inhibiting effect on female sexual behavior along with a positive relationship to male and female sexual satisfaction. Due to the emergence of adolescent sexuality and child bearing as public issues, the schools have expanded their curricular influence into the realm of human sexuality. However, what is happening to the role of the family as an educator and developer of human resources? Will the total investment of the areas of sexual, contraceptive, and family life education within the school system remove the

vital link of contextual familial love, interaction, modeling and personal value systems?

The family is in need of social support to enable it to function as a guide and source of affectual support in the sexual, contraceptive, and family life education of its children. However, parents too often find themselves at the mercy of a society which imposes pressures and priorities that allow neither the time, place, nor arena for meaningful interaction between parents and children. Therefore, sex, contraceptive, and family life education should be an integrative experience for parents, children and the schools. This means breaking down the barriers between schools and families and establishing new flexibility so that parents, children, and teachers can spend time together in meaningful interaction and become acquainted with each others' worlds, values, and knowledge. Thus, the schools will not become the prime sex educators, but they can help facilitate a mutual learning experience and reinvolvement of children and adults in each others' lives.

Another problem with educational programs on sexuality is that they often focus on only one age group, school age children. However, what about the rest of the population? Might a broad-based community program facilitate sexual education, family life education, and interpersonal communication on a developmental life-span basis? Children are not the only ones with sexual questions, desires for sexual information, or problems forming intimate relationships. Preschool children, parents, adults, and senior citizens also have questions and needs regarding intimacy and human sexuality. Consequently, broad-based programs facilitating integration of both males and females of all ages

appear to be more beneficial than segregating children in an educational institutional setting for cognitive sexual learning experiences.

An integrative family life education program does have some inherent problems that need to be resolved, such as scheduling of meeting times; stimulating parent involvement; determining the most effective group composition; and making parents, students, and teachers comfortable in their co-educator roles. While the teacher's role would be more facilitative than educative, teachers often have certain unspoken fears and insecurities when dealing with parents, with some parents feeling the same about teachers. The long separation of family and school is one cause of these feelings, as well as the teachers' cognizance of tenuous job security and the parents' roles as consumers and taxpayers. Although an integrative program, as just described, might be somewhat difficult to organize, the potential rewards for all those individuals involved could be well worth the effort.

Parents today are often blamed for all the problems of their children; however, the parent is usually a ". . . coordinator without voice or authority, a maestro trying to conduct an orchestra of players who have never met and who play from a multitude of different scores, each in a notation the conductor cannot read. If parents are frustrated, it is no wonder; for although they have the responsibility for their children's lives, they hardly ever have the voice, the authority, or the power to make others listen to them" (Kenniston, 1977, p. 18). Schools also receive blame, but their voice is stronger and more powerful and often passes the burden of guilt to the family. Therefore, a policy of integration and communication among parents, children, and schools could help break down some of these barriers, strengthen the

role of the family, and create a synergistic learning experience that could enhance the human resource development, intimate relationships, and quality of life for all those involved.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

COLLEGE LEVEL MALES AND FEMALES REPORTING PREMARITAL
INTERCOURSE AS ILLUSTRATED IN SELECTED STUDIES

APPENDIX A

COLLEGE LEVEL MALES AND FEMALES REPORTING PREMARITAL
INTERCOURSE AS ILLUSTRATED IN SELECTED STUDIES

The following investigations were utilized in Figure 3 to illustrate a long-term trend in the reported incidence of premarital intercourse among college-level students (adapted from Haeck, 1974, with modifications from Kinsey, 1948; Chilman, 1978; and Darling, 1976). Since some of the data were collected over a span of years, the mid-point was used to plot the data year. The information listed for the studies below includes the researchers, the years of data collection, and the proportions of males and females involved in premarital intercourse.

	<u>Researcher</u>	<u>Data Year</u>	<u>% PMI</u>	
			<u>M</u>	<u>F</u>
1.	Dickerson & Beam (1915)	1903	NA	12
2.	Exner (1915)	1915	36	NA
3.	Peck & Wells (1925)	1924	37	NA
4.	Peterson (1938)	1938	55	NA
5.	Bromley & Britton (1938)	1938	50	25
6.	Finger (1947)	1943	45	NA
7.	Kinsey (1948)	1938--1947	49--53	NA
7.	Kinsey (1953)	1938--1950	NA	20--27

	<u>Researcher</u>	<u>Data Year</u>	<u>% PMI</u>	
			<u>M</u>	<u>F</u>
8.	Porterfield & Salley (1945)	1944	32	7
9.	Ross (1950)	1950	51	NA
10.	Ehrmann (1954)	1950	57	14
11.	Reevy (1959)	1951	NA	9
12.	Prince & Shipman (1957)	1957	50	18
13.	Freedman (1965)	1961	NA	22
14.	Robinson, King, Dudley, & Clune (1968)	1965	65	28
15.	Luckey & Nass (1969)	1965	58	43
16.	Keats & Davis (1970)	1967	60	44
17.	Weichman & Ellis (1969)	1967	54	17
18.	Simon, Berger & Gagnon (1972) Carns (1973)	1967	56	32
19.	Bell & Chaskes (1970)	(1958)*	NA	(18)
		1968	NA	29
20.	Christenson & Gregg (1970)	(1958)	(37)	(10)
		(1958)	(50)	(21)
		1968	39	32
		1968	51	34
21.	Lewis & Burr (1975)	1968	60	29
22.	Fujita, Wagner, & Pion (1971)	1968	45	30
23.	Robinson, King, & Balswick (1972)	1970	65	37
24.	Zuckerman (1973)	1970 & 1972	53	40
25.	Vincent & Stelling (1973)	1971	66	48

*Parentheses were used to indicate that the data presented therein were out of sequential order due to the longitudinal nature of the investigation.

	<u>Researcher</u>	<u>Data Year</u>	<u>% PMI</u>	
			<u>M</u>	<u>F</u>
26.	Bauman & Wilson (1974)	(1968)	(56)	(46)
		1972	73	73
27.	King & Sobel (1975)	1972	83	72
28.	Jessor & Jessor (1975)	(1970)	(46)	(51)
		(1971)	(65)	(70)
		(1972)	(74)	(80)
		1973	82	85
29.	Needle (1975)	1973	75	65
30.	Stephenson, Kallen, Darling, Tanas, & Dossey (1977)	1976	65	55

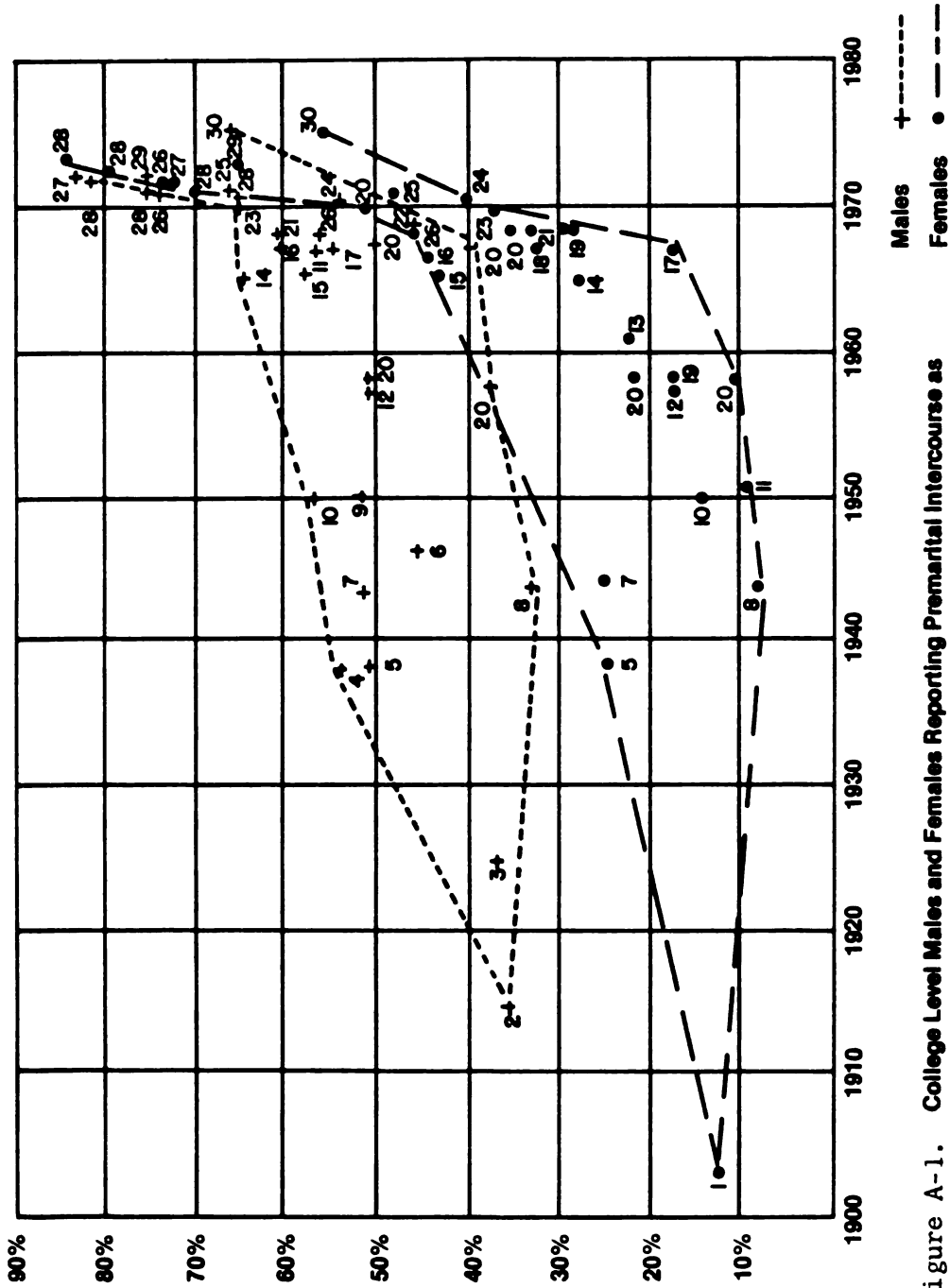


Figure A-1. College Level Males and Females Reporting Premarital Intercourse as Illustrated in Selected Studies
 Percentage Having Premarital Intercourse by Decade and Sex
 Selected Studies: Lines depict high rates and low rates by sex & year
 (Adapted from Haeck, 1974; Kinsey, 1948; Chilman, 1978; & Darling; 1976)

APPENDIX B

DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT

APPENDIX B

DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT

Specific questions from the data collection instrument which were utilized as indicators of variables and to create indices include the following:

Indicators of Parental Socialization

Modeling:

283. Thinking of now rather than high school, how much do you want to become the kind of person your mother is? Would you say . . .
1. Very much like her
 2. Somewhat like her
 3. Neither like nor unlike her
 4. Somewhat unlike her
 5. Very unlike her
 6. Does not apply (no mother)
284. And how much do you want to become the kind of person your father is? Would you say . . .
1. Very much like him
 2. Somewhat like him
 3. Neither like nor unlike him
 4. Somewhat unlike him
 5. Very unlike him
 6. Does not apply (no father)

Expression of Feelings:

325. In general, how easily do you think your mother expresses her feelings?

1. Very easily
2. Fairly easily
3. Somewhat
4. Not so easily
5. Not at all easily

326. In general, how easily do you think your father expresses his feelings?

1. Very easily
2. Fairly easily
3. Somewhat
4. Not so easily
5. Not at all easily

Demonstration of Affection:

IF LIVED WITH ORIGINAL OR ADOPTIVE PARENTS OR OTHER RELATIVES

319. We are interested in how you feel your parents acted towards each other. Some parents feel it is all right to demonstrate their affection for each other in front of their children, while others feel it is proper to be restrained. While you were growing up, about how often did your parents demonstrate their affection for each other in front of you? Would you say . . .

1. Very often
2. Fairly often
3. Sometimes
4. Seldom
5. Never

Contact:

IF RESPONDENT DOES NOT LIVE AT HOME

256. About how many times do you usually go home in a quarter?

1. Never
2. Once
3. Twice
4. Three times
5. Four times
6. Five times
7. Six or more times

257. About how many times in the last month have you called home?

1. Never
2. Once
3. Twice
4. Three times
5. Four times
6. Five times
7. Six to ten times
8. More than 10 times

258. About how many times in the last month have you written home?

1. Never
2. Once
3. Twice
4. Three times
5. Four times
6. Five times
7. Six to ten times
8. More than 10 times

Sexual Views:

328. In your opinion, how would you characterize your mother's viewpoint on sex? Would you say she was . . .

1. Very liberal
2. Fairly liberal
3. In the middle
4. Fairly conservative
5. Very conservative
6. Does not apply (no mother)

329. And how would you characterize your father's viewpoint on sex? Would you say he was . . .

1. Very liberal
2. Fairly liberal
3. In the middle
4. Fairly conservative
5. Very conservative
6. Does not apply (no father)

Sexual Discussion:

322. When you were growing up, about how often was sex the subject of general family conversation? Would you say . . .

1. Very often
2. Fairly often
3. Sometimes
4. Seldom
5. Never

Sexual Messages:

323. We are also interested in the kinds of things your parents communicated to you about sex. These things may have been communicated directly, through talking to you, or indirectly, through what was said about how other people behaved, or the way your parents acted towards you and other people. For each of the following, would you please tell me if it was something major, something minor, or not anything that your parents communicated to you.

	<u>Major</u>	<u>Minor</u>	<u>Not</u>
1. Sex is dirty	1	2	3
2. Sex is fun	1	2	3
3. No nice person has sex before marriage	1	2	3
4. It is all right for males, but not for females to have sex before marriage	1	2	3
5. It is wrong to demonstrate your affection for someone in public	1	2	3
6. Petting can too easily lead to intercourse	1	2	3
7. Nice girls don't enjoy sex	1	2	3
8. Sex in marriage is a woman's duty	1	2	3
9. Sex is a good way of expressing your love for someone	1	2	3
10. There is nothing wrong with sex before marriage if two people love each other	1	2	3
11. Sex is like any other activity that is enjoyable	1	2	3
12. Pregnancy before marriage can lead to terrible things	1	2	3

Parent Relationship

21. How well did you get along with your mother during the last two years of high school? Would you say . . .
1. Very well
 2. Fairly well
 3. Somewhat well
 4. Not too well
 5. Not at all well
 6. Does not apply (no mother)
22. And how well did you get along with your father?
1. Very well
 2. Fairly well
 3. Somewhat well
 4. Not too well
 5. Not at all well
 6. Does not apply (no father)
281. Since coming to college, has your relationship with your mother become better, become worse, or has there been no change?
1. Better
 2. Worse
 3. No change
 4. Does not apply (no mother)
282. And has your relationship with your father become better, become worse, or has there been no change?
1. Better
 2. Worse
 3. No change
 4. Does not apply (no father)

Love

314. What does love mean to you now?

Open-ended question: Codes for the different categories of the definition of love are:

1. Getting
2. Giving
3. Sharing
4. Other
5. Does not know
6. Does not apply

Sexual Behavior

43. Time Line Data:

For each relationship the respondent has been in, indicate the most intimate behavior the respondent has been engaged in by drawing a line opposite the corresponding behavior category over the appropriate time interval. Codes for the different sexual behaviors on this time line are:

1. No date
2. No physical relationship
3. Kissing
4. Light petting
5. Heavy petting
6. Intercourse

Sexual Satisfaction

336. In general, how satisfied are you with your sex life? Would you say you are . . .

1. Very satisfied
2. Fairly satisfied
3. Neither satisfied, nor dissatisfied
4. Fairly dissatisfied
5. Very dissatisfied

APPENDIX C

SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF TOTAL RESEARCH SAMPLE

APPENDIX C

SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF TOTAL RESEARCH SAMPLE

The following tables contain the summary data on variables used in this study for the total research sample.

Table C-1.--Total Research Sample: Age and Year in School.

Characteristics	Males			Females		
	Sub-Sample N=363	Ineligible for Subsample N=58	Total Sample N=421	Sub-Sample N=333	Ineligible for Subsample N=69	Total Sample N=402
<u>Age</u>						
17	12	3	15	13	6	19
18	69	10	79	77	18	85
19	77	7	84	79	7	86
20	76	9	85	73	19	92
21	67	16	83	71	9	80
22	27	6	33	10	5	15
23	19	2	21	6	2	8
24	10	4	14	3	2	5
25	5	1	6	1	1	2
26	1	0	1	0	0	0
Mean	(20.0)	(20.3)	(20.0)	(19.6)	(19.7)	(19.6)
<u>Year in School</u>						
1. Freshmen	80	13	92	75	21	96
2. Sophomore	93	9	102	92	13	105
3. Juniors	96	17	113	79	20	99
4. Seniors	94	19	113	87	15	102
Mean	(2.6)	(2.7)	(2.6)	(2.5)	(2.4)	(2.5)

Table C-2.--Total Research Sample: Students' Perceptions of Parental Modeling.

Statistic	Males N = 421	Females N = 402
Range	2-10*	2-10*
Mean	6.9	6.8
Mode	8.0	8.0
Standard deviation	1.8	1.9
Missing cases	23	27

*Low score indicates low modeling; high score indicates high modeling.

Table C-3.--Total Research Sample: Students' Perceptions of Parental Expression of Feelings.

Statistic	Males N = 421	Females N = 402
Range	2-10*	2-10*
Mean	7.0	6.5
Mode	7.0	6.0
Standard deviation	1.7	1.8
Missing cases	15	18

*Low score indicates low expression of feelings; high score indicates high expression of feelings.

Table C-4.--Total Research Sample: Students' Perceptions of Frequency of Parental Demonstration of Affection.

Response Categories	Males		Females	
	N=421	%	N=402	%
1. Never	8	1.9	20	5.0
2. Seldom	88	20.9	81	20.1
3. Sometimes	126	29.9	103	25.6
4. Fairly often	115	27.3	101	25.1
5. Very often	69	16.4	71	17.7
Missing cases	15	3.6	26	6.5
Mean	(3.4)		(3.3)	
Standard deviation	(1.1)		(1.2)	

Table C-5.--Total Research Sample: Students' Reported Contact with Parents.

Statistic	Males N = 421	Females N = 402
Range	4-19*	4-21*
Mean	9.5	10.7
Mode	9.0	10.0
Standard deviation	2.9	3.1
Missing cases	21	21

*Low score indicates low parental contact; high score indicates high parental contact.

Table C-6.--Total Research Sample: Students' Perceptions of Parental Views on Sex.

Statistic	Males N = 421	Females N = 402
Range	2-10*	2-10*
Mean	5.4	4.7
Mode	6.0	4.0
Standard deviation	1.9	2.0
Missing cases	22	28

*Low score indicates conservatism; high score indicates liberality.

Table C-7.--Total Research Sample: Students' Perceptions of Frequency of Parental Sexual Discussion.

Response Categories	Males		Females	
	N=421	%	N=402	%
1. Never	79	18.8	129	32.1
2. Seldom	222	52.7	184	45.8
3. Sometimes	104	24.7	71	17.7
4. Fairly often	10	2.4	15	3.7
5. Very often	6	1.4	3	.7
Missing cases	0		0	
Mean	(2.2)		(2.0)	
Standard deviation	(.8)		(.8)	

Table C-8.--Total Research Sample: Students' Perceptions of Content of Parental Sexual Messages: Three Factors.

Statistic	Males N = 421	Females N = 401
Factor 1: Sex is a dirty experience		
Range	4-11*	4-12*
Mean	5.1	5.3
Mode	4.0	4.0
Standard deviation	1.5	1.7
Missing cases	0	0
Factor 2: Sex is a dangerous experience		
Range	4-12*	4-12*
Mean	7.6	8.4
Mode	7.0	8.0
Standard deviation	2.0	2.2
Missing cases	2	0
Factor 3: Sex is a positive experience		
Range	4-11*	4-12*
Mean	6.3	6.2
Mode	5.0	4.0
Standard deviation	1.8	1.8
Missing cases	1	0

*The higher the score the more predominant the message.

Table C-9.--Total Research Sample: Students' Perceptions of Relationship with Parents.

Statistic	Males N = 421	Females N = 402
Range	5-14*	5-14*
Mean	11.3	11.1
Mode	12.0	12.0
Standard deviation	1.9	1.9
Missing cases	30	38

*Low score indicates low quality parental relationship; high score indicates high quality parental relationship.

Table C-10.--Total Research Sample: Students' Conceptualizations of Love.

Categories of Definition	Males		Females	
	N=421	%	N=401	%
1. Getting Relationship	144	34.2	118	29.4
2. Giving Relationship	129	30.6	148	36.8
3. Sharing Relationship	106	25.2	111	27.6
Missing cases	42*	10.0	25*	6.2
Mean	(1.9)		(2.0)	
Standard deviation	(.8)		(.8)	

*Missing cases are due to the coding category "other."

Table C-11.--Total Research Sample: Students' Reported Levels of Sexual Behavior.

Index of Sexual Behavior	Males		Females	
	N=421	%	N=401	%
Lifetime Sexual Behavior				
1. No date to kissing	20	4.8	7	1.7
2. Light petting	65	15.4	87	21.6
3. Heavy petting	59	14.0	77	19.2
4. Intercourse	277	65.8	231	57.5
Missing cases	0		0	
Mean	(3.4)		(3.3)	
Standard deviation	(.9)		(.9)	
Current Sexual Behavior				
1. Virgin	144	34.2	171	42.5
2. Nonvirgin--no current involvement	117	27.8	56	13.9
3. Nonvirgin--current involvement	154	36.6	170	42.3
Missing cases	6	1.4	5	1.2
Mean	(2.0)		(2.0)	
Standard deviation	(.8)		(.9)	

Table C-12.--Total Research Sample: Students' Reported Levels of Sexual Satisfaction.

Category of Response	Males		Females	
	N=421	%	N=401	%
1. Very dissatisfied	11	2.6	9	2.2
2. Fairly dissatisfied	60	14.3	36	9.0
3. Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	92	21.9	88	21.9
4. Fairly satisfied	164	39.0	136	33.8
5. Very satisfied	90	21.4	132	32.8
Missing cases	4	1.0	1	.2
Mean	(3.6)		(3.9)	
Standard deviation	(1.1)		(1.0)	

APPENDIX D

CODING PROCEDURES FOR QUESTION ON

CONCEPTUALIZATIONS OF LOVE

APPENDIX D

CODING PROCEDURES FOR QUESTION ON CONCEPTUALIZATIONS OF LOVE

A. Development and Implementation of Coding Categories

The responses to question 314 (What does love mean to you now?) were randomly sampled, recorded verbatim, and submitted to the team of researchers involved in the investigation. After analyzing these responses, a coding scheme was devised and refined during several trial attempts to code this question.* At the training session for the twenty coders, the codes for open-ended questions were explained and examples of ten uncoded responses were given as a coding pretest. The three individuals who could best apply the coding categories and instructions to the sample responses were given the task of coding open-ended questions such as 314. Each coder worked independently and coded all of the 823 interviews. Upon completing the coding for open-ended questions, the coders compared their results. If at least two of the coders were not in agreement, that response was submitted to the research team for a joint discussion and coding decision. Only a minimum number of responses required this backup procedure.

*Factors Influencing Contraceptive Use. "Directions to Coders-- Questions #65, 66, 314 (Definition of Love), Internal Document," 1977.

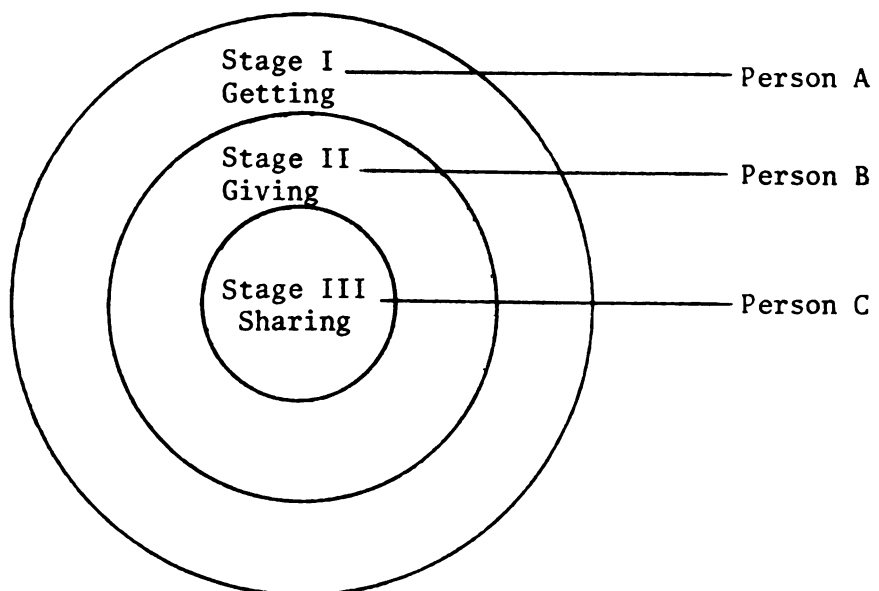
B. Coding Categories

A love relationship is a developmental social phenomenon which can be conceptualized in three stages which may or may not overlap. Each stage would represent a certain type or level of thinking regarding the relationship. Thus, love may be viewed as:

- a. A Getting Relationship
- b. A Giving Relationship
- c. A Sharing Relationship

A getting relationship would include definitions of love which would highlight self-interest and in some cases, selfishness; a giving relationship would focus on concern for the other partner; and a sharing relationship would focus on a shared or mutual concern in the relationship.

As an illustration, a love relationship could be represented by a configuration of concentric circles.



In order to become involved in a love relationship, a person first enters Stage I (Getting). This individual may or may not proceed to Stage II (Giving), and may or may not proceed to Stage III (Sharing), depending on how he/she regards the essence of a love relationship (i.e., getting, giving, or sharing). For example, Person A enters and remains in Stage I. This person conceptualizes a love relationship as a getting relationship. Person B enters Stage I and proceeds to Stage II, because this individual would have developed a conceptualization of love as a giving relationship. Since Person B first entered Stage I before getting to Stage II, his/her definition of love may also include a getting response. In this case, the getting element of B's response would be disregarded, since only the highest level of response is to be recorded. Person C enters Stage I, proceeds to Stage II, and eventually enters Stage III. This individual would regard love as a sharing relationship. Since Person C progresses through all three stages, his/her conceptualization of love may also include a getting response, a giving response, or a combination of both responses, however only sharing, which is the highest level of response, will be recorded.

Examples of each of these stages are illustrated as follows:*

GETTING

A getting definition of love includes elements which imply or reveal aspects of only getting or gaining from a relationship. The focus in this definition is self interest and what the respondent can get from the relationship without regard for what his/her partner

*Examples were drawn from a ten percent random sample of responses to question 314 and were recorded verbatim.

may get. The elements of this definition can be explicitly or implicitly expressed.

Examples of definitions with elements explicitly expressed.

1. When someone gives you the feeling that you could marry them and be happy.
2. He was what I always wanted, and considerate to me, and showed interest in me.

Examples of definitions with elements implicitly expressed:

1. Feel good about him.
2. Wanted to be with that person often.
3. Security.

(These three examples imply that an individual who is with a person who he/she loves, will feel good or secure.)

GIVING

A giving definition of love includes elements which imply or reveal aspects of giving in a relationship. The focus of such a definition is what the respondent can give to his/her partner. A giving definition may also include elements which imply or reveal getting, but such a definition should always be coded as giving.

Examples of giving definitions:

1. Caring about that person as much as or more than yourself.
2. Caring so much about someone you would do anything for them.

Examples of giving definitions with elements of getting:

1. A feeling that I wanted to be with him all the time and to be a major part of what he did. I wanted him to be a major part of what I did.
2. Love means totally trusting someone else with all that I have, including my life and that these feelings are reciprocated.

SHARING

A sharing definition of love includes elements which imply or reveal aspects of sharing in a relationship. The focus of this definition is on what both partners do or share together. This sharing definition may include elements of the other two types (getting, giving, or a combination of both), but since it also includes elements of sharing, it will be coded as sharing.

Examples of sharing definitions:

1. Strong commitment to share things, be faithful, to understand where each other is at.
2. Enjoying each other's company--having common interests--doing activities together. Being sensitive to each other's wants and needs. Being perceptive to know when the other person is down or depressed.

An example of a sharing definition with elements of getting:

1. Wanting to be with a person because you are both mutually attracted, compatible and share same interests. Sexually attracted to them, possible to have meaningful relationship. You can trust them and confide in them.

An example of a sharing definition with elements of giving:

1. An emotion, feeling, state of being, all encompassing. A desire to be with, share, care and worry about someone or some-ones. Love can be more universal, more humanitarian concern depending on whether it is a one to one "in love" state or a more general love of mankind.

An example of a sharing definition with a combination of getting and giving elements:

1. Mutual caring and trust, want to spend your time with that person; accept you for what you are; don't laugh when you do something dumb; care enough about the other person that you could let them go if it was for them, unselfish.

Note: Not every definition which includes the key word "sharing" will be classified into the sharing category.

Example:

1. A feeling I got as soon as I met him. Wanting to be with him and sharing my feelings with him X years.

(The word sharing in this example is used in the context of "telling him: or "communicating to him" and does not imply the true meaning of sharing. This example should be classified into the getting category.)

OTHER

A definition of love which does not include elements of getting, giving, or sharing should be classified into the "other" category.

Examples:

1. Too hard to say. When I realize that I like them despite their bad qualities.
2. I can't explain it. An all encompassing feeling.

DO NOT KNOW

This category is different from the "Other" category. In this category the respondent should have explicitly expressed that he does not know or that he does not have any ideas about what love is.

Examples:

1. I do not know. I think I've been in love twice, but I do not know.
2. I do not think I quite understand the meaning of it.
3. Don't know, never been there.
4. I don't know, either you know it or you don't.

C. Coding Instructions

Read the answer to question 314, either focusing separately on each phrase and sentence or concentrating on the content of the entire message. Decide which of the following categories applies to the response, and code it with the corresponding numerical value:

1. Getting Relationship
2. Giving Relationship
3. Sharing Relationship
4. Other
5. Do not know
9. Does not apply

APPENDIX E

INDICATORS OF RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
INTERCOURSE AND LOVE

APPENDIX E

INDICATORS OF RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
INTERCOURSE AND LOVE

Questions:

FOR THOSE WHOSE FIRST INTERCOURSE WAS IN A LOVE RELATIONSHIP

Sometimes people realize they are in love with someone before they first have intercourse, while sometimes they don't realize they are in love until after they have intercourse with them. How about you? Did you realize you were in love with this person before, or not until after you first had intercourse?

1. Before
2. After

FOR THOSE WHOSE CURRENT/MOST RECENT INTERCOURSE IS/WAS IN A LOVE RELATIONSHIP

Sometimes people realize they are in love with someone before they first have intercourse, while sometimes they don't realize they are in love until after they have intercourse with them. How about you? Did you realize you were in love with this person before, or not until after you first had intercourse?

1. Before
2. After

Results:

Table E-1.--Students Reporting Being in Love or Not Being in Love During Their First Intercourse Relationship and Their Current/Most Recent Intercourse Relationship.

Love Status	Males		Females	
	N	%	N	%
<u>First Intercourse Relationship</u>				
In Love Relationship	118	51.5	148	80.0
Love Before Intercourse	(102)	(86.4)	(131)	(88.5)
Love After Intercourse	(16)	(13.5)	(17)	(11.5)
Not in Love Relationship	111	48.5	37	20.0
Total	229	100.0	185	100.0
<u>Current/Most Recent Intercourse Relationship</u>				
In Love Relationship	75	32.8	63	42.6
Love Before Intercourse	(44)	(58.7)	(42)	(66.7)
Love After Intercourse	(31)	(41.3)	(21)	(33.3)
Not in Love Relationship	154	67.2	85	57.4
Total	229	100.0	148	100.0

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