EXTERNAL FACTORS IN MARRIAGE INSTITUTION: A SOCIO-ECONOMIC STUDY OF MARRIED COUPLES ACROSS SIKKIM

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DECLARATION

I declare that the thesis entitled **"External Factors in Marriage Institution: A Socio-Economic Study of Married Couples across Sikkim"** submitted to Department of Economics, Sikkim University for the degree of Master of Philosophy. The research work brings to the light the results of an original investigation made by me and it is authentic in nature. The thesis is work of my own and has not been submitted for any other degree of this University or any other University.

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CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the thesis entitled **"External Factors in Marriage Institution: A Socio-Economic Study of Married Couples across Sikkim"** submitted to Department of Economics, Sikkim University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of **Master of Philosophy in Economics**, embodies the result of bona fide research work carried out by **Mr. Kul Bahadur Chettri** under my guidance and supervision. He has fulfilled the requirements relating to the nature, period of research and presentation of seminar talk etc.

It is also being certified that the research work brings to the light the results of an original investigation made by **Mr. Kul Bahadur Chettri** and no part of the thesis has been submitted for any degree, diploma, associate-ship and fellowship.

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CHAPTER - I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introductory View

Marriage is the legalising of a relationship in general, between a man and a woman to which the society gives its approval. It places each partner under legal and social obligations to oneself and to the society. Marriage is a union of a man and woman who agree to live together as husband and wife (Nwoye, 1991)[1]. It means a commitment; a person in love usually wants assurance from the partner. Marriage is a sacred and a permanent contract which is assumed to be enacted when the two people (usually a man and woman) decide in their own accord for the purpose of promoting mutual welfare as persons in marital journey through life (Dreyer, 1992)[2].

The success or otherwise of the institution of marriage depends on a number of associated external factors like the existence of trust and companionship among the partners in marriage, the amount of comfort they experience as individuals with one another, the extent of understanding and the amount of space they give to another. In addition, attributes like comparability in terms of social, economic and cultural background can also play a significant role with regard to the longevity of a marriage. An obvious factor impacting the success of any marriage is the ability of each partner to take care of the sexual needs of the spouse. The absence of one or more of these factors can affect the compatibility of the people involved, and in the worst case, can result in either or both drifting towards extramarital relationships.

Extramarital Relationships (EMRs) on the other hand are one of the problems generally observed in a problematic marriage. The concept “extra-marital” affair is seen as the marital contamination by adding a foreign substance to water down or destabilise marriage. Bassard (1995)[3] defines a marital problem (problematic marriage) as a break down in the communication among couples which results from arguments in the form of verbal argument, physical aggression, psychological, emotional and physical separation, all of which may lead to an end in divorce. Extramarital relationships are thus described as the emotional adultery that culminates in

[1] Nwoye, A.(1991) Marriage and Family Counseling. Job: Fab Anieh (Nig) Ltd.

[2] Dreyer, L.L. (1992) Sex Roles and Marriage among Youths in the 1970’s.

[3] Bassard, J.H. (1995) Why Marriage Go Wrong. Loskegas: Ronald Press.

physical sex or long term love. It is an unlawful relationship engaged in by a spouse outside his/ her marriage.

Extramarital relationships occur when a married person engages in sexual activity with someone other than his or her spouse. From a different perspective, it also applies to a single person having affair with a married person. Engagement in extramarital relationships has been associated with individuals who have a higher libido than their partner. Where extramarital sexual relations breach a sexual norm it may also be referred to as adultery, fornication or infidelity. Those terms may also carry moral or religious consequences in civil or religious law. All individuals have their own perceptions of what marital infidelity means. To some it is having a sexual relationship outside of the marriage. To others, having an emotional relationship with the opposite sex is considered marital infidelity as well.

Extramarital relationships have become a common occurrence in modern society. It has been an increasing factor of modern conjugal life. While the phenomenon has been commonly observed in case of the developed world with its greater degree of affluence and economic independence of women, it has been slowly but surely becoming a feature of married couples in India. Some of the commonly cited reasons for this include the rise in income earning abilities of the salaried classes, greater participation of women in the workforce and increasing influence of 'western' lifestyles on the Indian populace. While the prevalence of extramarital relationship is commonly associated with the upper and middle classes in India, it is not that the phenomenon does not exist in case of economically less secure sections of society in India. In the north-eastern parts of India the occurrence of such relationships is a common phenomenon, though its acceptance by society in general is not clear. This region offers a unique perspective compared to the rest of the country since the women here play a more pro-active role with regard to earning of livelihood. Thus, compared to the rest of the country, where married women are dependent on their husbands for their upkeep, in Sikkim women are apparently economically more secure.

Extramarital relationships could be caused as a result of something the couples did or something they ought to do but fail to do them. There are several factors responsible for extramarital relationships which include; material and psychological deprivation, breaking in communication, sexual incompatibility, unemployment, childlessness, differences in interest, age at a marriage. A marriage without communication is liable to crawl and experience extramarital relationships.

Olayinka (2000)[4] expressed that lack of adequate communication between husband and wife may lead to marriage instability. Sexual incompatibility is also another cause of an extramarital relationship, it tends to foster instability. Also, Akinbodunse (1996)[5] worked on determinant of marital conflict of couples in Ondo; the finding revealed that unemployment and financial problems, of the husband has a significant role on the determination of marital conflict which is just an aspect on the causes of marital conflict. Ogundana (1998)[6] study on causes marital instability as expressed by couples Ilorin also found financial problem and extramarital relationships by couples to have a significant effect on marital instability. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, for marital relationship which is the vacuum this study tends to fill. Olayinka expatiated further that if a wife deprives her husband sexually, he may retaliate by not having sex with her again. Thus husband might resorts to flirting among other women.

Extramarital relationships can hurt children, along with the marriage and the family. The percentage of affairs with a co-worker has also increased. Dr. Shirley Glass(1977)[7], a marriage and family therapist in her practice over the last two decades found that 46 per cent of unfaithful wives and 62 per cent of unfaithful husbands had affairs with someone at work. An extramarital relationship may happen when there is frequent interaction with coworkers through interest or pressure over a project. Physical attraction is also a factor, and people start to share more of time alone with the person(s) they work with. Emotional intimacy may develop leading to relationships. When people have an affair, they no longer spend time working on their marriage. Extramarital relationships can eventually destroy a marriage, even a good marriage.

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[4] Olayinka, M.S. (2000) Sex Education and Marital Guidance. Yaba: Lantern books

[5] Akinbodunse, I.A. (1996) Determination of Marital Conflict as Perceived by Couples in Ondo. Unpublished M.Ed. Project, University of Ilorin

[6] Ogundana, J.S. (1998) Factor Responsible for Marital Instability as Expressed by Couples in Ilorin. Unpublished project, University of Ilorin.

[7] Shirley P. Glass and Thomas L.Wright (1977) The Relationship of Extramarital Sex, Length of Marriage, and Sex Differences on Marital Satisfaction and Romanticism: Athanasiou's data reanalyzed. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 39(4): 691-703.

Marriage has been becoming increasingly unstable in many developed countries for the past few decades. For example, Lillard and Waite (1990)[8] suggest that two thirds of the first marriages in the United States end in divorce and that remarriage with new partners are not less prone to dissolution. Indeed, divorce is one of the salient features of modern life that has important implications for many areas of social sciences and public policy.

Economists and other social scientists suggest a variety of socio-economic factors that determine marital disruption. Among others, the existing literature that is most related to this study includes Weiss and Willis (1997)[9] and Boheim and Ermisch (1999)[10], who extend Becker et al. (1977)[11] and investigate how marital dissolution may result from the deviation between expected and ex post realisation of uncertain events. In particular, they find that an unexpected increase in the husband's earning capacity reduces the divorce hazard, while an unexpected increase in the wife's earning capacity raises the divorce hazard.

Infidelity has been shown to have severe negative effects on a marriage, including depression and divorce. Several studies were presented that confirm the harmful effect on marriages.

This study has been strongly influenced by the pioneering work by Ray Fair (1978)[12]. Fair stated that people value variety in their lives. He thus argued that an extramarital affair can be positive to the utility of a person. A model is used which considers the utility from different variables, such as the utility from work, spending time with the spouse and spending time with someone other than the spouse.

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[8] Lillard, Lee A. and Linda Waite (1990) Determinants of Divorce. Social Security Bulletin, 53(2): 29-31

[9] Weiss and Robert J. Willis (1997) Match Quality, New Information, and Marital Dissolution, *Journal of Labour Economics*, 15(1): S293- S329

[10] Boheim and John Ermish (1995) Breaking Up-Financial Surprises and Partnership Dissolution. Mimeo, University of Essex.

[11] Becker et al. (1997) An Analysis of Marital Instability. *Journal of Political Economy*, 85(6): 1141-1187

[12] Fair, R (1978) A Theory of Extramarital Affairs. *Journal of Political Economy*, 86: 45-61

1.2 Brief Objectives of the Study

The following are the main objectives of the present study.

- ✓ To understand the external factors in the institution of marriage in Sikkim from socio economic perspectives.
- ✓ To know which particular sex has dominated in such relationships across Sikkim.
- ✓ To make a comparative study of extramarital relationships between rural and urban, male and female respondents of Sikkim.
- ✓ To identify the factors that lead to extramarital relationships in Sikkim and to know the impact of socio-economic factors like same caste between respondent and spouse, respondent's age, respondent's age squared, years of married, income of the respondent, age difference between respondent and spouse, number of children, asset order, financial satisfaction, partner satisfaction, mutual understanding, consumption of smoke and drink, caste, religion and educational qualification etc. on extramarital relationships.

CHAPTER - II

A BRIEF SURVEY OF EXISTING LITERATURE, RESEARCH GAP AND JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

2.1 Review of Existing Literature

Any type of proper research activity requires the consideration of the work in the related areas so as to identify the research gap, if any, and/or to establish the focus of the present activity. In case of the present work, even though the area is somewhat controversial and may even be considered taboo in several parts of the world, there is no dearth of interesting work in this area. The following section identifies some of the more relevant research output in the present area.

Ellis (1968) contests the view held by the psychologist and sociologist that extramarital relations constitute deviant behavior, while admitting that there is clinical evidence in favour of the same. Postulating that reasons for this kind of behaviour can include good and bad, as well as healthy and unhealthy factors, the author proceeds to consider the various components under each type.

Gary S. Becker (1973, 1974, 1981), explained family as a group of people united in an established arrangement in the market with a view to maximizing their own welfare and production of their own commodities in marriage. The best allocation is a result of the balance of well-being of the couple, where preferences are harmonic and maximized. The great incentive of marriage is the production of marital-specific capital, capital that is specific and exclusive to each marriage. The relationship will last while the cost-benefit relationship is favorable and separation will only exist if the compensation of staying married is lower than that of being divorced.

One of the most obvious candidates for predictors of infidelity is the quality of the marital relationship. Among all possible relationship variables, the most commonly examined predictor is marital satisfaction. Glass and Wright (1977) found that affairs were more common among men who were dissatisfied early in the marriage and more common among women who were dissatisfied later in the marriage. Petersen (1983) found that women's sexual dissatisfaction with the marriage was linked with infidelity likelihood, but men's infidelity likelihood was unrelated to the quality of marital sex. Glass and Wright (1977, 1992), however, provide some evidence

that dissatisfaction with marital sex is associated with an increased likelihood that men will commit sexual infidelity.

Fair (1978) hypothesised that extramarital relationships occur because of a lack of variety in an individual's life which leads them to seek satisfaction from other lovers besides their spouse. Based on this hypothesis, individuals who desire to engage in an extramarital affair should desire to have more numerous and diverse experiences (sexual or otherwise) than those who are uncommitted (single). This is likely to occur because of the perception of repetition in a committed relationship and the resulting attempts to escape the perceived monotony. In addition, the Internet is playing a major role in modern extramarital relationships by allowing them to occur with greater anonymity and convenience than ever before.

Hartneet and Wollman (1979) feel that it is relevant to look into the dynamics of relationships as well as how the individuals are perceived by others. This was a follow up to an earlier effort by Hartnett et al. which found that one of the variables influencing perception was weather the spouse engaging in the relationships was in love or not. This follow up study extended the perception of engaging in extramarital relationships. The result indicated that the perception regarding both husbands and wives was lover when either of them was in love with the 'third party'. Another factor affecting the perception of the wife and the 'third party' was the presence of children. The sex of the perceiver was also a factor as males tended to be sympathetic with the 'other man' while women felt similarly for the 'other woman'.

Taylor (1982) argued the needs of the extramarital relationship often have very little done with sex. For instance, one might engage in extramarital activity for affection, attention, recognition, friendship, or to relieve loneliness. All of these are characteristics affecting personal fulfillment.

Thompson (1984) reported that men reported being sexually but not emotionally involved more than women, confirming the stereotypical viewpoint that men have more sexually driven extrarelational involvements than do women. Similar results were reported by Sheppard et al. (1995) revealing that a higher percentage of men than women had engaged in sexual behaviors of infidelity, while a higher percentage of women reported engaging in emotional behaviors of infidelity (Sheppard et al., 1995).

Pestrak et al. (1985) have utilised a study of existing literature for looking into different motivational and perceptual aspects among spouses for engaging in sexual activity outside marriage. They also discuss the implications for both research and treatment.

Lillard and Waite (1990) suggested that two thirds of the first marriages in the United States end in divorce and that remarriage with new partners are not less prone to dissolution. Indeed, divorce is one of the salient features of modern life that has important implications for many areas of social sciences and public policy.

Marett (1990) points out that therapist tend to ignore the dynamics of the relationship between the spouses as well as that between the involved spouse and the lover. Expanding that both have distance- regulating function, they need to be assessed for effective treatment of the problem. The author provides a birelationl model using a functional family therapy approach. He is of the view that the model provides a more thorough assessment of extramarital relations and, hence can be more effective with regards to intervention and treatment.

Becker (1991) emphasized that age is often related to the length of marriage. Hence, age is positively related to specific investment in a marriage and may also signify the length of time out of the labor force for women.

Reibstein and Richards (1993) identify four separate marital dimensions: ―public (life as a couple in the public sphere), ―practical (duties requiring a couple‘s division of labour, i.e: cooking, cleaning, and childcare), ―emotional (friendship, emotional and intellectual connectedness) and ―sexual (sexual frequency and satisfaction). Discontent in any one of these areas may be motivation for engaging in an affair, but does not necessarily mean it will lead to infidelity. Couples can be satisfied in one area, but not another. Conversely, one could be satisfied in all areas of the relationship, yet still have an affair. The purpose of the affair then tends to be more about self-awareness or self-discovery, than it is to fulfill a marital dysfunction, as couples only expect certain things from their spouse, not everything (Reibstein & Richards, 1993).

Forste and Tanfer (1996) concluded that education has a significant correlation with infidelity in married women who are differ in case of degree and their partner’s education level. More specifically, they found that if a married woman is more educated than her partner, it is more likely to be unfaithful in her marriage compare with a woman with lower education level than

her partner. Collectively, the data from previous studies showed that people with highly level education are more probable to engage in infidelity.

Wiederman (1997) also found that those residing in urban areas demonstrated higher rates of extramarital sex. Treas & Giesen (2000) noted that this might be due to the larger pool of potential partners, increased opportunity, and greater anonymity associated with living in an urban area.

Weiss and Willis (1997) also showed that couples sort into marriage according to the characteristics such as similar religion, ethnicity and education to enhance their marriage quality and stability. Indeed, the marriage quality in modern societies stems mainly from a couple's "spiritual consumption". For example, Posner (1992, p.435) describes the modern norm of marriage as "companionate marriage" with the following characteristics: "…. *In which the husband and wife are best friends, social and emotional intimates, close companions*…." This description clearly indicates that the non-pecuniary aspects of marriage life are of utmost importance for modern couples.

Wiederman (1997) reported that men were more likely than women to report ever having had extramarital sex. The lifetime incidence also indicated an increase for men with age. Wiederman further stated that women had their greatest incidence for extramarital sex between the ages of 30 and 50. Evans and Bloom (1996) reported that women may be more adversely affected by their parents' divorces than men. Wiederman (1997) reported that men were more likely than women to report ever having had extramarital sex. The lifetime incidence also indicated an increase for men with age. Wiederman further stated that women had their greatest incidence for extramarital sex between the ages of 30 and 50. Evans and Bloom (1996) reported that women may be more adversely affected by their parents' divorces than men.

Weiss and Willis (1997) set up a simple model in which marriage quality enters a couple's utility function. Then, in a framework of rational choice, an individual will choose to divorce if and only if one's expected utility from one's future alternatives after divorce is greater than one's utility from remaining married. An individual's future alternatives include one's perspectives of remarriage; the utility from the current marriage depends on the damage to the quality of marriage due to her/his spouse's extramarital affairs.

Call and Heaton (1997) suggest that regular church attendance of both husbands and wives reduces the likelihood of divorce (also, Schumm, 1985, and White, 1990). However, a big difference in attendance between husbands and wives increases the risk of divorce (Ortega et al., 1988). Moreover, religion often emphasizes the sanctity of marriage and the prohibitions against adultery, both of which serve as barriers to extramarital affairs.
Siow (1998) mentioned that age seems to be particularly important for a woman in the marriage market not only because it is an important determinant of the attractiveness of her looks but also because it greatly affects her fecundity Thus an older woman may face worse perspectives of remarriage, and hence she is less likely to choose to divorce.

Christopher and Speech (2000) suggested that men‘s and women‘s reaction to their spouse‘s affair will differ by gender. They assert that men are more upset about the sexual aspect of their wives‘ affair, while women are more upset about the emotional aspect of their husband‘s affair. Therefore, wives will be less upset with their spouse for having an affair that is just sex‘, rather than an affair that has an emotional component. This suggests there are gender differences with regards to how individuals manage infidelity in their relationships.

Treas and Giesen (2000) conducted a study looking at sexual infidelity among married and cohabiting Americans. The samples used in this study were pulled from 3,432 respondents to 1992 National Health and Social Life Survey. The final analysis focused on 2,598 men and women who reported being married or had lived with a person (in a heterosexual relationship) with whom they had a sexual relationship at one time. Treas and Giesen (2000) found that 15.5 % of married individuals reported having extramarital sex (8% who married without first cohabiting and 11% of those who married after cohabiting together) and 12% of current cohabiters reported extramarital sex.

Feldman and Cauffman (2000) conducted a study whether men commit sexual infidelity more than women, some studies have examined whether men commit more extreme types of sexual infidelity than women. This belief was partially confirmed by a sample of college students in a study conducted by examining five infidelity behaviors, three were acts of sexual infidelity (kissing, petting, and sexual intercourse) and two were acts of emotional infidelity (dating and emotional involvement). The only sex difference that emerged was that men more than women

reported having engaged in extradyadic sexual intercourse. Men and women were similar in dating, emotional involvement, kissing, and petting. Despite the use of similar methods,

Wiederman and Hurd (1999) found multiple significant differences between the extradyadic behavior of men and women, including, kissing and fondling (*d*=. 31), performing oral sex (*d*=. 38), receiving oral sex (*d*=. 48), and sexual intercourse (*d*= .38) indicating that men committed these acts more than women.

Shackelford et al (2000) found that men and women who face different adaptive problems over evolutionary history related to various types of infidelity have different reaction to partner's infidelity. It is more difficult for men to forgive a sexual infidelity than an emotional infidelity and they are more likely to end a current relationship following a partner's sexual infidelity. Hatfield et al. (2001) have dealt with the issue of equity and extramarital sex. The authors are of the opinion that equity theory is useful in understanding the presence of equity in a variety of relationships. They also refer to the belief of equity theorists that equity theory provides insights into what they call as as 'intimate contractual relationships'. The authors claim that considerations of equity can help to determine how willing men and women are to risk extra-marital relationships.

Rekart (2001) identified sexual liaisons occur on three socio-economic levels: (1) with low income sex workers who work on the street; (2) with middle-income sex workers in small restaurants, hair salons, clubs, or cafés; and (3) with high income sex workers in discotheques, night clubs, and other expensive entertainment venues. Another way of classifying relationship levels is to refer to a party girl who is a young and attractive as a "girlfriend" who has no commitment and easily leaves one man for another man, depending on who spends more money on her. The next level involves emotional attachment: a sweetheart or a second "wife."

Scott et al. (2001) have developed and tested a perspective on marital dissolution that gives primary emphasis to the volume of attractive spousal alternatives as a key determinant of the risk of divorce. They refer to this approach as the macro structural- opportunity perspective based on the position that it focuses attention on the opportunities for spouses to form potentially destabilizing opposite- sex relationships that are embedded within macro social structures. Among their objectives they have utilised both waves of the National Survey of Families and Households (NSFH) in conjunction with geo coded census data to examine the impact of the

supply of spousal alternatives in the occupations of husbands and wives. Lastly, they have developed and tested hypotheses about how the effect of spousal alternatives varies by duration of marriage, age at marriage, the number of children present in the household and geographic residence.

Atkins et al (2001) found that highly educated people are more likely to engage in extramarital sex. They concluded that there is a significant relationship between divorce and education levels and the correlation between education and infidelity is only significant for couples who are divorced.

Parker and Wampler (2003) also pointed out that Internet sites run 24 hours a day and give an individual a perpetual opportunity to explore sexual interests. Married individuals can now meet other married individuals looking to have an affair via the internet with a few clicks of a mouse and without the fear of being caught by their spouse.

Mccabe (2004) hypothesised that unless relationships fulfill basic needs for intimacy and companionship then an individual is more likely to seek to escape or end the relationship. This is especially true for women. This is evidenced by the fact that in many countries the majority of divorces are initiated by women (Mccabe, 2004). Mccabe (2004) also pointed out that because humans are social creatures, they may seek to meet their need for intimacy and community at the expense of ending or escaping a perceived monotonous relationship. A single woman, on the other hand, may be more interested in fulfilling the basic biological responsibility of passing on her genetic code and settle for less experiential value in a mate (Mccabe, 2004).

Fan and Liu (2004) have carried out the first empirical study on how the perceived changes of marital satisfaction affect marital stability using a unique data set obtained in Hong Kong. Among their findings, the change of marital satisfaction due to extramarital affairs clearly increases the probability of divorce, but it is not the only determinant of marital instability. In particular, the presence of dependent children in a family and good marital quality before the discovery of extramarital affairs would lower the probability of divorce. The authors also lay down some interesting policy implications.

Li and Racine (2004) examined Fair's model of extramarital relationships and reveal that number of years of marriage is not a relevant predictor for the propensity to engage in extramarital

affairs, while controlling for other factors. As per their admission, this goes against the prevailing wisdom gleaned from misspecified parametric models.

Tran et al. 2006) have shown that approximately 70 percent of Vietnamese husbands have engaged in extramarital relationships. In Vietnam, the concept of extramarital relationship carries a wide range of meanings and implications—including a man going to a masseuse, seeking a sex worker or party girl, having a sweetheart (or sweethearts), and even having a second "wife."

Whisman et al. (2007) have examined predictors of 12-month prevalence of sexual infidelity in a sample consisting of 2291 individuals. The predictor variables were organized into involved partner and extradyadic variables. It was found that the annual prevalence of infidelity was 2.3%. Significant predictor variables included greater neuroticism and lower religiosity (when controlling for marital dissatisfaction and demographic variables); self-esteem and partners' suspected affair (when controlling for demographic variables but not when also controlling for marital dissatisfaction. The association between marital dissatisfaction and infidelity was moderated by Religiosity and wives' pregnancy.

Elsmslie and Tebaldi (2008) identified social class and spouse's educational attainment as underlying factors affecting women's behavior towards infidelity. The educational attainments have no impact of women behavior towards infidelity. These variables are connected to infidelity through their impacts on the individuals' perception of cost and benefits of extramarital relations. The rationale behind this behavior is that the cost of being caught cheating increases as the spouse's educational attainment improves. The study also finds that the men's behavior towards infidelity is affected by their own quality (education) but not by their social class.

Nath (2011) has addressed the issue of how demographic factors have influenced the occurrence of extramarital affairs. Working on the basis of the hypothesis that the number of affairs people have is influenced by demographic features like gender, age, education, occupation, years married, number of children, satisfaction with married life and degree of religiousness, she statistically examines the hypothesis for the study.

2.2 Research Gap and Justification of the Study

After reviewing the literature it was felt that there is a lot of scope for studying the prevalence of extramarital relationships and also for socio economic studies on married couples across Sikkim. The issue of extramarital relationships has been increasing, which can have a major effect on the institution of marriage. In this modern age, the people of Sikkim have been adopting elements of western culture including food habits. There are several reasons for people engaging in extramarital relationships. As Fair pointed out; people want variety in life. A person can spend his/her time with spouse as well as with 'other people', whom Fair addresses as paramours, during office hours or in leisure. Extramarital relationships may create conflict in the family and may ultimately result in divorce, thus affecting the institution of marriage. Through this study, an attempt will be made to find out the causes as well as affects of extramarital relationships along with the external factors in the institution of marriage.

This paper appears to confirm the likelihood of engaging in EMRs is probably affected by a variety of personal factors such as gender, socioeconomic status, and religious behavior. There is evidence for different motivations for having EMRs, including sexual and various emotional motives. However, there has been little consistency in how to define EMRs or in measures used to examine them. Many studies of marital infidelity have also relied on large surveys that produce quantitative data, with little attention paid to qualitatively describing how people conduct themselves in EMRs.

The overall purpose of our study was to examine the practical and emotional experience of having EMRs from the perspective of people who engage in them. Our major goal was to allow people to describe their motivations for EMRs in their own words.

The study intends to cover a wide range of socio-economic perspectives of married couples in Sikkim. As far as the topic is concerned studies have been carried out mostly in developed countries. Such studies are rarely found in India in general and Sikkim in particular.

As mentioned earlier the primary motivation for this study has come from a reading of the paper by Fair on the study of occurrences of extramarital relationships. As Fair pointed out in his paper, the basic unit of a person's life has always been taken to be his or her family, comprising primarily of his or her spouse and children.

1.3 Plan of the Work

Following are the plan of the work of our study.

Chapter -I: Introductory view of Extramarital relationships.

Chapter -II: A brief survey of Existing Literature, Research Gap and Justification of the Study.

Chapter -III: Database and Methodology of the Study.

Chapter -IV: An Overview of the Study Area.

Chapter -V: Results and Discussions.

Chapter -VI: Comparative Study among the Rural and Urban, Male and Female Respondents.

Chapter -VII: Concluding Observations and Policy Prescriptions.

CHAPTER - III

DATABASE AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Sampling Design

The study was carried out in different parts of Sikkim. In each area the respondents were chosen on the basis of both multistage sampling and purposive sampling. Multistage sampling refers to a sampling procedure which is carried out in several stages. The population is first divided into large groups, called first-stage units. These first stage-units are again divided into smaller units, called second-stage units; the second-stage units were again divided into third-stage units; and so on, until we reach the ultimate stage units.

Stages of Sampling Design

MULTI-STAGE SAMPLING:

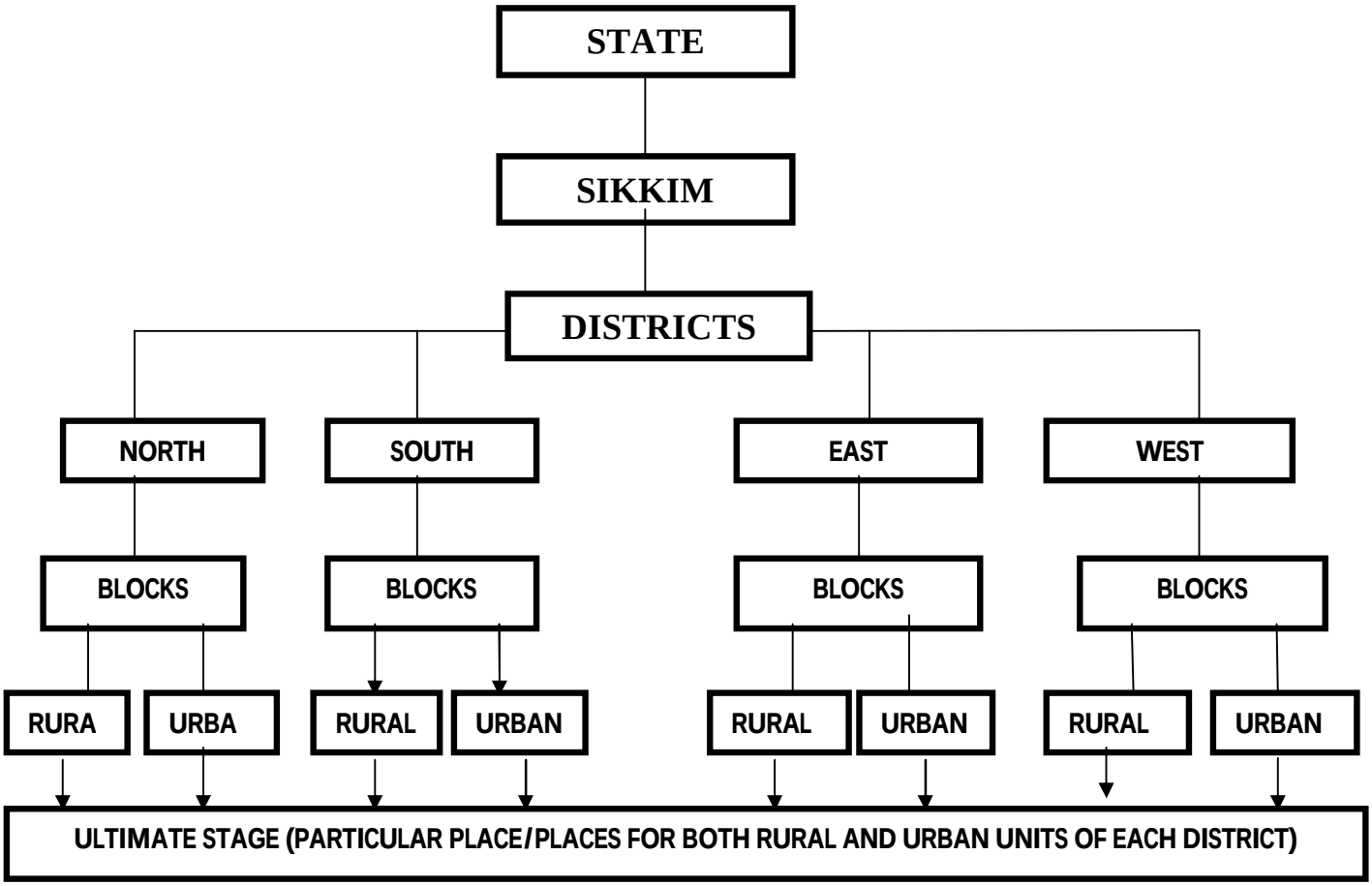

Figure 3.1: Multi-Stage Sampling

So for our study we first selected the state of Sikkim as a whole and then categorise the state into four districts viz., - North, East, South and West. Each district was again divided into blocks or sub-divisions. Finally each block was divided into rural and urban areas. After selecting the ultimate units, the sample from these ultimate units was collected on the basis of both convenience and purposive sampling methods.

The total sample size is 240 consisting of 60 from each district (30 from rural and 30 from urban areas). The sampled observations mostly cover the age group of 25- 45 years.

3.2 Location of the Study Area

The following locations or areas have been selected in order to collect the data on extramarital relationships across different districts of Sikkim. For this purpose we have chosen both urban as well as rural areas from each district. An aggregate of 240 households was selected, consisting of 60 from each district comprising 30 respondents each from urban and rural areas.

Location 1: East District: Gangtok and its surrounding areas, Deorali and Tadong were surveyed for the collection of urban data on extramarital relations. Gangtok is the capital of Sikkim. The distances of the other two areas from the Gangtok are 2 kilometers and 5 kilometers respectively. Rumtek and Ranka which are 28 and 12 kilometers respectively from Gangtok were selected for the rural cases.

Location 2: North District: Mangan, the headquarters of the district, is 65 kilometers from Gangtok, and its nearby places were chosen in order to collect the urban data. For the rural data the areas selected were Lower Singhik and Chungthang. The distances of these areas are 2 and 30 kilometers from Mangan and 68 and 95 kilometers from Gangtok respectively.

Location 3: South District: Namchi, the district headquarters, and Jorethang were the two urban areas of South Sikkim that we have visited for the collection of urban data. Namchi is situated at a distance of 78 km from Gangtok and 90 km from the town of Siliguri in West Bengal. Jorethang is a major town and business hub of South Sikkim because of its proximity to Namchi, Melli, and Singtam and is just 76 km from the Gangtok and 30 km from Darjeeling. And for the collection of rural data we have surveyed Sumbuk and Singithang which are 66km and 68 km from the state capital Gangtok respectively.

Location 4: West District: Gyalshing, the district headquarters and Soreng, a small town in West district were surveyed during the course of field survey in order to captured urban data.

The distance of Gyalshing from the Gangtok is 117 km while that of Soreng is 104 km. Rural data has been collected from Kyongsha and Langang which are just 1km and 3km away from Gyalshing and 118km and 120 km from the Gangtok respectively.

3.3 Data Collection

Primary data was collected on the basis of the pre-structured questionnaires directed towards the stakeholders with regards to extramarital relationships in Sikkim. In addition, various secondary sources like reports of the government, NGOs, courts, police stations etc was utilised for the study.

3.4 Data Analysis

The following analytical tools were used for the study:

(i) Pair-Wise Correlation Coefficient: In order to see the degree of association between the two variables we have used pair wise correlation coefficient. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, often shortened to Pearson's correlation is a measure of the degree and direction of association that exist between the two variables. The value of the correlation coefficient ranges from -1 for a perfect negative linear relationship to +1 for a perfect positive linear relationship. A value of 0 (zero) indicates no relationship between the two.

The pair-wise correlation among regressors helps to detect the problems of multicollinearity. If the pair-wise correlation between two variables is more than ± 0.65 it may indicates the presence of a multicollinearity problem. In such a situation it may not be right to consider both variables as independent variables in the same equation. Instead one variable may be considered, while the other variable could be dropped.

(ii) Probit Model: In statistics, a probit model is a type of regression where the dependent variable can take only two values, for example married or not married. The name is derived from *probability* + *unit*.[13] The purpose of the model is to estimate the probability that an observation with particular characteristics will fall into a specific category; moreover, if estimated probabilities greater than 1/2 are treated as classifying an observation into a predicted category, the probit model is a type of binary classification model.

[13] *Oxford English Dictionary*, 3rd ed. s.v. *probit* (article dated June 2007): Bliss, C. I. (1934). "The Method of Probits". *Science* **79** (2037): "These arbitrary probability units have been called 'probits'."

The probit model is a popular specification for an ordinal [14] or a binary response model. As such it treats the same set of problems as logistic regression using similar techniques. The probit model, which employs a probit link function, is most often estimated using the standard maximum likelihood procedure, such an estimation being called a probit regression.

Probit models were introduced by Chester Bliss in 1934[3] a fast method for computing maximum likelihood estimates for them was proposed by Ronald Fisher as an appendix to Bliss' work in 1935.[4]

Suppose the response variable Y is *binary*, that is it can have only two possible outcomes which we will denote as 1 and 0. For example Y may represent presence/absence of a certain condition, success/failure of some device, answering yes/no on a survey, etc. We also have a vector of regressors X, which are assumed to influence the outcome Y. Specifically, we assume that the model takes the form

$$\Pr(Y = 1 \mid X) = \Phi(X'\beta),$$

Where Pr denotes probability and Φ is the Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF) of the standard normal distribution. The parameters β are typically estimated by maximum likelihood.

It is possible to motivate the probit model as a latent variable model. Suppose there exists an auxiliary random variable

$$Y^* = X'\beta + \varepsilon,$$

where $\varepsilon \sim N(0,\ 1)$. Then Y can be viewed as an indicator for whether this latent variable is positive:

$$Y = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } Y^* > 0 \ \text{ i.e. } \ -\varepsilon < X'\beta, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The use of the standard normal distribution causes no loss of generality compared with using an arbitrary mean and standard deviation because adding a fixed amount to the mean can be compensated by subtracting the same amount from the intercept, and multiplying the standard

[14] Ordinal probit regression model UCLA Academic Technology Services http://www.ats.ucla.edu/stat/stata/dae/ologit.htm

deviation by a fixed amount can be compensated by multiplying the weights by the same amount.

For examining the probability of extramarital relationships we used the probit model which takes the binary response variable assigning $EMA_i = 0$ for individual who did not have any relationships and $EMA_i = 1$ for those who had such relationships. The model uses multivariate analysis to determine if demographic and economic characteristics of the sample population influence the probability of extramarital relationships people have. Here, 'probability of extramarital relationships' is used as the dependent variable, while same caste between respondent and spouse, respondent's age, respondent's age squared, years of marriage, income of the respondent, age difference between respondent and spouse, number of children, asset order, financial satisfaction, partner satisfaction, mutual understanding, consumption of smoke and drink, caste, religion and educational qualification etc. are used as the independent variables.

The relevant equations for the probit model are as follows:

$$EMA_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Samecaste_i + \beta_2 Rage_i + \beta_3 Ragesq_i + \beta_4 Yrsmarried_i + \beta_5 Lnymodi_i + \beta_6 Agedifmf_i + \beta_7 Child_i + \beta_8 Assetorderi + \beta_9 Finsatis_i + \beta_{10} Partnersatis_i + \beta_{11} Dsmoke_i + \beta_{12} Ddrink_i + \beta_{13} Mustanding_i + \beta_{14} Drlc_i + \beta_{15} Hindu_i + \beta_{16} Dgrad + e_i \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots (1)$$

$$EMA_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Samecaste_i + \beta_2 Rage_i + \beta_3 Ragesq_i + \beta_4 Agedifmf_i + \beta_5 Child_i + \beta_6 Assetorder_i + \beta_7 Finsatis_i + \beta_8 Partnersatis_i + \beta_9 Dsmoke_i + \beta_{10} Ddrink_i + \beta_{11} Mustanding_i + \beta_{12} Drlc_i + \beta_{13} Dgrad_i + \beta_{14} Dhindu_i + \beta_{15} Dten_i + \beta_{16} Dtwelve_i + e_i \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots (2)$$

$$EMAi = \begin{cases} 1, & if\ EMAi = 1 \\ 0, & otherwise \end{cases}$$

We have used two equations to study the effect of various variables on extramarital relationships by using a few explanatory variables for these two equations. The reliability of the estimates is examined by changing the explanatory variables. The rationale for running these alternative specifications is to evaluate whether our results are sensitive to the set of variables included in the model.

(ii). Ordered Probit: In statistics, ordered probit is a generalisation of the popular probit analysis to the case of more than two outcomes of an ordinal dependent variable. Similarly, the popular logit method also has a counterpart in the ordered logit.

For example, in the medical area, the effect a drug may have on a patient may be modelled with ordered probit regression. Independent variables may include the use or non-use of the drug as well as control variables such as age and details from medical history such as whether the patient suffers from high blood pressure, heart disease, etc. The dependent variable would be ranked from the following list: complete cure, relieve symptoms, no effect, and deteriorate condition and death.

The model cannot be consistently estimated using ordinary least squares; it is usually estimated using maximum likelihood.

Suppose the underlying relationship to be characterised is[15]

$$y^* = \mathrm{x}' \beta + \epsilon,$$

Where y^* is the exact but unobserved dependent variable (perhaps the exact level of improvement by the patient); x is the vector of independent variables, and β is the vector of regression coefficients which we wish to estimate. Further suppose that while we cannot observe y^*, we instead can only observe the categories of response:

$$y = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } y^* \leq 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } 0 < y^* \leq \mu_1, \\ 2 & \text{if } \mu_1 < y^* \leq \mu_2 \\ \vdots & \\ N & \text{if } \mu_{N-1} < y^*. \end{cases}$$

Then the ordered probit technique will use the observations on y, which are a form of censored data on y^*, to fit the parameter vector β.

In the same way for examining the number of extramarital relationships we use the ordered probit model for which our dependent variable takes dichotomous response variables since the respondent may have no affairs, single affairs, double affairs, triple affairs and so on during the last five years on the same. We have used ordered probit models in the same independent like in probit model.

[15] Greene, William H.(2003) Econometric Analysis (fifth edition), Prentice Hall ,pp 736-740.

In order to make the comparative study among the urban and rural, male and female respondents we also used the Probit and Ordered model by considering the same dependent variable with varying few independents variables. The model for the comparative study is as follows.

$$EMA_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Samecaste_i + \beta_2 Rage_i + \beta_3 Ragesq_i + \beta_4 Yrsmarried_i + \beta_5 Lnymodi_i + \beta_6 Agedifmf_i + \beta 7\ Child_i + \beta_8 Assetorderi + \beta_9 Finsatis_i + \beta_{10} Partnersatis_i + \beta_{11} Dsmoke_i + \beta_{12} Ddrink_i + \beta_{13} Mustanding_i + \beta_{14} Drlc_i + \beta_{15} Hindu_i + \beta_{16} Dgrad + \beta_{17}\ Durban + \beta_{18}\ Sex + e_i \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots (3)$$

CHAPTER - IV

AN OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY AREA

4.1 Brief Descriptions of the State (Sikkim)

For the present study we have selected 'Sikkim' as the study area. Sikkim is a landlocked Indian state located in the Himalayan Mountains. The state is bordered by Nepal to the west, China's Tibet Autonomous Region to the north and east, and Bhutan to the east. The Indian state of West Bengal lies to the south. [16]

Sikkim is the least populous state in India and the second-smallest state after Goa covering approximately 7,096 square km (2,740 sq mi) with 610,577[17] inhabitants as of the 2011 census[18]. Sikkim is the only state in India with an ethnic Nepali majority. Sikkim has 11 official languages: Nepali,Bhutia, Lepcha, Tamang, Limbu, Newari, Rai, Gurung, Magar, Sunwar and E nglish[19,20]

Sikkim's economy is largely dependent on agriculture and tourism, and as of 2012 the state has the third-smallest GDP among Indian states[21], although it is also among the fastest-growing.

Sikkim has four districts – East, North, South and West Sikkim. The district capitals are Gangtok, Gyalshing, Mangan and Namchi respectively. These four districts are further divided into nine subdivisions, viz., Gangtok, Pakyong and Rongli in the East district, Mangan and

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16 "Physical Features of Sikkim", Department of Information and Public Relations, Government of Sikkim. 29 September 2005.

17 Arjun Adlakha (April 1997). "Population Trends: India" . *International brief*. U.S. Department of Commerce. p. 5. Retrieved 4 November 2008.

18 "2011 Census reference tables – total population". Government of India. 2011. Retrieved 16 July 2013.

19 Sonam Wangdi (13 October 2009). "Nepali Language in the Eighth Schedule of Constitution". Retrieved 10 March 2010.

20 Lepcha has been an official language since 1977, Limbu since 1981, Tamang since 1995 and Sunwa since 1996.

21 "State-Wise GDP',. Unidow.com. 2012. Retrieved 1 July 2013.

Chungthang in the North district, Namchi and Ravongla in the South district, and Gyalshing and Soreng in the West district[22].

The study was carried out in all the four districts of Sikkim in order to collect the required data on the prevalence of extramarital relationships in Sikkim. A sample size of 30 households has been selected in each urban and rural area.

Figure 4.1 Map of Sikkim

4.2 Descriptions of the Study Area of East District of Sikkim

The capital of East Sikkim is Gangtok, which is also the state capital. It is the hub of all administrative activities in the state. The East district has a total area of 954 square kilometers with the population of 2, 81,293[23] which is the most populous district of Sikkim. For our study

22 "Sikkim at a glance", Department of Information and Public Relations, Government of Sikkim. 29 September 2005.

23 "District Census 2011". Census2011.co.in. 2011. Retrieved 2011-09-30.

purposes in East district of Sikkim we have collected urban data from Gangtok and its adjoining areas like Deorali, Tadong etc.

Gangtok located in the eastern Himalayan range, at an altitude of 1,650 m (5,410 ft) is a municipality, the capital and the largest town of the Sikkim. It is also the headquarters of the East district where the concentration of population is very high, being inhabited by different castes, religion, communities, ethnicities such as Nepali, Lepchas, Bhutia, Muslims, etc. According to the Provisional Population Totals in the 2011 census of India, the population of Gangtok Municipal Corporation has been estimated to be 98,658. Males constituted 53% of the population and females 47%. The Gangtok subdivision of the East Sikkim district had a population of 281,293. The average literacy rate of 82.17% is higher than the national average of 74%; male literacy is 85.33%, while female literacy is 78.68[24]. Of the total urban population of Sikkim, Gangtok Municipal Corporation has a share of 55.5%. Including Gangtok the East District has a share of 88% of the total urban population.

Ethnic Nepalis, who settled in the region during British rule [25], comprise the majority of Gangtok's residents. Lepchas, native to the land, and Bhutias also constitute a sizeable portion of the populace. Additionally, a large number of Tibetans have immigrated to the city. Immigrant resident communities not native to the region include the Marwaris, who own most of the shops; Biharis, who are employed mostly in blue collar jobs and Bengalis. Hinduism and Buddhism are the most significant religions in Gangtok. Gangtok also has a sizeable Christian population and a small Muslim minority.

On the other hand, the data on extramarital relationships from the rural parts of East district has been collected from Rumtek and Ranka which are a few kilometers away from state capital Gangtok. These villages have old historical monasteries and tamples.

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[24] "Population of Sikkim – 2011 census results". Populationindia.com. 14 May 2011. Retrieved 28 June 2011

[25] "People". Department of Information and Public Relations, Government of Sikkim. Archived from the original on 22 May 2008. Retrieved 9 May 2008.

4.3 Descriptions of the Study Area of North District of Sikkim

The urban data on extramarital relationships in case of the North district was collected from Mangan and its surrounding areas. The district is the largest of the four districts of Sikkim in terms of area with a total area of about 4226 sq km and a population of about 43,354 (2011 census)[26]. The district has a population density of 10 inhabitants per square kilometer. Its population growth rate over the decade 2001-2011 was 5.66%[11]. North Sikkim has a sex ratio of 769 females for every 1000 males and literacy rate of 77.39%.[11]

Mangan is the district headquarters of North Sikkim which is 65 kilometers from Gangtok. The town lies in the geographic south of the district. Most of the people of the district reside near Mangan. The people are mainly of Nepali descent. Other ethnic groups include the Lepchas and Bhutia communities. Nepali is the most widely spoken language in the district. It also has one of the lowest populated regions of the state. Mangan is known as the cardamom capital of the world. The climate and terrain best suit the cultivation of the larger variety of cardamom. After the opening up of the district, Mangan has witnessed a spurt in its economy, mostly due to tourism. The town opens up to the Tibetan Plateau. It also serves the towns of Lachung, Chungthang and Lachen in the far north. Owing to its elevation, the town enjoys a temperate climate.

As of 2001 India census[27], Mangan had a population of 1248. Males constitute 62% of the population and females 38%. Mangan has an average literacy rate of 69%, higher than the national average of 59.5%: male literacy is 72%; the figure for females is 63%. In Mangan, 14% of the population is under 6 years of age.

For rural data we have chosen Lower Singhik and Chungthang. Chungthang a small town in North district of Sikkim. It is situated at the confluence of two rivers: Lachen River and Lachun

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[26] "District Census 2011", Census2011.co.in. 2011. Retrieved 2011-09-30.

[27] "Census of India 2001: Data from the 2001 Census, including cities, villages and towns (Provisional)". Census Commission of India. Archived from the original on 2004-06-16. Retrieved 2008-11-01.

River, both tributaries of the River Teesta. It is located a distance of 30 km north of Mangan and 95 kilometres from the capital Gangtok.

4.4 Descriptions of the Study Area of South District of Sikkim

In case of South district we have surveyed Namchi and Jorethang for the collection of urban data. The district has a total area of about 750 square kilometers with its population of 1,46,742 as of 2011 census.[12] Its district headquarter is Namchi. South Sikkim lies at an altitude of 400 to 2000 meters. The district has two sub-divisions namely Namchi and Ravangla. Major urban centres include Namchi, Ravangla, Jorethang and Malli. According to 2011 census[12], the district has a population density of 196 inhabitants per square kilometers. Its population growth rate during the decade 2001-2011 was 11.57%. The sex ratio of 914 females for every 1000 males and a literacy rate of 82.06%. The people are mainly of Nepali descent. Other ethnic groups include Lepcha and Bhutia communities. Nepali is the most widely spoken language in the district. It is the most industrialised district in the state, owing to the availability of flat land. The district is also famous for its Sikkim Tea, which is grown near Namchi. The study was carried out in two urban areas and two villages in South Sikkim, viz.,- Namchi, Jorethang,Sumbuk .

Namchi is situated at an altitude of 1,675 m (5500 feet) above sea level. It is situated at a distance of 78 km from the state capital of Gangtok and 90 km from Siliguri. Namchi lies off the road between Melli and Jorethang. Namchi is well connected to other towns in Sikkim and West Bengal. The town commands panoramic view of the snow capped mountains and vast stretches of valley. It is also the headquarters of the South district. The area is fast growing into a tourist destination with its enormous potential for all round tourist activities.

As of the 2011 India census[12], Namchi has a population of 12,194. Males constitute 52% of the population and females 48%. Namchi has an average literacy rate of 78%, higher than the national average of 59.5%: average male literacy is 81%, and female literacy is 73%. In Namchi, 9% of the population is under 6 years of age. Most of the people of Namchi are Hindus and Buddhists. Languages spoken are Nepali, English and Hindi.

Jorethang is a major town and business hub of South Sikkim because of its proximity to Namchi, Melli, and Singtam and is just 30 km from Darjeeling and 76 km from Gangtok. The town is

situated at an altitude of about 300 m above sea level and has a temperate climate. Jorethang lies on the Rangeet River, a tributary of the River Teesta. As of the 2001 India census[12], Jorethang had a population of 2968. Males constitute 53% of the population and females 47%. Jorethang has an average literacy rate of 81%, higher than the national average of 59.5%: male literacy is 86%, and female literacy is 76%. In Jorethang, 10% of the population is under 6 years of age. These two towns or urban areas of South district are characterized by the high concentration of population where different caste and communities belongs. So we have selected these areas urban areas from South district.

On the other hand, for the collection of rural data on extramarital relationships we have selected Sumbuk and Singithang. Sunbuk ia a small village in South Sikkim. It lies near the district's border with West Bengal and is about 15 km south of Namchi and 66 km from Gangtok city. Singithang is just 68 km from Gangtok.

4.5 Descriptions of the Study Area of West District of Sikkim

Lastly, we have visited Gyalshing and Soreng from the West district in order to collect urban data. West district has total area of 1,166 sq kms with a population of 1,36,299. Its district headquarters are at Geyzing, also known as Gyalshing. West Sikkim has the ancient capital of the state at Yuksom. It served as the capital from 1942 for almost 50 years until it was shifted to Rabtentse. The district was under the occupation of the Nepalese for 30 years in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. According to the 2011 census the West district has a population of 1, 36,299. The district has a population density of 117 inhabitants per square kilometer. Its population growth rate over the decade 2001-20111 was 10.58%. West Sikkim has a sex ratio of 941 females for every 1000 males and a literacy rate of 78.69%. The people are of mainly Nepali descent. Other ethnic groups include the Lepcha and Bhutia communities. Nepali is the most widely spoken language in the district. The west district also has two sub-divisions namely Gyalshing and Soreng.

Gyalshing or Geyzing is the district headquarters of West Sikkim. The town is connected to the capital Gangtok by road for about 117 km. It is also connected to the towns of Darjeeling and Kalimpong in West Bengal via Jorethang. A few kilometres north is the town

of Pelling. The town has a large Nepali population, and the Nepali language is the predominant language of the region. The town is situated at an altitude of about 6,500 feet (1,900 m). Near Geyzing is the ancient town of Yuksom, the ancient capital of Sikkim built in 1642.

As of 2001 India census, Gyalshing had a population of 828. Males constitute 59% of the population while females make up 41%. Gyalshing has an average literacy rate of 72%, which is higher than the national average of 59.5%: average male literacy is 75%, while that of females is 68%. In Gyalshing, 9% of the population is under 6 years of age.

Soreng is a small town in West district of Sikkim which is about 104 km drive from the capital Gangtok. It is known for having the largest production of vegetables, oranges and flowers in Sikkim. The inhabitants are mostly dependent on agriculture, floriculture and tourism for their livelihood. The inhabitants are mostly Nepali. The majority of the community follow Hindu and Buddhist beliefs while the rest are Christians. Soreng is about $2\frac{1}{2}$ hours from Darjeeling and 3 hours from Gangtok. The region is an eco-tourism spot, and thousands of people visit every year. It is close to Daramdin. Its major attractions include landscapes, fisheries, a good view of Mount Kangchenjunga, flora and fauna, and white river rafting on the Teesta River.

For the rural data we surveyed Kyongsha and Langang under Yangthang block of West Sikkim. The distances of these two villages from the Gyalshing are 2 km and 3 kilometers respectively. Subba and Gurung communities of Nepalese constitute the major part of the population of these two areas.

CHAPTER - V

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

5.1 Description of the Variables

Table 5.1: Variable Descriptions

	Variable Name	Description of the variables
1	Serialno	Serial number of the variables
2	Ema	Extra marital affair: 1 if involved in EMA, otherwise 0
3	Emano	Number of EMA:0 to 4
4	Rage	Respondent's age
5	Agediffmf	Age difference between respondent and spouse
6	Yearsmarried	Years of married life
7	Lnymodi	Income of the respondents
8	Sex	Male = 1, Female = 0
9	Employed	Yes = 1, No = 0
10	Dten	If the qualification of the respondent's is ten: 1, otherwise 0
11	Dtwelve	If the qualification of the respondent's is twelve: 1, otherwise 0
12	Dgrad	If the respondent is graduate: 1, otherwise 0
13	Child	No. of children; 0, 1, 2, ...
14	Distanceofwork	Distance from the home to work for the respondents
15	Awayfromhome	No. of days per month away from the home for work purposes
16	Asset	Do you have property and or financial assets? Yes = 1, No = 0
17	Assetorder	0= No asset, 1= house, 2= house + other asset, 3= house + investment property + other asset
18	Lifesatis	Life satisfaction; 1= totally satisfied, 11= totally dissatisfied
19	Finsatis	Financial satisfaction; 1= totally satisfied, 11= totally dissatisfied
20	Helsatis	Health satisfaction; 1= totally satisfied, 11= totally dissatisfied
21	Partnersatis	Happy with partners; 1= very good, 11= very bad
22	Dsmoke	Yes = 1, No = 0
23	Ddrink	Yes = 1, No = 0
24	Religion	Religion of respondents; Hindu, Buddhist, Christian, Others
25	Dhindu	If the respondent is hindu:1, otherwise 0
26	Dbuddhist	If the respondent is buddhist:1, otherwise 0
27	Dother	If the respondent belongs from other religion:1, otherwise 0
28	Religiousness	11= Highly religious, 1= Do not believe in religion
29	Marriagesatis	Self rating of marriage; 1 = very unhappy , 5 = very happy
30	Mustanding	Mutual understanding with partners; 1 = very good, 11= very bad
31	Pawayfromhome	Partner away from home (days per month)
32	Partworkpweek	Partner work per week
33	Durban	If the respondent is from urban: 1, otherwise 0

5.2 Pair-Wise Correlation Coefficient

Table 5.2: Pair-Wise Correlation Coefficient

	emano	Same Caste	rage	Rage sq	Lny modi	Sex	asset order	Lifesa tis	finsat is	partn ersati s	dsmo ke	ddrin k	musta nding	Drlc	dhind u	dgrad	child	durba n
emano	1.000																	
samecas te	-0.2376	1.000																
rage	-0.0081	0.0734	1.000															
ragesq	-0.0140	0.0645	0.0645	1.000														
lnymodi	0.2666	-0.0061	0.1546	0.1343	1.000													
sex	0.1099	0.0063	0.2876	0.2767	0.5478	1.000												
assetord er	0.2213	-0.0261	0.2117	0.2043	0.5348	0.4492	1.000											
lifesatis	0.3505	-0.1504	-0.0936	-0.0935	0.0431	-0.1017	-0.0673	1.000										
finsatis	0.2829	-0.0412	-0.1206	-0.1206	0.0247	-0.0240	-01728	0.4989	1.000									
partners atis	0.4948	-0.1154	0.0524	0.0505	0.1112	0.0240	-0.1728	0.5566	0.3200	1.000								
dsmoke	0.1678	0.0785	0.0843	0.0802	0.0960	0.1411	-0.0702	0.1641	0.2477	0.1889	1.000							
ddrink	0.2959	-0.0395	0.0829	0.0887	0.2244	0.1907	0.1481	0.1160	0.2013	0.1884	0.2803	1.000						
mustand ing	0.3802	-0.1197	0.0110	0.0233	-0.0507	-0.0670	-0.0188	0.4226	0.2260	0.5156	0.1782	0.1163	1.000					
drlc	0.0252	0.0540	0.0787	0.0936	-0.0568	0.0479	-0.0303	-0.0903	0.0402	-0.0937	0.0911	0.0107	0.0563	1.000				
dhindu	0.1104	-0.0948	-0.0413	-0.0353	0.0091	0.1177	-0.0010	0.1234	0.1403	0.1235	0.0430	0.0894	0.1149	0.0424	1.000			
dgrad	-0.0124	-0.0217	-0.0580	-0.0625	0.3276	0.0617	0.3549	-0.1411	-0.2409	-0.1402	-0.1789	0.0664	-01616.	-0.1045	0.0374	1.000		
child	-0.0776	0.1017	0.7429	0.7286	-0.0160	0.1711	0.0563	-0.1513	-0.1318	-0.0550	0.0914	0.0816	0.0490	0.1916	-0.0376	-0.1859	1.000	
durban	-0.0326	0.1195	-0.0097	-0.0129	0.0929	-0.0945	0.0132	-0.0110	-0.1114	0.0299	0.0565	0.0000	0.0961	-0.0356	0.0000	0.0478	0.0033	1.000

Source: Author's Calculation on Primary Data

If the pair-wise correlation between two variables is more than ±0.65 it may indicate the presence of a multicollinearity problem. In such a situation it may not be right to consider both variables as independent variables in the same equation. Instead one variable may be considered, while the other variable could be dropped. In the present case we have taken the variables such that the correlation coefficient r_{xy} may be positive or negative, but it has never crossed ±0.65.

From the above result, it is clear that the correlation between the same variables i;e r_{xx} is +1 which suggests that perfect positive linear relationship between the variables indicates the presence of perfect multicollinearity. The correlation between the samecaste and emano is negative which shows negative association between these two variables. The variables lnymodi and emano, lnymodi and rage, lnymodi and ragesq, sex and emano, sex and lnymodi, assetorder and emano, assetorder and rage, assetorder and ragesq, assetorder and lnymodi, lifesatis and emano, partnersatis and emano, partnersatis and lnymodi, ddrink and emano, ddrink and lnymodi, mustanding and emano, mustanding and lifesatis, mustanding and partnersatis, ddrink and assetorder, child and samecaste, child and rage, dgrad and lnymodi, dgrad and assetorder durban and samecaste etc. are positively related between the each other which indicates the presence of positive association between these variables, as in all these cases $r_{xy} < 0.65$.

On the other hand, the relations in case of lifesatis and samecaste, lifesatis and sex, finsatis and rage, finsatis and ragesq, finsatis and sex, finsatis and assetorder, partnersatis and samecaste, mustanding and samecaste, dgrad and lifesatis , child and finsatis etc. suggest that there are negative associations between these variables. In these cases also there are no multicollinearity problems since $r_{xy} < |-0.65|$.

But in case of the correlation between rage and emano, rage and samecaste, lnymodi and samecaste, sex and samecaste, assetorder and samecaste, lifesatis and rage, lifesatis and lnymodi dsmoke- ddrink and samecaste, drlc and emano, drlc and assetorder, etc the value of r is 0, which indicates that there is no relationship between the variables. From the above result it is also clear that in some cases (for e.g. correlation between rage and ragesq, child and rage etc) the correlation between the two variables is greater than 0.65 which indicates the presence of multicollinearity. Hence from this whole analysis it is known that the result does not present much multicollinearity problem except only in few cases.

5.3 Descriptive Statistics of the Variables

Table 5.3: Descriptive Statistics of the Variables

EMA no	RAge	Y	Assetorder	Distanceofwork	Pawayfromhome	Sex		Employed	Smoke no	Drnk no	Dhindu	Dbudda	Dother	No of respondent
						Male	Female							
No EMA	34.4	16744.4	1.6	5.4	1.8	79	54	106	0.5	1.0	67	40	26	133
EMA 1 or more	33.4	17397.2	1.8	8.4	3.6	70	37	87	0.9	1.6	67	37	3	107
Total	34.0	17035.4	1.7	6.7	2.6	149	91	193	0.7	1.3	134	77	29	240
1	32.5	14045.5	1.7	8.0	3.9	20	13	26	1.0	1.4	21	10	2	33
2	32.9	17105.3	1.6	8.0	3.9	34	23	44	0.9	1.5	35	22	0	57
3	36.9	24882.4	2.5	9.8	1.8	16	1	17	0.8	2.3	11	5	1	17
Total of EMA	33.4	17397.2	1.8	8.4	3.6	70	37	87	0.9	1.6	67	37	3	107

Source: Author's Calculation on Primary Data

From the table 5.3 it is apparent that the average age of the respondents who are not involved in extramarital affairs is 34.4 years and while in case of those that are involved it is 33.4 years. The average of both the cases is 34 years. So we observe that the greater the age of respondents the less is the chance of being involved in affairs. In the same way the table also suggests that the average age of the respondents who have 1, 2 and 3 affairs are 32.5, 32.9, 36.9 years respectively. So again we can say that the higher aged respondents have a greater chance of having extramarital relationships. Similarly when we observe the income of the respondents, the average income of the respondents who are not involved in EMRs is Rs 16,744.4 while for those who had EMRs it is Rs 17, 397.2 while the average total income for both the cases is Rs 17035.4. On an average the respondents who had 1, 2, and 3 affairs had an income level of Rs 14,045.5, Rs 17,105.3, and Rs 24,882.4 respectively which implies that there is greater chance of having extramarital relationships in case of the respondents who have high level of income. Hence it may imply that to have greater chance of EMRs more money is need in order to satisfy the wants of the paramour. In other words there is a greater chance of being involved in EMRs for persons with high income.

Our study also found that the respondents who have greater assets are more involved in EMRs compared to those who have fewer assets. The average distance of the place of work of the respondents is greater in case of the respondents who are involved in the EMRs. The greater the distance of the place of work of the respondents from their residence the higher will be the chance of having EMRs. On an average, the respondents whose partner stayed away from home for 1.8 days had no EMRs but those whose partner stayed away from home for about 3.6 days in a month tended to be involved in EMRs.

The study also found that out of 149 males 53% did not have any affairs whereas 47% were engaged in EMRs. It was also observed that 29% were involved in single affairs, 49 % had double affairs and 23 % had affairs with three paramours. Similarly out of 91 females 60 % were not involved in such relationships while 40 % were involved in affairs. Again out of these 35 % had single affairs, 62 % had double affairs and only 3 % had triple affairs during the last five years. Altogether 240 respondents were surveyed, out of which 55 % did not have any affairs and the remaining 45 % had affairs during the last five years in Sikkim. Among these respondents 80

% were employed in different occupations while 20 % were unemployed. 45 % of the employed respondents had extramarital relationships.

The respondents who smoke as well as drink more are found to have been more involved in EMRs. From this result it may be inferred the persons who have such habits might have tensions and frustrations in their life and as a result they are participating in EMRs.

With regard to the religious point of view regarding the occurrence of extramarital relationships in Sikkim 63 % Hindus, 36% Buddhist and 3 % others; this may be because more than 60 % of the population of Sikkim comprises Hindus.

Table 5.3.1: Descriptive Statistics of the Variables

EMA no	Dotherprof	Dmechanic	Dpolice	Dbusiness	Dprof	Dteacher	Lifesatis	Finsatis	Helsatis	Partnersatis	Religiousness	Marriagesatis	Mustanding	No of responders
No EMA	62	0	6	38	10	17	2.0	4.7	2.5	2.2	10.1	4.7	2.5	133
EMA 1 or more	38	5	4	43	7	10	3.6	6.5	2.5	4.3	8.4	3.5	4.1	107
Total	100	5	10	81	17	27	2.7	5.5	2.5	3.1	9.3	4.2	3.2	240
1	15	1	2	11	1	3	3.9	6.7	2.4	4.2	8.5	3.5	4.0	33
2	18	4	1	26	3	5	3.5	6.3	2.5	4.2	8.3	3.5	3.9	57
3	5	0	1	6	3	2	3.2	6.6	2.7	4.5	8.4	3.5	4.7	17
Total of EMA	18	5	4	43	7	10	3.6	6.5	2.5	4.3	8.4	3.5	4.1	107

Source: Author’s calculation on Primary Data.

Table 5.3.1 shows that out of 100 respondents who are employed in activities like self work, clerical work, and manual labour etc.62% respondents are not involved in EMRs whereas 38 % are engaged in such relationships. Similarly, during the field survey five respondents were found to be working as mechanics. The study showed that all these 5 respondents are involved in relationships outside marriage. About 10 respondents were found who are working as police. Out of them 6 did not have extramarital relationships and 4 have such relationships. Most of the respondents were businessmen and taxi drivers; of these 38 respondents did not have EMRs and 43 respondents had such relationships. Higher professionals like professors, doctors, advocate etc are less involved in extramarital relationships which are clear from the result that out of 17 respondents only 7 are engaged in EMRs. Similarly if we look the teaching profession only 37% teachers are involved in EMRs and the rest 63% do not have any such involvement. So from our results we can say that the higher the professions the lower is the chance of being involved in EMRs possibly because of their prestige in the society. Lower occupational respondents have greater chance to be in EMRs.

The above result also shows that on an average increase in life satisfaction, financial satisfaction and partner satisfaction may lead to increase in the chance of having extramarital relationships. But the life satisfaction have a negative impact on the number of EMRs which means that as the respondent becomes more and more satisfied with life his or her number of extramarital relationships decreases. The health satisfaction shows that the chance of involvement is equal to those of not being involved but as the respondent becomes healthy the number of EMRs may increase. When the respondent is more religious, the probability of having EMRs decreases because he or she is bound by religious belief. Moreover, religion often emphasises the sanctity of marriage and the prohibitions against adultery, both of which serve as barriers to extramarital affairs. The results also show that the decrease in the marital happiness of the respondents may increase the chance of having EMRs. Lastly mutual understanding can have a positive effect on the extramarital relationships which suggest that increase in the understanding between the partners may increase the respondent's involvement in EMRs because he or she does not have any fear from the partner's side.

5.4 Results and Analysis of Probability of Extramarital Relationships in Sikkim by Probit Model

$EMA_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Samecaste_i + \beta_2 Rage_i + \beta_3 Ragesq_i + \beta_4 Yrsmarried_i + \beta_5 Lnymodi_i + \beta_6 Agedifmf_{i+} \beta 7 Child_i + \beta_8 Assetorderi + \beta_9 Finsatis_i + \beta_{10} Partnersatis_i + \beta_{11} Dsmoke_i + \beta_{12} Ddrink_i + \beta_{13} Mustanding_i + \beta_{14} Drlc_i + \beta_{15} Hindu_i + \beta_{16} Dgrad + e_i \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots (1)$

$EMA_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Samecaste_i + \beta_2 Rage_i + \beta_3 Ragesq_i + \beta_4 Agedifmf_i + \beta_5 Child_i + \beta_6 Assetorder_i + \beta_7 Finsatis_i + \beta_8 Partnersatis_i + \beta_9 Dsmoke_i + \beta_{10} Ddrink_i + \beta_{11} Mustanding_i + \beta_{12} Drlc_i + \beta_{13} Dgrad_i + \beta_{14} Dhindu_i + \beta_{15} Dten_i + \beta_{16} Dtwelve_i + e_i \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots (2)$

The equation (1) and (2) are used for the analysis of both Probit and Ordered Probit Models for the probability and the number of extramarital relationships. In case of the probit model the dependent variable is the binary response variable which takes the value 0 and 1 indicating 0 for no relationships and 1 for the respondents who have such relationships. In the same way in the ordered probit model the dependent variable is the dichotomous variable which gives the number of extramarital relationships taking the values 0, 1, 2, 3. We have used two equations for these purposes in order to check the reliability of the estimates by changing a few explanatory variables.

Table 5.4: Probit Estimates of Extramarital Relationships

Explanatory variables	Estimated Coefficient					
	Combined		Male		Female	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Samecaste	-0.585*** (-2.66)	-0.598*** (-2.77)	-0.440 (-1.59)	-0.409 (-1.49)	-1.547** (-2.15)	-1.220** (-2.28)
Rage	0.097 (0.61)	0.221 (1.47)	-0.009 (-0.04)	0.068 (0.31)	0.111 (0.32)	0.320 (1.19)
Ragesq	-0.168 (-0.77)	-0.333* (-1.65)	-0.038 (-0.12)	-0.174 (-0.58)	-0.061 (-0.12)	-0.301 (0.84)
Yearsmarried	-0.010 (-0.77)		-0.030 (-0.54)		0.044 (0.39)	
Lnymodi	0.316*** (2.60)		0.398 (1.28)		0.619** (2.48)	
Agedifmf	0.038 (1.36)	0.033 (1.20)	0.026 (0.59)	0.042 (0.94)	0.191* (1.82)	0.144** (2.07)
Child	-0.089	-0.170	0.089	0.012	0.587	-0.665**

	(-0.59)	(-1.29)	(0.45)	(0.07)	(-1.34)	(-1.94)
Assetorder	0.177 (1.62)	0.264** (2.51)	0.271** (2.04)	0.296** (2.24)	-0.087 (-0.29)	0.333 (1.46)
Finsatis	0.069 (1.58)	0.085** (1.96)	0.022 (0.35)	0.007 (0.11)	-0.011 (-0.09)	0.107 (1.04)
Partnersatis	0.332*** (4.36)	0.324*** (4.35)	0.416*** (3.81)	0.416*** (3.90)	0.420** (2.30)	0.354** (2.16)
Dsmoke	0.296 (1.15)	0.297 (1.15)	0.427 (1.35)	(0.366) (1.17)	1.476 (1.63)	1.000 (1.32)
Ddrink	0.525** (2.32)	0.589*** (2.63)	0.259 (0.85)	0.351 (1.18)	1.470** (2.07)	1.201** (2.22)
Mustanding	0.171** (2.47)	0.157** (2.33)	0.291** (2.49)	0.295** (2.49)	-0.032 (-0.21)	0.014 (0.10)
Drlc	0.491 (0.99)	0.440 (0..93)	0.028 (0.04)	0.011 (0.02)	0.039** (2.09)	2.062** (1.99)
Dhindu	0.070 (0.32)	0.058 (0.26)	-0.473 (-1.54)	-0.518 (-1.33)	0.964* (1.81)	0.838* (1.72)
Dgrad	-0.318 (-0.14)	-0.122 (-0.39)	-0.059 (-0.12)	0.107 (0.27)	-1.668** (-2.07)	-1.185 (-1.54)
Dten		-0.323 (-1.03)		-0.350 (-0.82)		-0.342 (-0.60)
Dtwelve		0.251 (0.78)		0.180 (0.41)		0.537 (0.77)
Sex	-0.438 (-1.50)	-0.113 (-0.44)				
Cons	-6.291** (-2.22)	-5.971** (-2.21)	-5.729 (-1.22)	-3.065 (-0.76)	-10.165 (-1.62)	-9.475* (-1.88)
Observations	240	240	149	149	91	91
Pseudo R^2	0.4118	0.3956	0.3909	0.3871	0.6877	0.6070
Goodness of fit test: Pearson χ^2 (p-value)	135.86 (0.000)***	130.51 (0.000)***	80.53 (0.000)***	79.75 (0.000)***	84.56 (0.000)***	74.64 (0.000)***
Note: ***, ** and * indicates the significance at 1%, 5% and 10% level respectively. Figures within the brackets represents the Z statistics						

Table 5.4 shows the estimated coefficients estimated from equation (1) and (2) for Sikkim as a whole and also with regard to males and females. Columns 1, 3 and 5 show the estimated coefficients determined using equation (1) while column 2, 4 and 6 show the estimated coefficients from equation (2). Probit model is used for the estimation procedure. The estimated

coefficients of Probit model show the direction of the relationship between the dependent and the independent/explanatory variables.

In order to study the effect of educational attainment on extramarital relationships we have decomposed this variable with three dummy variables (Dten for respondents who have studied tenth standard, Dtwelve for respondents who had attain twelfth standard and Dgraduate for respondents who had attain graduate or post graduate degree). We have used two equations to study the effect of various variables on extramarital relationships by using a few explanatory variables for these two equations. The reliability of the estimates is examined by changing the explanatory variables. The rationale for running these alternative specifications is to evaluate whether our results are sensitive to the set of variables included in the model.

The coefficient in case of same caste is negative and significant at 1% level for combined respondents and significant at 5 % level for females. This means that if the respondent and his or her spouse have the same caste, the probability of having extramarital relationships decreases in case of both combined and female respondents.

In a different specification the square of the respondents age was included to see if the relationship between EMA and Rage is nonlinear (many researchers have considered the square term. For example Nath (2011) and Qi and Racine (2004) applied a non-parametric model to Fair's data set and observed that the relationship between age and number of affairs is nonlinear, being flat and/or upward sloping for younger ages, and exhibiting a downward trend for people over 40.) The age squared of the respondents is negative and significant at 5% level for the combined sample which suggests that as the respondent's age increases the probability of being involved in EMRs decreases.

Income is positive and significant at 1 % level for the combined sample and positive and significance at 5 % level for women and there is a suggestion of a positive relationship with the dependent variable for combined respondents and women, implying that the higher level of income the greater the chance of having extramarital relationships in case of combined and female respondents. This would suggest that the greater the earnings of an individual, the individual may spend their additional money income on activities and/or products that strengthen the extramarital relationships. In case of women, with the opportunity to work outside and the resultant increase of income, a greater number of options can become available to them. This is

specially so when they have to travel away from home for work purposes and interact with people.

The positive sign for the coefficient of income for male subgroup (although the coefficient itself is insignificant) suggests a possible relationship of income with extramarital relationships. However, more relevant data is required to confirm such indications.

The age difference between the respondent and spouse is significant and positively correlated with the dependent variable for women only. These estimates imply that women are more likely to engage in extramarital relationships than men when the gap between ages is greater. It may be true in some cases that when the woman finds her husband is much older than herself, she may find a paramour to satisfy her sexual needs.

The number of children has no impact on either the combined sample or the likelihood of men having extramarital relationships. But it is found to be significant at 5 % level in case of women. When the number of children increases, women tend to spend less time with their husbands and more time with their children. This will increase the husband's free time to go fooling around.

Asset order is significant in case of male respondents and positively correlated with the dependent variable implying that males are more sensitive to being involved in the extramarital relations than females when they have more wealth and/or assets.

Financial satisfaction is significant and positive at 10 % level for the combined respondents. This means that though the respondents are financially well off there could still be a possibility of having relationships with the paramour(s) in order to satisfy his or her needs other than financial satisfaction.

The coefficients of partner satisfaction and mutual understanding are positive and highly significant at 1% and 5 % level respectively for all combined respondents, male and female. The estimates imply that though the respondents are more satisfied with their partners at an overall level including sex and have greater mutual understanding between them, there may be still possibility of being involved in extramarital relationships. Apart from partner satisfaction and mutual understanding a couple may seeks various other things from the spouse. For instance, one might engage in extramarital activity for affection, attention, recognition, friendship, or to

relieve loneliness etc. All of these are characteristics lead to personal fulfillment. Lack of any one of these factors may result in extramarital relationships.

The dependent variable is also regressed by taking dummies - a dummy for smoking, a dummy for drinking, a dummy for lower caste, a dummy for hindu religion, a dummy for educational level (graduate degree or tenth or twelfth standard). The consumption of drink does affect the occurrence of number of extramarital relationships. The coefficient of this variable is significant at 1% level for combined respondents and women it is significant at 5 % level. The coefficient of lower caste females is positive and significant suggesting that lower caste females are more likely to be involved in extramarital activities than males. In the same way the coefficient of hindu females is positive and significant at 10 % level indicating more hindu females are engaging in extramarital activities than others. From the educational point of view only the coefficient of graduate females is significant and negative but not in case of tenth and twelfth standards, suggesting that the more educated the female, the less likely she is to engage in extramarital relationships. When the females become more educated, they became more conscious and aware that extramarital relationships affect the family and the society. The variables like age of respondent, years of marriage, existence of children, smoking, and lower educational level viz.,- tenth and twelfth standards do not seem to have much effect on the probability of having extramarital relationships.

The goodness of fit of the model is measured by Pearson χ^2 test. The p-value is very small for all the categories indicating that the model has a good fit.

5.5 Results and Analysis of Occurrence of Number of Extramarital Relationships in Sikkim by Ordered Probit Model

Table 5.5: Ordered Probit Estimates of Extramarital Affairs

Explanatory Variables	Estimated Coefficients					
	Combined		Male		Female	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Samecaste	-0.562*** (-3.28)	-0.545*** (-3.24)	-0.439 (-2.04)	-0.400** (-1.89)	-0.748** (-2.11)	-0.741** (-2.21)
Rage	0.140	0.225*	0.095	0.137	0.012	0.196

	(1.04)	(1.77)	(0.54)	(0.77)	(0.05)	0.83
Ragesq	-0.224 (-1.21)	-0.313* (-1.84)	-0.167 (-0.70)	-0.211 (-0.91)	0.165 (0.44)	-0.158 (-0.49)
Yearsmarried	0.016 (0.55)		0.012 (0.29)		-0.040 (-0.67)	
Lnymodi	0.290*** (2.83)		0.605** (2.42)		0.478*** (3.04)	
Agedifmf	0.031 (1.36)	0.024 (108)	0.002 (0.06)	0.014 (0.41)	0.171*** (3.10)	0.118** (2.59)
Child	-0.097 (-0.81)	-0.110 (1.00)	-0.008 (-0.05)	-0.002 (-0.01)	-0.445* (-1.74)	-0.504** (-2.17)
Assetorder	0.172** (2.09)	0.270*** (3.63)	0.237** (2.27)	0.258** (2.46)	0.182 (0.93)	0.374** (2.29)
Finsatis	0.085** (2.44)	0.086** (2.49)	0.629 (1.37)	0.040 (0.91)	0.096 (1.30)	0.131** (1.90)
Partnersatis	0.173*** (3.46)	0.178*** (3.56)	0.206*** (3.25)	0.202*** (3.12)	0.106 (1.01)	0.169* (1.69)
Dsmoke	0.104 (0.55)	0.142 (0.74)	0.156 (0.66)	0.076 (0.33)	0.971** (2.06)	0.836* (1.83)
Ddrink	0.048*** (2.67)	0.524*** (2.93)	0.370 (0.60)	0.484** (2.11)	0.654 (1.64)	0.650* (1.71)
Mustanding	0.140*** (2.95)	0.133*** (2.87)	0.187 (3.04)	0.202 (3.26)***	-0.041 (-0.42)	-0.057 (0.59)
Drlc	0.489 (1.30)	0.504 (1.36)	0.237 (0.52)	0.298 (0.66)	1.418 (1.67)	1.161 (1.55)
Dhindu	0.066 (0.38)	0.069 (0.40)	-0.117 (-0.52)	-0.206 (-0.93)	0.559 (1.55)	0.472 (1.40)
Dgrad	-0.134 (-0.60)	0.074 (0.30)	-0.038 (-0.13)	0.275 (0.89)	-1.571*** (-2.95)	-0.922* (-1.66)
Dten		-0.026 (0.11)		-0.081 (-0.24)		0.195 (0.46)
Dtwelve		0.228 (0.95)		0.247 (0.78)		0.213 (0.45)
Observations	240	240	149	149	91	91
Pseudo R^2	0.236	0.219	0.228	80.24	0.441	0.375
Goodness of fit test: Pearson χ^2 (p-value)	127.64*** (0.0000)	118.97*** (0.0000)	80.24*** (0.0000)	0.228*** (0.0000)	79.05*** (0.0000)	67.19*** (0.0000)
Note: ***, ** and * indicates the significance at 1%, 5% and 10% level respectively. Figures within the brackets represents the Z statistics						

Table 5.5 shows the estimated coefficients estimated from equation (1) and (2) for Sikkim as a whole as well as for males and females. Columns 1, 3 and 5 show the estimated coefficients estimated using equation (1) while columns 2, 4 and 6 show the estimated coefficients from equation (2). The ordered Probit model is used for the estimation procedure. The estimated coefficients of the Ordered Probit model show the direction of the relationship between the dependent and the independent/explanatory variables.

The coefficient for the same caste is negative and significant at 1% level for combined respondents and significant at 5 % level for both male and female. This means that if the respondent and his or her spouse have the same caste, the number of extramarital relationships decreases in case of combined and also both male and female respondents.

The age squared of the respondents is negative and significant at 10 % level for the combined respondents which suggest that as the respondent's age is doubled they become members of an older age group and as a result the probability of EMRs decreases.

Income is significant at 1 % level for combined and female respondents and at 5 % level of significance for males and suggests a positive relationship with the dependent variable, implying that the higher the level of income the greater the chance of having more extramarital relations. The result also clarifies that the effect of this variable on the number of EMRs is more in women than men.

The age difference between the respondent and the spouse is significant and positively correlated with the dependent variable only in case of women. The estimates imply that women are more likely to engage in extramarital relationships than men when there are more gaps between their ages. It may be true in some cases where the woman finds that her husband is much older, and hence she may be find a paramour for satisfying her sexual needs.

The number of children has no impact on either the combined sample or the men's likelihood of having extramarital relationships. But it is found to be significant in case of women. When the number of children increases, women tend to spend less time with their husbands and more time with their children. This will increase the husband's free time to go fooling around.

Asset order is significant for the combined sample as well as women and men separately, which is positively correlated with the dependent variable implying that the probability of number of extramarital relationships goes up when the person concerned hold more wealth or assets.

Financial satisfaction is significant at 5 % level for the combined sample and for women, and has a positive relationship with the probability of extramarital relationships. This implies that if the respondent is financially satisfied in his or her life there could be still possibility of increase in the number of relationships with paramours in order to satisfy his or her other needs. This case is truer for females.

The coefficients of partner satisfaction and mutual understanding are positive and highly significant at 1% for the combined sample and for males and at the 10% level for women. The estimates imply that though the respondents are more satisfied with their partners at an overall level including sex and there is mutual understanding between the two, still there is possibility of increase the number of extramarital relationships. The occurrence of extramarital relationships in women is less affected by these factors. Apart from partner satisfaction and mutual understanding a person may seeks various other things from the spouse.

The consumption of drink does affect the occurrence of number of extramarital relationships. The coefficient of this variable is significant at 1% level for combined respondents whereas for men and women it is significant at 5 % level. Thus we can say that the increase in the consumption of drinking habits of an individual may positively affect the number of times the respondents have had extramarital relationships. Considering the educational point of view only the coefficient of graduate females is significant and negative but not for tenth and twelfth standards, suggesting that the more educated the female, the less likely she is to engage in extramarital relationships compared to a less educated female. The variables like respondent's age, years married, lower caste, hindu, lower educational level like tenth and twelfth standards do not have much effect on the occurrence of number of extramarital activities.

The goodness of fit of the model is measured by Pearson χ^2 test. Since p-value is very small for all the categories so the model has a good fit. Hence in the final analysis we can say that couples can be satisfied in one area, but not necessarily in others. Conversely, one could be satisfied in all areas of the relationship, yet still have an affair.

CHAPTER - VI

COMPARATIVE STUDY AMONG THE URBAN AND RURAL, MALE AND FEMALE RESPONDENTS

6.1 Comparative Study of Probability of Extramarital Relationships among Urban and Rural, Male and Female Respondent of Sikkim by Probit Model

The following equation is used for the comparative study among the urban and rural, male and female respondents regarding the probability and the number of extramarital relationships by utilising Probit and Ordered Models respectively. The dependent variable takes the same values as we have mentioned in the previous chapter 5 for Probit and Ordered Probit Models.

$$EMA_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Samecaste_i + \beta_2 Rage_i + \beta_3 Ragesq_i + \beta_4 Yrsmarried_i + \beta_5 Lnymodi_i + \beta_6 Agedifmf_{i+} \beta 7\ Child_i + \beta_8 Assetorderi + \beta_9 Finsatis_i + \beta_{10} Partnersatis_i + \beta_{11} Dsmoke_i + \beta_{12} Ddrink_i + \beta_{13} Mustanding_i + \beta_{14} Drlc_i + \beta_{15} Hindu_i + \beta_{16} Dgrad + \beta_{17}\ Durban + \beta_{18}\ Sex + e_i \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots (3)$$

Table 6.1: Ordered Probit Estimates of Extramarital Affairs (Comparative Study)

Explanatory Variables	Estimated Coefficient				
	Combined	Urban	Rural	Male	Female
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Samecaste	-539** (-2.40)	-1.452*** (-3.21)	-0.237 (-0.75)	-0.409 (-1.45)	-1.516* (-1.75)
Rage	0.088 (0.55)	0.141 (0.49)	0.173 (0.78)	-0.036 (-0.16)	0.274 (0.73)
Ragesq	-0.158 (-0.72)	-0.191 (-0.49)	-0.302 (-0.97)	-0.002 (-0.01)	-2.263 (-0.47)
Yearsmarried	-0.009 ()-0.25	-0.034 (-0.53)	-0.012 (-0.22)	-0.028 (-0.50)	0.071 (0.56)
Lnymodi	0.346*** ()2.72	0.472* (1.74)	0.359** (2.05)	0.443** (2.37)	0.896** (2.45)
Agedifmf	0.039 (1.41)	0.127** (2.22)	0.025 (0.59)	0.029 (0.53)	0.233** (2.00)
Child	-0.087 (-0.58)	-0.519 (-1.60)	0.136 (0.68)	0.085 (0.43)	-0.694 (-1.34)
Assetorder	0.177 (1.61)	0.352* (1.87)	0.109 (0.65)	0.265** (1.99)	-0.098 (-0.29)
Finsatis	0.064 (1.43)	0.192** (2.01)	0.035 (0.58)	0.016 (0.25)	0.016 (0.11)
Partnersatis	0.328*** (4.28)	0.391** (2.56)	0.352*** (3.20)	0.411*** (3.72)	0.449** (2.21)

Dsmoke	0.318 (1.23)	0.442 (0.96)	0.461 (1.24)	0.425 (1.34)	1.892* (1.78)
Ddrink	0.512** (2.25)	0.373 (0.91)	0.582* (1.78)	0.231 (0.75)	1.806** (1.98)
Mustanding	0.187*** (2.63)	0.276** (2.51)	0.138 (1.13)	0.306** (2.54)	1.107 (0.58)
Drlc	0.488 (0.96)	0.160* (1.70)	0.486 (0.69)	-0.046 (-0.07)	4.290* (2.12)
Dhindu	0.092 (0.41)	-0.118 (-0.29)	0.081 (0.24)	-0.450 (-1.45)	0.892 (1.57)
Dgrad	-0.334 (-1.18)	-0.544 (-1.07)	0.015 (0.04)	-0.770 (-0.20)	-1.821** (-1.95)
Sex	-0.503* (-1.68)	-0.190 (-0.38)	-0.968** (-1.98)		
Durban	-0.242 (-1.08)			-0.171 (-0.57)	-1.405* (-1.86)
Cons	-6.263** -2.23	-9.608* (-1.71)	-7.452** (-1.94)	-5.60 (-1.18)	-16.100** (-2.00)
Observations	240	120	120	149	91
Pseudo R^2	0.2395	0.3252	0.2286	0.2314	0.7225
Goodness of fit test: Pearson χ^2 (p-value)	129.80*** (0.0000)	85.82*** (0.0000)	63.40*** (0.0000)	81.56*** (0.0000)	88.84 (0.0000)
Note: ***, ** and * indicates the significance at 1%, 5% and 10% level respectively. Figures within the brackets represents the Z statistics					

Table 6.1 shows the estimated coefficients for the comparative study of probability of extramarital relationships among the urban and rural male and female respondents. Probit model is used for the estimation procedure. The estimated coefficients of Probit model show the direction of the relationship between the dependent and the independent/explanatory variables.

The coefficient in case of same caste is negative and significant at 1% level for urban, 5% level for the combined sample and 10 % level for women, respectively. This means that if the respondent and his or her spouse have the same caste, the probability of having extramarital relationships decreases in case of the combined sample, urban and female respondents whereas this factor is insignificant for rural and male respondents. This means that same caste between the couples do not affect the likelihood of having the extramarital relationships for rural and

male respondents. The probability of having extramarital relationships is less for women as compared to male when the couples come from the same caste.

The coefficient of income is significant and positive for combined, urban, rural and female respondents, implying the positive correlation with the dependent variable. The increase in the income of the respondents increases the probability of having extramarital relationships. This would suggest that the greater the earnings of an individual, the better placed he or she will be to spend the additional income on activities and/or products that strengthen the extramarital relationships. Income is the most important factor that leads to extramarital relationships in Sikkim because this factor is significant for all the categories.

The age difference between the couples is significant only for urban and female respondents but it does not seem to have any effect on male and rural respondents. It is obvious that in urban areas the couples do not want partners much older than themselves. If there are more gaps between their ages, they may not be satisfied in all aspects of their life. As a result the chance of having extramarital relationships goes up. We found that this case is also true for women.

The coefficient of asset order is significant in case of urban respondents and male respondents and does not seem to play a major role for rural respondents and women. In Sikkim the urban people hold more assets. They are wealthy and have more liquid assets. Hence they can spend their additional money on extramarital relationships. But this is not true for all the respondents. The effect of this variable is more in case of the male rather than the female population.

Financial satisfaction is significant only for the urban respondents. Partner satisfaction is significant for the combined sample, rural, urban, male and female respondents. Its coefficient is positive which suggests a positive correlation with the dependent variable. In other words, it means that the increase in the partner satisfaction may increase the probability of having extramarital relationships. Its effect on the probability of extramarital relationships is higher for rural and male respondents compared to urban and female respondents.

The consumption of alcohol does affect the probability of extramarital relationships in Sikkim. It is true from the above result that drinking is significant at 5 % level for combined sample and women and at 10 % level for rural respondents. In Sikkim women have the habit of smoking and drinking. Daily and frequent consumption of these may adversely affect their family life which

will create a problematic situation in the family. Thus increase in the consumption of drinks may lead to an increase in the extramarital activities.

The coefficient of lower caste is found to be significant at 10 % level for urban and female population but it is not significant for the rural and male population. The lower caste females are more actively involved in extramarital relationships especially from the urban areas. The coefficient of higher educational level i.e graduate is significant at 5 % level of significance for women only and negatively correlated with the dependent variables which imply that increase in the educational level in women decreases the probability of having extramarital relationships.

The probability of extramarital relationships is also influenced by sex especially in case of the combined sample and the rural population. As we have seen from the two areas viz.,- urban and rural, the urban females are more actively involved in extramarital relationships.

The coefficient of the urban dummy is significant only for women which has a positive correlation with the dependent variables.

In urban areas the factors or variables that affect the probability of extramarital relationships are same caste, income of the respondent, age difference between the partners, asset order, financial satisfaction, mutual understanding and lower caste whereas the rest of the variables are found to be insignificant. Among these, the most important factor that leads to extramarital activities is same caste. In the same way in rural areas the factors which lead to extramarital activities are income, partner satisfaction, consumption of drinks and sex. By comparing these two areas, we can say that most of the variables that are significant with regard to extramarital activities are in urban areas rather than the rural areas. The effect of same caste is very high in urban areas whereas in rural areas it does not have any effect at all. The effect of income on the probability of EMRs is higher in rural areas than in urban areas.

The factors which mostly have an effect with respect to involvement in EMRs in case of men are income, asset order, partner satisfaction and mutual understanding while in case of women these are same caste, income, age difference, partner satisfaction, smoking, drinking, lower caste and graduate. More variables are found to be significant in case of women than men.

Since the p-value of Pearson χ^2 test is very small we can say that the model has a good fit.

6.2 Comparative Study of Probability of Number of Extramarital Relationships among Urban and Rural, Male and Female Respondent of Sikkim by Ordered Probit Model.

Table 6.2: Ordered Probit Estimates of Extramarital Affairs (Comparative Study)

Explanatory Variables	Estimated Coefficient				
	Combined	Urban	Rural	Male	Female
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Samecaste	-0.528*** (-3.05)	-1.022*** (-3.55)	-0.408 (-1.57)	-0.418** (-1.93)	-0.694** (-1.90)
Rage	0.131 (0.98)	0.139 (0.60)	0.146 (0.75)	0.069 (0.39)	0.036 (0.14)
Ragesq	-0.205 (-1.10)	-0.153 (-0.48)	-0.280 (-1.02)	-0.135 (-0.56)	0.134 (0.36)
Yearsmarried	0.009 (0.30)	-0.115 (-0.25)	0.025 (0.56)	0.012 (0.28)	-0.039 (-0.65)
Lnymodi	0.337*** (3.02)	0.388** (1.82)	0.381** (2.39)	0.643** (2.55)	0.491** (3.03)
Agedifmf	0.030 (1.34)	0.104*** (2.84)	-0.011 (-0.31)	0.004 (0.10)	0.172** (3.12)
Child	-0.087 (-0.72)	-0.398* (-1.82)	0.115 (0.71)	0.007 (0.05)	-0.457* (-1.79)
Assetorder	0.192** (2.25)	0.296** ()2.34	0.103 (0.75)	0.232** (2.21)	0.205 (1.02)
Finsatis	0.079** (2.24)	0.128** (2.22)	0.052 (1.03)	0.053 (1.15)	0.098 (1.32)
Partnersatis	0.169*** (3.39)	0.074 (0.97)	0.242*** (3.01)	0.208*** (3.27)	0.092 (0.85)
Dsmoke	0.132 (0.68)	0.346 (1.16)	0.059 (0.21)	0.142 (0.60)	1.016* (2.13)
Ddrink	0.482*** (2.67)	0.539* (1.87)	0.368 (1.42)	0.358 (1.54)	0.682** (1.70)
Mustanding	0.149*** (3.09)	0.249*** (3.52)	0.088 (1.04)	0.198*** (3.17)	-0.023 (-0.22)
Drlc	0.484 (1.27)	0.848 (1.16)	0.525 (1.05)	0.211 (0.45)	1.455 (1.70)
Dhindu	0.092 (0.52)	0.099 (0.37)	0.024 (0.09)	-0.112 (-0.50)	0.554* (1.53)
Dgrad	-0.183 (-0.81)	-0.234 (-0.66)	-0.071	-0.087 (-0.30)	-1.582** (-2.96)
Durban	-0.210 (-1.21)			-0.249 (-1.15)	-0.239 (-0.64)
Sex	-0. 233 (-1.00)	-0.167 (-0.49)	-0.297 (-0.80)		

Observations	240	120	120	149	91
Pseudo R^2	0.2395	0.3252	0.2286	0.2314	0.4433
Goodness of fit test: Pearson χ^2 (p-value)	129.80*** (0.0000)	85.82*** (0.0000)	63.40*** (0.0000)	81.56*** (0.0000)	79.47*** (0.0000)
Note: ***, ** and * indicates the significance at 1%, 5% and 10% level respectively. Figures within the brackets represents the Z statistics					

Table 6.2 shows the estimated coefficients for the comparative study of the number of extramarital relationships among the urban and rural male and female respondents. Ordered probit model is used for the estimation procedure. The estimated coefficients of the ordered probit model show the direction of the relationship between the dependent and independent/explanatory variables.

Again the significant variables in case of urban data that affect the number of extramarital relationships that the respondents have had are same caste, income, age difference, existence of children, asset order, financial satisfaction, drinks and mutual understanding. In case of rural data the only significant variables are income and partner satisfaction. In this case also more variables are significant for urban data than the rural data.

Similarly, for men, the factors which mostly affect the number of extramarital relationships are same caste, income, asset order, partner satisfaction and mutual understanding etc. while for women they are same caste, income, age difference, children, smoking, drinking, religion i.e hindu and graduate. In this case also more variables are significant for women compared to men. All these variables demonstrate the same sign and the same effect on the times of extramarital relationships in case of probit models.

The goodness of fit of the model is measured by Pearson χ^2 test. Since p-value is very small for all the categories it indicates that the model has a good fit.

CHAPTER - VII

CONCLUSIVE OBSERVATIONS AND POLICY PRESCRIPTIONS

7.1 Conclusion

The findings of this study contribute to the economic literature on extramarital relationships by providing insights into how socio-economic factors may interact with psychological and related aspects of human behaviour towards extramarital relationships.

Extramarital relationships have gradually becomes one of the facets of modern life. In some cultures, particularly in the west, it has even been accepted as a kind of lifestyle statement. As our survey revealed this is another of elements of western lifestyle that people are following in India. Compared to the rest of the country the metros and cities of India are more adaptive to this kind of culture, which may explain the liberal attitude of society here towards the extramarital phenomenon. However, only a comprehensive study on such relationships across the country can establish whether this phenomenon is more common in metros and cities.

Generally males tend to have a lower sense of commitment to a relationship. This is a fact that holds true across countries and cultures. This has often been attributed to the genetic makeup of human males. In particular, in our country, girls are brought up under the belief that they will ultimately have to go to a different household after marriage, and as such, should learn to be more accommodative towards one and all. This means that often in spite of knowing that their husbands are involved in illicit relationships, wives often keep quiet for a number of reasons including, but not limited to ‘the family honour’, a sense of ’duty’ as a wife, the welfare of children, etc. Sikkim is also no exception to the phenomenon of the silent suffering wife, as we discovered in course of our survey.

From the preceding result it is known that out of 240 samples 55 per cent are not involved in extramarital activities whereas the remaining 45 per cent have had extramarital relationships during the last five years. The prevalence of extramarital relationships is higher in men than in women. It is true from the result that approximately 60 per cent males are involved in extramarital activities while in case of females this percentage is 40 per cent. The study also found that out of 149 males 53 per cent did not have any affairs whereas 47 per cent were engaged in extramarital relationships. Similarly out of 91 females 60 per cent were not involved

in such relationships while 40 per cent were involved in affairs. Hence men are more actively involved in such activities as compared to women. Generally females tend to have a higher sense of commitment to a relationship. This is a fact that holds true across countries and cultures. This has often been attributed to the genetic makeup of human males. In rural areas the factors which lead to extramarital activities are income, partner satisfaction, consumption of drinks and sex. By comparing these two areas, we can say that most of the variables that are significant for the influence of extramarital activities are more in urban areas than in rural areas. The effect of same caste is very high in urban areas whereas it does not matter at all in rural areas. The effect of income on the probability of extramarital relationships is higher in rural areas then in urban areas.

As per our study in Sikkim the important factors that attract the human beings towards extramarital relationships are income, holding of assets or wealth, excess age gap between the couples, partner satisfaction, mutual understanding, consumption of alcohol etc. On the other hand, the factors that help to reduce the occurrence of extramarital relationships' are same caste of the partners, age squared, higher educational level and existence of children in case of women, marital satisfaction, and religiosity etc.

Some of the reasons offered by the respondents for involvement in extramarital relationships were pleasure, reducing loneliness and sadness, sexual attraction, dissatisfaction with partners, emotional and sexual attachment, attraction towards girls, spending time with new partners, self interest, money etc. Of these reasons most of the respondents said they used it as a tool for whiling time and only a few said that they did it for money.

The view of the aged or intellectual people regarding the rise of such social problems in Sikkim is that they offer easy ways of earning for women; people have easy and higher level of earning as compared to other regions so that the surplus amount of money is spent in these activities; influence of western culture and western dresses; marital and sexual dissatisfaction; and lack of financial satisfaction etc. They said that some people are involved in such activities only for fun and enjoyment even though their needs are met by their partners.

As more and more women join the workforce, the workplace which was once the exclusive domain of males, is getting more diversified. This increases the opportunities for mixing with the

opposite sex. The result may be the germination of extramarital relationships especially in case of those who are involved in unhappy marriages.

A major factor leading to weakening of marital relationships has often been found to be the presence of an excess age gap between the partners. In general, women may be attracted towards younger men when they find that their husbands are much older which were confirmed from the observations in our study. Sexual gratification is also a motivating factor for the men involved in extramarital relationships. During our study men admitted to such viewpoints, describing it as a way of adding 'fun' to their lives. They were prepared to pay the 'other' women to gain such satisfaction. Interestingly, they did not want to divorce their existing wives, nor were they thinking of marrying their paramour, ostensibly because they were otherwise satisfied with their wives. The paramours in turn, are happy as long as they receive the money. They are not interested in complaining to the wives of the cheating men. On the other hand, the wives prefer to keep silent, possibly because their husbands continue to take care of them. This apparently happy triangle has made extramarital relationships a common part of the social fabric in Sikkim

In general, the effect of extramarital affairs cannot be over emphasised, in that it affects every member of the family including the children. The financial or the economic status of the family is affected. This is because the limited income of the family would have to be shared to feed the family members and the one(s) outside. A person's extravagant spending for his or her lover outside the family may prevent him or her from taking care of his or her family. A spouse involved in extramarital relationships will not have much time for his or her partner and this may lead to loneliness on the part of the cheated one.

7.2 Policy Prescriptions

It is difficult and maybe even improper to set down policy initiatives for preventing people from being in extramarital relationships, as even though such relationships cannot be ethically justified and can have very damaging impacts on the individuals concerned, relationships are a very personal area where legal initiative cannot be supported unless they have criminal ramifications. One way of avoiding such complexities is to make people aware of the dangers posed by such relationships to family bonds, and particularly to the development of children.

Extramarital relationships have been investigated within a variety of perspectives in the literature. It seems like other humanistic research subjects, infidelity researches also have some unanswered questions. Due to the importance of this issue to couple therapists and social psychologists, more research is needed to add to the knowledge about extramarital relationships and collectively to avoid damage to marriages. The husband of an unfaithful wife may lose the entire reproductive capacity of his spouse for at least one childbearing cycle. He also risks long-term investment of resources in a rival's offspring.

Given the prevalence of extramarital relationships and costs associated with infidelity and with divorces, an important empirical issue is what differentiates couples who divorce from those who stay together following infidelity. Thus, more research on extramarital relationships is needed with regards to social psychology. Several gaps were identified during review of literature on extramarital relationships and these present the opportunity for future studies. Due to the important role of extramarital relationships in breaking marriages, more research should explore the other areas related to probability of extramarital relationships. For example further research should be done to investigate the personality traits that can lead to extramarital relationships. Cross-national studies on issues like how job dissatisfaction may relate to the probability of extramarital relationships present another gap in this literature. A further study with more focus on the cues of extramarital relationships is therefore suggested; in other words how can spouses understand the probability of extramarital relationships involving their partners so as to save their marriages.

- Professional counsellors through counseling associations like NGOs should organise enlightenment programmes on mass media on various factors responsible for extramarital

relationships so that married couples and youngster could learn about sexual obligations and challenges that are attached to marriage.

- Counselling programs should be organised by counsellors at higher institution of learning for educating the youth on family, sex and marital counselling so as to better prepare them for their future life.
- Workshops and seminars should be organised for educating married couples on the effect of extramarital relationships on the institution of marriage.
- Married couples could be offered encouragement for making their relationship stronger through films and other audio-visual media.
- In order to minimise the occurrence of the extramarital relationships the women should be highly educated as suggested by the results. This is all the more important because women play a vital role in making a good family. Generally women seem to be more religious, have greater attachment with the social culture and custom and bound by their children. Hence the probability of being involved in such activities is less in case of women compared to men.
- The government, NGOs or religious institutions should design counselling programmes related to the marriage and health issues in both the rural and urban areas so that it could help to repair damages in the marriages which are facing the risk of breakdown.

The fact however remains that given the speed and increasing complexity of modern life, eliminating extramarital relationships can be a daunting prospect. We have already witnessed the breaking up of joint families into nuclear ones, increasing incidents of divorce and ill treatment of elders. Prevalence of extramarital affairs is just one more addition to this lengthening list. This is further catalysed by dominance of technology, the appearance of the 24x7 workplace and the resulting decrease in time that married couples can devote to one another and to their children, if any. This would suggest possible solutions in the form of understanding organisations that allow employees more time to spend with their families and also in pursuing their hobbies or interests, along with supportive families that allow married couples the space to develop and strengthen their relationship.

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