

MOTIVATION FOR PARENTHOOD, NEED SATISFACTION, AND
ROMANTIC LOVE: A COMPARISON BETWEEN PREGNANT
AND NONPREGNANT TEENAGERS

by

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Dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in

Management, Housing and Family Development

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May, 1979

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The completion of this research endeavor is attributed to the interest and cooperation of many individuals concerned with educational and social problems. To the school administrators, principals, guidance counselors, activity directors, and social workers who sanctioned the merits of this study, sincere gratitude is expressed. The same appreciation is extended to the respondents who participated in this study.

This researcher was very fortunate to have had on her doctoral committee the caliber of such professors as Nancy A. Barclay, Dennis E. Hinkle, George H. Hughston, Howard O. Protinsky, and Michael J. Sporakowski, whose teachings and guidance throughout the doctoral program established habits and attitudes essential to dissertation research.

A special debt of gratitude is owed Professor Sporakowski, the committee chairman, whose time, interest, assistance and encouragement during all phases of this challenging study were a source of inspiration.

Special appreciation is expressed to Dr. Hinkle, who provided the type of intellectual guidance that significantly contributes to graduate research. Grateful acknowledgment is expressed to Dr. Barclay, Dr. Hughston, and Dr. Protinsky for the many helpful suggestions and assistance.

Finally, the writer wishes to express thanks to colleagues and friends who contributed to stimulating discussions. A special thanks to her family and daughter, , for the extremely generous support throughout this program.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Each year, one million teenage girls, mostly single, become pregnant. An increasing number of girls are younger than 15 years old. Statistical reports have shown that from 1963 to 1973, births to unmarried, very young females doubled in number. In 1963, 5,500 babies were born to mothers 15 years of age and younger; in 1973, the number climbed to 10,900. During 1975, live births among the 15 to 19 age group totaled 583,238, with the under 15 group accounting for 12,642 live births. Approximately 100,000 pregnancies were terminated by miscarriage, and 300,000 by abortions. A large proportion of live births were to unmarried mothers, 233,500 in 1975. This exceeded the number of out-of-wedlock births to all other age groups combined (National Center for Health Statistics, 1973).

A review of recent issues in teenage pregnancy indicated that the concerns of early childbearing have shifted from a preoccupation with morality and illegitimacy to consideration of the negative consequences faced by the unwed mother and her child (Vincent, 1961; Roberts, 1966; Furstenberg, 1976; Rains, 1971). Medical and physical complications of pregnancy, including anemia, toxemia, and excessive weight gain are usually reported to be much more common among young mothers than in the general population (Drillien, 1959; Schuck, 1978).

The occurrence of infant developmental subnormality and neurological complications are greatly increased within this group. Causes of complications have been related to premature births, complications of pregnancy and the sociologic milieu of the mother (Knoblock & Pasamanick, 1962 and Alan Guttmacher Institute, 1976).

A high incidence of medical complications is generally accompanied by educational and social problems (Johnson, 1974). Teenage pregnancy is often found among girls characterized as high risk students with a long history of disinterest, repeated school absence, and truancy. The girls, on the average are at least one to two years below their normal grade level (Burchinal, 1960). In a study of 400 pregnant girls, Furstenberg (1976) found that the high school completion rate was 50% lower for pregnant girls than that of those who did not become pregnant until after graduation. Many must face a future of poverty, repeated pregnancy and welfare. In 1975, federal and state cash welfare payments to households with teenage mothers, or older women who first gave birth in their teens, totaled \$4.65 billion. The figure represented half of the overall cost of the welfare program for families with dependent children (Moore & Caldwell, 1976).

In a study commissioned by a congressional committee to estimate the cost of teenage childbearing to the government through Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) findings from a survey of 50,000 households revealed that:

Women in AFDC families are substantially more likely to have been teenage mothers. Of all the women aged 14-35 living in AFDC households, 61 percent had had their first child as teenagers, as compared to 35 percent among women living in households with no AFDC recipients. (Moore, 1978:234)

Becoming an unwed mother is a process which forces additional responsibility upon young females during puberty, and causes adverse consequences for the mother, child, her family, and society. Therefore, for the large majority who keep their baby, Campbell stated:

The girl who has an illegitimate child at the age of 16 suddenly has 90% of her life's script written for her. She will probably drop out of school . . . not be able to find a steady job that pays enough to provide for herself and her child; she may feel compelled to marry someone she might not otherwise have chosen. Her life choices are few and most of them are bad. (1968:238)

The conclusion reached by Campbell is debatable in view of the growing trend toward acceptability or at minimum tolerance of pregnant teenagers and their infants. Sol Gordon stated that, "Our social responsibility forces our hand. We must redirect our priorities toward newer research and more thorough education so adolescents can make intelligent choices in a culture that offers many intelligent alternatives" (1973, p. xvii).

In reference to the challenge offered by the teenage pregnancy phenomenon, special congressional committees and research grants have been designated to circumvent some of the negative alternatives associated with teenage pregnancy. To date, more than 375 comprehensive educational, social and medical programs have been established (Furstenber, 1976). Educational services have been

directed toward keeping the girls in the mainstream of normal school life, and minimizing feelings of separatedness (Holmes, Klerman & Gabrielson, 1967; Osofsky, 1968). Medical services have been aimed at protecting the health of the mother and the unborn child (Wright, 1973). Social services were found to be directed toward informing the teenager and her family of options and services available through counseling, and providing technical assistance in obtaining services from agencies (Gabriel, 1975). Other intervention programs have included family life education, which incorporated mate selection, human sexuality, family planning and parent education (Weigle, 1974). The latter topic has been important in program planning since the majority of pregnant teenagers who carry the pregnancy to term want and keep their babies.

The Problem Area

For many women, motherhood appears to be a natural occurrence in the course of their lives (Silverman, 1971). Motherhood is frequently viewed as the supreme state for a woman. The conditions under which it is brought about may be ignored after the child is born. This may be especially true in the case of the teenage mother who is often forgiven for making one mistake. The unwed mother may violate moral standards, but in giving birth, she has fulfilled an important American value, and may be less condemned than tolerated (Bowerman, Irish, & Pope, 1966).

The increasing incidence of pregnancy among teenagers, and their desire to keep the baby, rather than relinquish for adoption, have stimulated interest in the psychological phenomenon of parenthood. Young (1954) set forth the proposition that an adolescent girl may easily have sexual relations with a resultant pregnancy out of either ignorance or lack of adult self-control. However, in her experience with young girls, she observed that the girls had had unhappiness and problems in their lives which led directly to the conception.

Some teenagers with poor parent-child relationships have expressed a longing to have a baby so that finally someone (the baby) can give them love. "Another reason that I have been offered is that a boyfriend will really love me and stay with me for sure now" (Honig, 1978, p. 116). Being a mother has sometimes been viewed as being free of supervision by parents and teachers. However, Connolly (1975) observed that the majority of teenage mothers remain in the family home and are restricted because of the demands of child care.

At present only about 15% of school age mothers make their babies available for adoption (Nye, 1977). For lonely, unhappy female adolescents there can be much satisfaction in caring for a newborn, but as the child grows older, not many teenage mothers can meet the child's needs (Schwartz, 1975). A mother who is gambling on the possibility that becoming a parent will solve certain personal problems may find that by having a child she is compounding

her troubles. If having a child is not the answer, then she not only has her original difficulty to overcome, but also the responsibility for a child that she does not want (Connolly, 1975).

Nicholas (1977) noted that motherhood is a process about which there is much confusion. Feelings, attitudes, and values undergo continuous change. For many, motherhood is not synonymous with an idealized state of joy and fulfillment (Brackbill, 1974). Pregnancy and early motherhood may be viewed as a series of developmental tasks, each of which represents, for the woman a unique stress or conflict which must be adaptively resolved (Leifer, 1977).

Today, one out of every ten girls in the United States gives birth to a baby before reaching 18. Most are unprepared for the experience of being pregnant. Moreover, few teenagers have an adequate idea of what it means to be a parent (Howard, 1975).

During an investigation of low income teenage females, Furstenberg (1976) found that most did not want to become pregnant. However, peer pressure, boyfriend insistence, early dating, frequent dating, and lack of contraceptive knowledge led to the pregnancy. Armistead (1978) and Bieber (1963) found that abortion and adoption were unacceptable alternatives to the majority of pregnant teenagers. The question of motivation for parenthood remains unanswered. Fawcett (1970) noted that studies designed to investigate psychological motives, values, attitudes toward childbearing are rare. "There does not exist a coherent, cumulative body of psychological research dealing with this central human event" (p. 58).

Blake, Insko, Cialdini, and Chaikan (1969) suggested that assessing attitude toward childbearing within a motivational context may lead to new insights in the area of reproduction. Wyatt (1967) stated that reproduction is an event defined on several psychological levels, and as a hierarchy of needs.

Research Problem

Are there differences among Motivation for Parenthood, perception of need satisfaction, and romantic love attitudes between pregnant and nonpregnant teenagers?

Purpose

The purpose of this research was to measure attitudinal differences between pregnant and nonpregnant teenagers. Comparisons were made of attitudes in the following areas: (1) motivation for parenthood, (2) perception of need satisfaction, and (3) romantic love.

Hypotheses

- I. There are no differences between pregnant and nonpregnant teenagers based on the following variables:
 - A. Motivation for parenthood
 - B. Perception of need satisfaction
 - C. Romantic love attitudes

- II. There are no differences, based on age, among pregnant teenagers when compared on:
 - A. Motivation for parenthood
 - B. Perception of need satisfaction
 - C. Romantic love attitudes
- III. There is no relationship among motivation for parenthood, perception of need satisfaction, and romantic love attitudes for the pregnant teenage group.
- IV. There are no differences in relationships among motivation for parenthood, perception of need satisfaction, and romantic love attitudes for the pregnant teenage group and the non-pregnant teenage group.

Definition of Terms

Motivation for parenthood: the reasons why a person would want to have a child. Motives will be divided into four response categories as defined by the Child Study Inventory (Rabin and Green, 1965).

- A. Altruistic (A): unselfish motivation for parenthood, related to affection and concern for children.
- B. Fatalistic (F): predestination, expressed in the notion that man or woman was brought into the world to procreate and perpetuate the species.
- C. Narcissistic (N): refers to the expectation that the child will reflect glory upon the parent and prove his/her physical, biological and psychological adequacy.
- D. Instrumental (I): the child has utility and is a means to an end in the achievement of parental goals.

Perception of need satisfaction: a measure of affection and belonging; and self-esteem and self-worth as defined by the Need Satisfaction Schedule Levels III and IV (Lollar, 1973).

Romantic love: a strong attachment and attraction to one person; expectation of sexual loyalty and the potential for sexual jealousy, extremes of mood elation, and at times depression, and idealization of the loved one as defined by the Knox-Sporakowski Attitudes Towards Love scale.

Conjugal love: intense feeling of two people for each other, which involves bodily, emotional, and intellectual identification as measured on the Knox-Sporakowski Attitudes Toward Love scale (1968).

Out-of-wedlock pregnancy: term used to categorize pregnancies of married as well as single teenagers, since the majority of teenage marriages occur as a result of a pregnancy.

Assumptions

For this study it was assumed that the vast majority of teenage pregnancies were unplanned. It was also assumed that the majority of pregnant teenagers planned to keep their children at birth. It was further assumed that sexual intercourse was a result of casual and love relationships among teenage couples. Teenagers engage in sexual intercourse for affectionate need fulfillment, sexual gratification, fun and peer conformity.

Delimitations

This study did not investigate contraceptive knowledge, attitudes, and practice among pregnant teenagers. This information has been made available from a national survey of teenagers. In

addition, the pregnant and nonpregnant teenage samples were taken from a public school system in Virginia, which did not offer instruction in sex education. Since sex education was not a part of the school curriculum, sex related questions may have been considered controversial and prohibited.

Students comprising the study group were located in one area of Virginia, therefore findings from this study are not necessarily generalizable to other groups of pregnant and nonpregnant girls.

The sample included only females which limits understanding the male contribution to the problematic area. A different study may assess the degree, if any to which males pressure females to keep the baby rather than choosing abortion or adoption alternatives.

Importance of the Study

Teenage pregnancy and motherhood may be viewed as life crises that offer a potential for growth and reworking old problems and assuming greater maturity. There is the potential to help girls achieve a new awareness of themselves by helping them to become sensitive to goals, needs and wishes. This could occur particularly when young mothers are given help in making decisions during pregnancy and early motherhood. Those working with pregnant teens could offer assistance in decision making and adjustments to pregnancy and parenthood by understanding the teens' motives and needs that were measured during this investigation.

Knowledge of motivation, if any, toward parenthood could be useful in assessing the future parent-child relationship. Teenagers who have grown up in highly punitive, erratic or indifferent family situations may have less confidence and fewer internal resources to help them deal responsibly with parenting (Honig, 1978). If intervention is not offered when needed, poor parenting may be passed on as a legacy to the new infant. A better understanding of the level at which the pregnant teenagers are presently functioning can help professionals, and others, work more effectively in helping them acquire an increasingly accurate and realistic perception of their needs as a maturing individual and as a parent. The findings could also be used in programs aimed at decreasing the number of young teenage mothers.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of literature related to this study will include theoretical frameworks, summaries and conclusions of studies and articles. First a historical overview of theoretical approaches used to study the problematic area will be presented. Secondly, the review will identify studies incorporating variables related to motives, needs, and attitudes on teenage parenthood, need satisfaction and romantic love conceptualization.

Historical Overview

Various factors have led to a basic dichotomy in theoretical explanations concerning the causes of out-of-wedlock pregnancy. Theories have tended to develop in two schools, each of which focused on a specific ethnic group. Beginning in the forties those who argued for a social explanation tended to look at social forces operating in the lower socioeconomic subculture or black culture. The second explanation grew out of the clinical experiences of social workers, psychologists, and psychiatrists during the fifties, and were based upon individual case histories. Their clients were mostly white members of the middle and stable working classes. During the sixties and continuing into the seventies consideration of the unmarried mother and the social structure began to appear in

studies of unwed mothers (Vincent, 1961; Roberts, 1966). As the social structure changes so does the nature of the problem of unscheduled pregnancy.

Sociological Views

Sociologically oriented writers have contended that out-of-wedlock pregnancy is a cultural phenomenon, and that women who bear children before they marry are following an accepted social practice within their group (Rainwater, 1966; Rodman, 1977). The speculation that "illicit sexual behavior is learned through identification and interaction with other persons within intimate personal groups" was suggested by Vincent (1961:243). The concept was based on Sutherland's differential association. He argued that the incidence of unwed motherhood is a function of a person's socio-economic position as well as professional, religious and political affiliation.

A breakdown in the socialization process, which resulted in the application of anomie theory by Goode (1960) offered another sociological explanation. He pointed out that Western standards prevent full assimilation into the majority cultures, therefore different groups have varying degrees of access to social rewards gained through acculturation and assimilation into the dominant culture.

Malinowski maintained that cultures which have high illegitimacy

rates are considered to be sociologically deviant. An understanding of the higher rates, he contended, depends upon knowledge of the social forces which have prevented these groups from conforming to the norm of legitimacy (1964).

Harold Christensen (1960) stated that intercultural norms which relate to premarital sex, and moral standards depend upon the reference culture. A comparison of Denmark, Utah and Indiana indicated that in cases of premarital pregnancy, each sampled area interpreted the problem according to moral codes in the area. In Denmark there was no pressure to marry because of pregnancy. Most premaritally pregnant couples put off the marriage until after the child was born. Indianans tended to marry immediately after the pregnancy was confirmed to hide the fact from the public. Couples in Utah, because of religious sanctions, tend to marry after initiation of sexual intercourse to prevent a premarital pregnancy. In noting that the behavioral standards vary over time and from society to society Christensen applied William Sumner's theory of cultural relativism to premarital sex norms. It challenged the notion of absolute standards, and enabled researchers to view the particular culture relative to its norms regarding sexual standards. The findings also noted changes in standards over a period of time. Vincent (1961) assumed that illegitimacy would increase as individuals come to have a more favorable definition of illicit coition. He charged that American society, through emphasis on sexual stimulation,

encouraged permissiveness. Another speculation was that cultures which contain contradictory norms such as permissiveness toward non-marital sexual intercourse and condemnation of illegitimacy would have high illegitimacy rates. Such cultures would see the act of illegitimacy and not the act of promiscuity as bad. As the United States becomes more sexually permissive, Vincent (1976) predicted that teenage pregnancy would increase. The Kantner and Zelnik survey (1976) confirmed this prediction. As of 1971, three out of ten women aged 15 to 19 had experienced sexual intercourse; by 1976, four in ten had had premarital intercourse. There was an increase in the proportion of whites who experienced premarital pregnancy and very little change for blacks. There is also a trend toward earlier sex experimentation among all teenagers.

In a sample of 206 college adolescents, Reiss observed that:

Another indication of the change of standards can be obtained by noting that although about eighty-five percent of all females start out by accepting either kissing with affection or kissing without affection, about nine out of every ten of these girls accept either petting (65 percent) or coitus (25 percent) by about the age of twenty-one (1967:109).

Most girls in his sample experienced at least two shifts toward a more permissive standard during the course of dating. Reiss further observed, that 87% of the girls in his sample held guilt feelings about sexual behavior that they later came to accept. Since indications of increased sexual activity and permissiveness has been found among young as well as older adolescents, it may be speculated,

that as society changes, attitudes change, accompanied by behavioral changes.

In an investigation of 392 college student's knowledge of contraceptive devices and techniques, and their attitudes toward premarital sexual permissiveness, Del Campo, Sporkowski and Del Campo (1976) found that respondents who began dating the earliest held more permissive attitudes toward premarital sex, and knew less about birth control. This finding supports Reiss' data on permissiveness. When knowledge of birth control was correlated with family income, findings indicated that no relationship existed between income and sexual permissiveness.

Summary

Those who presented a sociological explanation of out-of-wedlock pregnancy assumed a cross-cultural position. The phenomenon has been subjected to the value system and norms of the group within which it occurred (Vincent, 1961; Christensen, 1960). Goode (1961) explained that a contradictory attitude was due to the destruction of native cultures, plus the erection of quasi-caste barriers. He noted that the barriers have prevented the full achievement or complete acceptance of Western standards, and have led to an incomplete socialization process that permits many ethnic subcultures a cultural, but not a social, assimilation. This and similar explanations offer little in the way of understanding the increased sexual activity among all teenagers and the rising occurrence of

out-of-wedlock pregnancy among adolescents 15 years and younger since 1960 (Baldwin, 1977). The sociological causal factors are far from being inclusive, although they may partially explain the systematic variation in rates of behavior among groups within society.

Psychological Views

The second major theoretical viewpoint which has attempted to explain unwed motherhood is psychological in its nature. Studies were based on clientele who placed the infant for adoption, obtained psychological counseling, and some girls in school settings.

Reports of previous studies indicated that having a child out-of-wedlock resulted from the females acting out a hidden wish or deep-seated conflict (Young, 1954). Although there are contradictory findings, the array of psychological conflicts based on research efforts may be labeled as inner conflicts (Terkelsen, 1964), serious personality or behavioral inadequacy (Pearson & Amacher, 1956), anxiety (May, 1950) and severe emotional deprivation (Nielsen & Motto, 1963). Some of the efforts involved systematized clinical observations, while others included chart reviews, interviewing and psychological tests.

In 1941, Kasanin and Handschin reported their findings from a study of 16 unmarried mothers, seven of whom had more than one out-of-wedlock child. They studied social agency and psychiatric clinic case records, discussed the mother's background with the

caseworker or therapist, and either conducted or arranged for psychiatric diagnostic and treatment interviews. They concluded:

On the basis of these data, and especially on the basis of the fact that pregnancy and birth of the child seem to be quite apart from the rest of the girl's personality and interest, the authors offer the hypothesis that these pregnancies represent hysterical dissociation states in which the girls act out their incest phantasies or an expression of the Oedipus situation. (p. 83)

The authors were unable to state to what degree their findings could be generalized to the general population of young unmarried mothers.

A major psychoanalytic study by Leontine Young (1954), however, reported findings from observations and case histories of hundreds of unmarried mothers. She reported that the individuals had more than average difficulty in adjusting to society. The sexual experience from which the pregnancy resulted frequently occurred at a time of stress in the girl's life. In short term and the more enduring relationships, rarely did the girls show an interest in the man as a person. This lack of interest and denial also existed in the area of contraception. A girl could not make use of contraceptive devices without admitting to herself that she had some interest in sexual activity with a male.

Young observed that the unmarried mothers wanted to have a baby regardless of the consequences for herself or for others, but was completely unconscious of that wish. Her desire and interest centered on having a baby almost to the exclusion of the fact that the baby would develop beyond infancy. "The fact that a baby inevitably

becomes a child is another of those facts that she ignores as irrelevant" (p. 37). Often the baby was rejected after birth. The mother only focused on her personal problems, and could not consider that the baby had needs of its own. Young stated that:

One thing is clear. The baby is not desired for herself but as a symbol, as a means to an end. Precisely what he symbolizes and for what end he is to be used can be discovered at least in part from the girl's attitude toward him and what she does with him. Obviously, he must serve some extremely important purpose for her He is the focal point of her unconscious fantasy; she must seek to force him to fulfill that purpose for which he was conceived. (p. 38)

Loesch and Greenberg (1962) found evidence of significant alterations in the lives of 31 maternity home residents just prior to conception. They reported that:

In general, these alterations fell into the category of object losses, involving such events as the death of a parent, some other significant relative, or a boyfriend; separation from parents through other means; threatened separation from significant persons; or the loss of a valued job or other position. These losses were often accompanied by depressive reactions of the part of the subjects, who were in general prone to highly dependent, at times almost anaclitic relationships. A conscious wish for pregnancy was observed in at least one-third of the subjects as was often associated in their minds with the idea of enforcing continuation of a threatened relationship. (p. 627)

Loesch and Greenberg also reported that the psychopathologies observed in the unwed mothers were not present in the 22 married women included in the study. This report could be biased against the unmarried mothers, since the comparison group was taken from a sample of medical student wives. The married group differed in

socioeconomic economic status, and age. The group was four to five years older than the unmarried sample.

Eysenck (1961) administered psychological tests to 100 married and 100 unmarried primiparas after the birth of their babies. Included were 24 extraversion and 24 neuroticism questions taken from the Maudsley Personality Inventory. The findings revealed that married mothers had higher extroversion and lower neuroticism scores as compared with the general population mean. The unmarried mothers tended to be extroverted and more neurotic than the general population.

Another well known book, Unmarried Mothers, was published in 1961. Clark Vincent presented a comprehensive picture of 100 unmarried mothers and 100 single-never-pregnant females. They were matched for age, education, religion, parents' education and father's occupation. The California Psychological Inventory was administered to the two groups. The CPI data consistently indicated less positive personality profiles for the unwed mother than for the single-never-pregnant females, however, the differences were small. Based on the findings Vincent concluded that, "Unwed motherhood is not the result of any one personality type, intra-familial relationships, or social situation" (p. 179).

Another study in which psychological tests were used was reported by Nielsen and Motto (1963). The subjects were unmarried mothers in a Florence Crittenton Home. Their findings revealed evidence of severe emotional deprivation among those in the study

group. In the Draw-A-Person Test, an absent relationship with fathers was a general finding. In most drawings the male parent appeared faceless with detached feet. Strokosch (1975) found that father absence or unavailability could cause the adolescent girls to become attached to another male to affirm her femininity. He also noted a frequency of object loss prior to pregnancy. He concluded that few teenage pregnancies derive from a healthy, mature desire for motherhood.

Butman and Kamm (1965) conducted a follow-up study of black and white girls from a normal high school population. They asked girls to fill out a questionnaire and subsequently followed each girl who withdrew from high school. A follow-up interview was held with each girl and her parents. They concluded that girls who leave school are oriented toward marriage as an immediate goal, are alienated from the reward system and are inactive in the various socializing activities of the school. The girls also were psychologically involved and committed to a relationship with a boy. If the girl's own standards were lenient in terms of sex behavior, and if their level of accurate sex information was low and from non-normatively oriented sources, they were likely to become pregnant out-of-wedlock. The girls who did not engage in sex relations were more likely to see the schools as relevant to her future and to be more active in socializing activities in the school. This investigation contradicts the findings in one area of Young's (1954) study, which

reported evidence of non-significant female and male relationships, and sociological implications are suggested.

In 1967, Edwards and Jones presented the results of a comparison of MMPI scores of 101 unmarried pregnant females who placed their children for adoption, 20 unmarried mothers who kept their infants, 24 married pregnant women, and 168 unmarried, never pregnant student nurses. The average age for the group was 19 years. The findings appeared to support the hypothesis that women who bear a child out-of-wedlock obtain MMPI mean scores which indicate a greater degree of psychopathology than married pregnant women or a female normative group.

Summary

A single causation explanation cannot be drawn from the findings presented. For the most part, psychologically oriented investigations ranged from loosely defined observations, case studies and psychological testing to formally defined research efforts. Many of the reports presented evidence of marked emotional disturbance, while others concluded that there were no differences between pregnant and non-pregnant females. Most authors did not presume to generalize for all unmarried mothers from their limited samples, yet the conclusions were presented as such.

The studies can be grouped into three categories. The first are studies that describe a group of unmarried mothers. The second

category includes the problem oriented studies such as that presented by Young (1954). The third category include those studies which fit the scheme of a defined research problem such as presented by Clark Vincent (1961). Additional studies are needed which will derive propositions from which hypotheses can be developed and tested.

Scientific investigations could increase understanding and help reduce the incidence of teenage pregnancy. It seems improbable that a single explanation will be revealed; however, further hypotheses could be tested, which could lead to relationships between psychological variables associated with teenage pregnancy that could be more generalizable.

Generally, psychological theories have not been applied to groups with the highest illegitimacy rates. Minorities and lower class women have consistently shown little interest in releasing their children for adoption. Therefore, the population groups which have held the highest illegitimacy rate were underrepresented in agency based samples generated from adoption files (Roberts, 1966).

Related Literature

The literature review has presented contradictory findings, some of which will be tested through statistical analysis in this investigation. Young (1954) reported for example, that the unmarried mother unconsciously desired a baby, to keep as a possession and symbol, without regard to marital status or meaningful relationship

with a male. Butman and Kamm (1965) however stated that a meaningful heterosexual relationship was one condition in predicting teenage pregnancy. Rice (1979) wrote that, ". . . the majority of youth today want sex with affection, not without it, and insist that love and sex should go together, because sex then is an expression of love" (p. 110). Rains (1971) findings concurred with Butman and Kamm. She observed that the condition of love, and the dating pattern of serial monogamy, led to sexual participation in qualitative stages over time. Ladner (1971) also found the existence of a love relationship in a sample of ghetto girls participating in sexual activities. Spanier (1975) and Furstenberg (1976) noted that a high dating frequency among teenaged girls, correlated with sexual involvement, and the development of a love relationship consequently led to sexual involvement. Wilkerson (1978) stated that, ". . . the society socializes its members to believe that romantic love, marriage, and sexual relations belong together" (p. 147). He further noted that:

One function of romantic love is to help persons feel needed, special, unique and important. In societies that tend to make persons feel lonely and individually unimportant there would be a high degree of romantic love (p. 142).

In a recent article, "Little Mothers," Connolly (1975) argued that the availability of birth control methods seem to have little impact upon the number of out-of-wedlock births. Babies were viewed as a form of love insurance against loneliness by the teenage mothers. Biegel (1951) stated that love is an expression of a social-psychological process that attempts to reconcile basic human needs and

frustrating social conditions. Rice (1979) also noted that a form of dependent love develops when intense psychological needs have been previously denied and are fulfilled by the lover. Maslow (1962) emphasized that love can develop when personal needs are fulfilled by another. If Biegel's statement and other research findings are true, it appears that a measurement of pregnant teenagers' attitudes toward love should be assessed. It also appears that a relationship between love and need satisfaction may exist and merit testing.

In a study by Sitkin (1972) of 35 pregnant and 30 non-pregnant girls findings indicated that pregnancy resulted from a search for closeness and personal affirmation. The girls tended to have poorly developed ego strength and minimal expectations for the future. A high percentage of broken homes were observed in the sample of teenage girls. Only one-third of the girls reported that they used contraceptives consistently. The major hypothesis tested was that early pregnancies were due to a lack of hope and faith in a productive, fulfilling adult future. Bruce (1978) stated that in a society where futurity is low, a high rate of childbearing will occur during adolescence.

Zelnic and Kantner (1978) found that 81% of the black and white teenagers in their sample had no desire to become pregnant, but did not use birth control devices. Of the 249 teenage mothers, fewer than one-fourth reported that they intended to become pregnant.

Many possible factors could enter into a teenager's decision to engage in unprotected intercourse. The literature suggested a desire for love and affection, goal attainment, personal possession, affirmation of femininity, peer pressure, sexual standards, role models, perception of self-worth, sex education and fulfillment of unmet needs. This research does not seek to explain the pregnancy phenomenon. It is evident that no single cause exists; however, information concerning the needs and attitudes of pregnant teenagers could be useful in assisting girls who desire to carry the pregnancy to term, and in establishing preventive programs.

For the purpose of this investigation it was postulated that no significant relationships exist between pregnant and non-pregnant teenagers on motivations for parenthood, perception of need satisfaction and romantic love attitudes. Based on the review of literature related to the sociological orientations toward out-of-wedlock parenthood, it appeared that reference group identifications such as race, age, educational status, and family background may influence attitudes. Therefore, the effects of those variables were controlled. However, findings were reported and differences noted when the two groups showed contrasts in sociological orientations.

Chapter 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The review of literature documented the fact that many approaches have been employed to study the phenomenon of teenage pregnancy. Psychological and sociological causes and factors associated with the early pregnancy include motives, needs, attitudes, and environment. The purpose of this investigation was to measure and compare variables which had not been previously studied with the target group. This research measured and compared attitudinal differences between pregnant and nonpregnant teenagers on romantic love, motivation for parenthood, and perception of need satisfaction.

Sample

A total of 192 pregnant and nonpregnant teenagers participated in this survey. The subjects were students enrolled in junior and senior high schools in the City of Norfolk, Virginia. The Norfolk City School System was selected on the following bases: (1) the schools were racially balanced with ethnic groups that represented the city's population; and, (2) the school system operated a continuing education program for pregnant teenagers enrolled in the public schools.

The City of Norfolk, Virginia is located in the Hampton Roads area of Southeastern Virginia. It has a land area of 53 square miles and is almost completely surrounded by water. Norfolk is a city of contrasts. It has a transient population because of the large navy

population, yet it has attracted a large, stable population. The population is currently 276,000: representing 69% whites, 30% blacks, and 1% Asiatics. The school population statistics of Norfolk vary considerably from the general population statistics. The school membership is as follows: 44% whites, 54% blacks, and 2% Asiatics.

There were ten junior and five senior high schools in the city. In addition to the junior and senior high schools, there were four Continuing Education Centers for pregnant teenagers. School assignment for pregnant girls who preferred not to remain in their regular school was made on the basis of residential location. Therefore, each center was comprised of students from the various high schools throughout the city.

The senior high school with the largest number of pregnant teenagers in the Continuing Education Program was selected to obtain data for the control group. There were 17 pregnant teenagers in the junior high school group from various schools; therefore, selection of the junior high school was an arbitrary choice by the investigator. All Continuing Education Centers were included in the survey to obtain data from the pregnant teenage group. There were a total of 105 in the control group and 87 in the pregnant teenage group.

Administration of the Instrument

Prior to administering the instrument, appropriate school administrators were contacted. The research specialist, director of psychological services, principals, and activity directors granted permission

for the survey to be conducted with the stipulation that only volunteers who had obtained parental permission should participate.

The pregnant teenagers were the first group to be administered the instrument. This procedure was followed in order to match the two groups by age. The instrument was administered to the first group of volunteers during their weekly group counseling meeting. It was administered by the social work technician one week after parental permission letters were sent home and returned. The instrument was administered during the first and second nine weeks grading period. Prior to data collection, the investigator met with the social work technicians to discuss the survey. The questionnaire was reviewed, and general instruction sheets were provided each technician.

In the nonpregnant teenage group, volunteers were sought and parental permission letters were sent home the day before data collection. A total of four classes were surveyed on two different days. Those students who returned the permission slip were given the questionnaire to complete. Other students remained in the classroom and studied. The classes were comprised of male and female students. Only female responses were utilized. Questionnaires completed by males were placed in a separate folder to avoid mixing the two groups. Four classes were surveyed in each school in an attempt to match the number of nonpregnant teenagers with pregnant teenagers in the specified age categories. The investigator administered the instrument in both the junior and senior high schools. Instruction sheets were made available to each subject to decrease the probability of conflicting information.

Description of the Instrument

Instruments which have been used in previous research were employed in measuring the dependent variables in this investigation. The instruments were: (1) the Child Study Inventory (Rabin, 1965); (2) the Attitudes Towards Love Scale (Knox and Sporkowski, 1968), and, (3) the Need Satisfaction Schedule (Lollar, 1973).

The three instruments and 24 questions to assess demographic characteristics were combined into one questionnaire. The completed questionnaire was comprised of 83 items. The instrument was pre-tested with a group of teenagers in a comprehensive school-based pregnant teens program. Comments regarding item clarity and student's ability to comprehend the instrument were used in revision of the final instrument. As a result of the pretest, it became apparent that the students had minimum or no knowledge regarding family income. Kerckhoff, Mason & Poss (1973) found that children were not generally knowledgeable of family income. When reports were given by children and checked with parental reports, they were often inflated. With this in mind, subjects were asked to give parent's level of education and occupation instead of an estimate of family income. Students were asked to indicate other information including race, age, grade level, religion, number of friends, and living arrangements on the questionnaire.

Attitudes Toward Love

The Attitudes Towards Love scale (Knox and Sporakowski, 1968) was developed for the purposes of: (1) employing a scale to facilitate the study of the attitudes toward love of the unmarried; and, (2) examining the attitudes toward love of college students in relation to (a) sex, (b) class, (c) engagement, (d) sex education, (e) relationship with parent of the opposite sex, (f) social class, (g) number of previous loves, (h) being in love, (i) curriculum in school, (j) parent's marital status and (k) religion. A dichotomy of romantic and nonromantic love was established. Nonromantic love was referred to as conjugal love. Conjugal love was defined as the intense feeling of two people for each other, which involves bodily, emotional, and intellectual identification (Koos, 1953). Romantic love was characterized as indifference to custom, tradition, class, and religion in selecting a marriage partner. The feelings associated with it are true love comes only once, love is strange and incomprehensible, lovers are completely absorbed with each other, jealousy varies directly with seriousness of love, and true love is eternal (Gross, 1944).

In developing the instrument, Knox and Sporakowski constructed 200 items representing materials written about love in the fields of sociology, psychology, marriage and family living, family relationships, adolescent behavior, and psychiatry. The items were submitted to a panel of professionals in the field of marriage and family living.

Eighty-five items were selected as being either "romantic" or "conjugal" in nature with a 70% or greater agreement per item by the judges.

An instrument was constructed based on a five-point continuum with a total of 85 items. A value of one was assigned to the items which indicated the most romantic attitude, and a value of five assigned to the most conjugal response. Total scores were derived from the instrument, and an item analysis was compiled. The scores were divided into quartiles with the first and fourth quartile comprising the criterion groups for the item analysis. A chi-square analysis was made to determine items which differentiated between high and low scoring students. Twenty-nine items were statistically significant at the .01 level. A test-retest reliability measure yielded a 78.4% agreement over a one-week time interval.

Hinkle and Sporakowski (1975) employed factor analysis to test the unidimensionality of the original Knox-Sporakowski scale. Results indicated that the scale was unidimensional based on a factor loading of .30416 or greater. Additional analysis found that three inter-correlated subscales exist in the instrument. Based upon a review of the items, the subscales were: Traditional Love-One Person; Love Overcomes All; and, Irrationality. The present study used the unidimensional scale model.

The Attitudes Toward Love Scale was used to measure the tendency of a subject to view love in a romantic versus conjugal or realistic manner. More specifically each type of love was defined as follows:

romantic love is the love of longing, the condition or readiness to look upon another in a favorable light all the time. It is the anticipation of fulfillment forever which does not hint of a doubt or flair. On the other hand, conjugal love is the love of a satisfaction, the condition of readiness to look upon another in a favorable light most of the time with the understanding that the light may occasionally dim and flicker (Knox, 1971:3).

The instrument was scored by adding the numbers circled. The responses range from "Strongly Agree" to "Strongly Disagree." One is the most romantic response and five is the most conjugal or realistic response. The lower the score, the more romantic the respondent is in his attitude. The higher score will indicate a more conjugal or realistic attitude. A score of 29 is the lowest possible score and 145 is the highest possible score.

The instrument was selected on the basis of prior use with adolescents, research, validity, reliability, and ease of administration (Knox, 1970, 1971; Hinkle and Sporkowski, 1975). Also the concept of love from which the items were constructed has been determined to be the best instrument to measure romantic love, as it is portrayed in our mass media. Ellis (1970) noted that the media are full assertions which imply that romantic love is irrational and illogical with mystical power over men and women.

Motivation for Parenthood

The Child Study Inventory is an instrument designed to assess motivation for parenthood (Rabin and Green, 1965). In constructing the instrument, Rabin and Green sought responses from 200 undergraduate

students to a 30-item incomplete sentence test. The sentence items dealt with a variety of questions related to parenthood, expectations of parents in relation to their children, and motivation for parenthood. A partial analysis of the items yielded the following classifications and descriptions as motives for parenthood:

1. Altruistic (A): responses classified in this category refer to unselfish motivation for parenthood--simply, affection for children, concern for them, and the need to express nurturance in relation to them.

2. Fatalistic (F): or predestination, expressed the notion that man (or woman) was brought into the world to procreate and perpetuate the species; it is in "the order of things." It is preordained--part of fate and human destiny.

3. Narcissistic (N): motivation refers to the expectation that the child will reflect glory upon the parent, prove his masculinity (or her femininity) and, generally, "prove" his physical, biological, and psychological adequacy.

4. Instrumental (I): under this rubric come the responses which indicate that the child has utility, is to be used as a means to an end. He is "instrumental" in the sense that he is expected to be employed as a vehicle in the achievement of specific parental goals not listed under the narcissistic category.

Based on the above categorization an 18-item semiprojective multiple-choice research instrument, to measure motivation for parenthood was devised. The procedure was as follows:

(1) Five judges were given descriptions of the categories and asked to place the completion items in the appropriate classification. Four of the judges classified the choices without error. The fifth judge reached consensus at a subsequent judging.

(2) Subjects ranked the responses in order of preference.

(3) Scoring consisted of adding the ranks for each category, with the lower weight indicating greater emphasis. The scores for each category may range from 14 to 56. Four filler-items were included in the instrument and were not a part of the scoring.

(4) The order of choices under each item was randomly arranged so that the sequence of categories varies from item to item.

In order to test the reliability of the instrument, the test-retest method was employed. Thirty-three subjects were re-examined with the Child Study Inventory after two and a half weeks had elapsed since their original examination. A coefficient of correlation of .97 for the entire instrument was obtained using the product-moment correlation coefficient.

The consistency of scores on the four motivational categories was investigated. The total ranks for all items resulted in the following coefficients of correlation: .54 fatalistic, .68 narcissistic, .53 instrumental, and .79 altruistic. All coefficients were statistically significant at the .01 level.

An attempt was made to form categories that would be as mutually exclusive as possible. However some overlap remained. The narcissistic and instrumental categories have some common elements. To

overcome that, responses were formulated in such a way so that there would be little doubt about classification.

The instrument has been used in previous research with parents of disturbed and adjusted children to determine if the two groups of parents had different motives for parenthood. Findings indicated that parents of adjusted children scored higher on the altruistic variable than parents of disturbed children. No differences were found between parents on the fatalistic variable (Major, 1967). Green (1967) found that mothers of disturbed children preferred the instrumental and narcissistic responses.

This instrument was selected on the basis of prior utilization in research, ease of administration and scoring, subscales which classify motives for parenthood, validity and reliability and construction of items. The working of items makes it appropriate for teenage subjects and does not imply that parenthood is exclusively female related.

The final profile consists of a total score for each category (minimum 14 and maximum 56). A low score indicates high preference for a given category.

Perception of Need Satisfaction

The Need Satisfaction Schedule (Lollar, 1973) is a 32-item forced-choice (yes, no) instrument. It was developed to assess perceived need satisfaction utilizing a sample of 200 adolescents. The items are based on the lower four levels of the Maslow need

hierarchy--physiological, physical safety and security, affection-belonging, and self-esteem-worth. Each level is represented by a sub-scale of eight items. Scoring of each level is obtained by adding together the number of responses indicating satisfaction of a particular need area. Scoring range is from 0 to 8. The instrument was developed for use with delinquent adolescents. After a 10-day period test-retest reliability was established at .78. Validation through one-way analysis of variance by levels for the total sample was calculated ($F = 8.95$).

The instrument was selected because it contained items to measure variables indicated in the review of literature. For example, studies found that teenage girls were searching for love, affection, a possession, and a sense of purpose or a goal (Connolly, 1975; Young, 1954). The instrument utilized Levels III and IV of the Need Satisfaction Schedule to measure perception of need satisfaction in the areas of affection and belonging, III; and self-esteem and self-worth, IV.

Analysis of the Data

Descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages, and mean scores were utilized in order to describe the general characteristics of the subjects. Since two types of variables were incorporated in this investigation, an independent variable which was nominal, and an interval level dependent variable, analysis of variance for one-way classification was deemed appropriate. Correlational analysis was used to describe the degree of relationship between variables.

The t-test was found appropriate for testing the significance of the correlation between sets of paired observations. The differences between the correlation coefficients for two groups were tested using the Fisher's z transformation because the two correlation coefficients were obtained from two independent samples.

Hypotheses and Analytic Procedures

The following Hypotheses were tested:

Hypothesis I: There are no differences between pregnant and non-pregnant teenagers based on the following variables:

- A. Motivation for parenthood
- B. Perception of need satisfaction
- C. Romantic love attitudes

Hypothesis II: There are no differences, based on age, among pregnant teenagers when compared on:

- A. Motivation for parenthood
- B. Perception of need satisfaction
- C. Romantic love attitudes

Hypothesis III: There is no relationship among motivation for parenthood, perception of need satisfaction, and romantic love attitudes for the pregnant teenage group.

Hypothesis IV: There are no differences in relationships among motivation for parenthood, perception of need satisfaction, and romantic love attitudes for the pregnant teenage group and the non-pregnant teenage group.

Hypotheses I and II were tested utilizing the one-way analysis of variance. Mean scores for the two groups were compared for statistical significance. When the F-ratio was calculated, the .05 alpha level was used as the basis for rejection.

To test Hypothesis III, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were computed for the pregnant teenage group. Those coefficients were tested for significance utilizing the t-test.

Hypothesis IV was tested by computing Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients for the nonpregnant group. The differences between correlation coefficients for the two groups were tested for significance utilizing the Fisher's z transformation. The alpha level was set at .05.

Chapter 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of the research was to measure and compare attitudinal differences between pregnant and nonpregnant teenagers in the following areas: (1) motivation for parenthood, (2) perception of need satisfaction, and (3) romantic love. A total of 192 female students enrolled in Norfolk City Schools participated in the study. A description of the sample is presented in Table 1. Fifty-five percent of the total sample were nonpregnant and 45% were pregnant. Ages of the subjects ranged from 13 to 20 years with the majority (66%) in the 15 to 17 years of age category. In the pregnant group, 70% of the subjects were in the 15 to 17 age classification as were 63% of those not pregnant. Twenty percent were 18 to 20 years and 8% were less than 15 years of age in the pregnant group. The mean age was 16.6 years for the pregnant group and 15.7 for the nonpregnant group.

Seventy-eight percent of the total group was black and 22% of the group was white. The schools that were surveyed had a 49 to 51 ratio of black and white students. The classes, however, were not equally balanced with male, female, black and white students. The majority of the students in the classes surveyed were black and female.

The majority of the total sample (75%) was in senior high school. Grades 10 through 12 were included in that high school. Of those pregnant, 81% were in senior high school and 19% were in junior high

Table 1
Description of Subjects

Category	Pregnant ^a		Nonpregnant ^b		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Age						
13-14	8	(7)	24	(24)	32	(17)
15-17	62	(70)	66	(63)	128	(66)
18-20	18	(23)	14	(13)	32	(17)
Race						
Black	78	(90)	72	(69)	150	(78)
White	9	(10)	33	(31)	42	(22)
School Year						
Junior High (7-9)	17	(19)	31	(25)	48	(25)
Senior High (10-12)	70	(80)	73	(71)	144	(75)
Pregnancy Status						
Pregnant	87	(45)	-	-	87	(45)
Nonpregnant	-	-	105	(55)	105	(55)
Marital Status						
Single	74	(84)	100	(96)	174	(92)
Engaged	8	(9)	4	(4)	12	(6)
Married	4	(5)	-	-	4	(2)
Divorced	1	(1)	-	-	-	
Children						
None	63	(73)	105	(100)	168	(88)
1	22	(25)	-	-	22	(11)
2	2	(2)	-	-	2	(1)
Living Arrangement						
Mother and Father	20	(23)	57	(55)	77	(41)
Parent and Step- parent	5	(6)	11	(11)	16	(8)
Mother	51	(59)	28	(27)	79	(42)
Father	-		1	(1)	1	(1)
Grandparent	3	(3)	2	(2)	5	(3)
Other	7	(8)	4	(4)	11	(6)

Table 1--Continued

Category	Pregnant ^a		Nonpregnant ^b		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Siblings						
0-3	38	(44)	59	(60)	97	(51)
4-6	33	(39)	30	(20)	63	(33)
7-10	15	(17)	11	(14)	26	(14)
11-13	1	(1)	3	(3)	4	(2)
Religion						
Protestant	66	(76)	91	(87)	157	(82)
Catholic	7	(8)	8	(8)	15	(8)
Jewish	-	-	1	(1)	1	(1)
Other	-	-	1	(1)	1	(1)
None	14	(16)	3	(3)	17	(9)
Type of Dating						
Play the Field	8	(9)	9	(7)	17	(8)
Date Same Person	55	(62)	35	(34)	90	(47)
Half and Half	20	(23)	35	(34)	55	(29)
None	2	(2)	23	(22)	25	(13)
Other	3	(3)	3	(2)	6	(3)

Note: Not all totals = 100% due to rounding errors.

$$^a \underline{n} = 87$$

$$^b \underline{n} = 105$$

school. Seventy-one percent of the nonpregnant group indicated that their year in school was between 10 and 12 (senior high level). The mean school year for both groups was ten.

Single students comprised 92% of the subjects studied. Nine percent of the pregnant group were engaged, and one percent divorced. Four percent of the nonpregnant group were engaged. Although five percent of the pregnant group were married, no one in the nonpregnant group was married.

Fewer than 30% in the pregnant group had children. Two percent had two children. Sixty-three percent of the students had not delivered their baby at the time of the survey. Students who had delivered remained in the program until the end of the grading period. Therefore, the pregnant group was composed of students who had delivered and those who were between two and nine months pregnant. The mean months pregnant was 4.5 months for those currently in that status. Three students in the nonpregnant group had children and were, therefore, included in the pregnant group.

A contrast in living arrangements was found between the pregnant and nonpregnant group. Fifty-nine percent of those pregnant were living in a single-family household with their mother, and twenty-three percent were living in a two-parent household with their mother and father. The majority of nonpregnant subjects (55%) were living with mother and father, and 28% in a single family household with their mother or

father. Eleven percent of the nonpregnant group lived with a parent and step-parent, while six percent of the pregnant group lived with a step-parent.

The average number of siblings was four in both groups. The range was from 0 to 13. Sixty percent of the nonpregnant group had three siblings or less, and 44% of the pregnant group had three siblings or less.

When the sample was analyzed with regard to religious affiliation, the groups were similar with 82% being Protestant. However, there was a sharp contrast in church attendance between the two groups. Forty-four percent of the nonpregnant group reported that they attended church once a week as compared to 19% of the pregnant group. Although the majority of the total sample reported being affiliated with a church group, the pregnant group reported considerably lower attendance.

The pregnant group indicated a tendency to engage in more steady dating than the nonpregnant group. Sixty-two percent of the pregnant teenagers reported that they dated the same person compared to 34% of the nonpregnant teenagers. Thirty-four percent of the nonpregnant group indicated that they combined steady dating and playing the field, compared to 23% of the pregnant group who combined both types of dating. Only 2% of the pregnant group reported no dating, as compared to 22% of the nonpregnant group.

In general, subjects in the two groups were similar in background characteristics. Racial background and living arrangements were two characteristics which differed between the groups. In the total sample, 78% of the respondents were black and 22% white. Black teenagers accounted for 90% of the pregnant group and 69% of the non-pregnant group. A contrast was found in living arrangements between the two groups. In the nonpregnant group, 66% of the subjects lived in a two-parent household and 28% in a single-parent household. In the pregnant group, 62% lived in a single-parent household and 29% in a two-parent household.

Even though it has been reported that teenage pregnancy is not limited to any particular ethnic group, family life style, or other background characteristics, individual studies frequently note some distinguishing background characteristics in the referenced group. The high incidence of teenagers from broken homes in this study should be noted as this fact is frequently reported in literature related to studies of pregnant teenagers in comprehensive educational, social, and health programs (Adams, Brownstein, Rennals and Schmitt, 1976; Osofsky, 1968; and Ryan and Sharpe, 1975). Girls who had been enrolled in comprehensive programs often came from matriarchal, single parent homes, had experienced a breakdown in family relationships and tended to have had limited social experiences.

Furstenberg (1976) reported that 91% of his sample was comprised of black adolescents, and that two-thirds lived in two-parent households. Wilkens (1974) noted that two-thirds of the never-pregnant high

school group in her study were from two-parent homes, and one-half of the pregnant group was from single-parent families. According to Moore and Caldwell (1976), family structure appeared to have an impact on the likelihood of early first intercourse. Young women who lived in intact families between the ages of 10 and 15 were consistently more likely to restrict sexual activity for an extended period of time. Vincent (1961) and Madison (1971) found an inverse relationship between sexual activity and church attendance. Church attendance was significantly lower among pregnant teenagers. Pregnant teenagers represent a variety of family backgrounds, and are similar to non-pregnant teens. Nevertheless, the contrasts found between the two groups are factors often associated with family instability.

Hypothesis I

Analysis of Variance, one-way classification, was used to test the significance of the differences between the means of the two groups for each of the three variables: (1) motivation for parenthood; (2) perception of need satisfaction; and, (3) romantic love. Motivation for parenthood was divided into four categories: (1) fatalistic, (2) altruistic, (3) narcissistic, and, (4) instrumental. Perception of need satisfaction was categorized into two variables: (1) affection (NSAFF), and (2) self-worth (NSSW). Romantic love was comprised of one category.

Hypothesis I: No differences exist between pregnant and non-pregnant teenagers based on the following variables: (1) motivation

for parenthood; (2) perception of need satisfaction; and, (3) romantic love. Results of these tests are found in Tables 2 through 9.

Motivation for Parenthood

For three of the four categories, the difference between the means for the two groups was significant; these categories were fatalistic, narcissistic and instrumental (see Tables 2-5). The data also indicated that there was a nonsignificant difference between the two groups on the altruistic category. However, altruistic scores were lower for the pregnant group, indicating a more positive response toward children than the nonpregnant group.

It is interesting to note that the standard deviation for the pregnant group across the four categories was considerably larger for the pregnant group than for the nonpregnant group. This may be attributable to the fact that parenthood was impending and thus much more real in their experience.

Perception of Need Satisfaction

Results of the F-tests indicated that no statistically significant differences existed between the two groups of teenagers when scores were compared on need for affection and self-worth (see Tables 6-7). Therefore, it may be stated that the two groups were not significantly different on need satisfaction for affection and self-worth scores.

Table 2
 Analysis of Variance for Fatalistic Values of Respondents

Group	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation
Pregnant	62	31.3	12.7
Nonpregnant	66	37.2	5.9

Summary Table for the One-Way Analysis of Variance

Source of Variance	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Squares	F-ratio
Between	1	1108	1108	11.40
Within	127	12251	97	($p < .001$)

Table 3

Analysis of Variance for Altruistic Values of Respondents

Group	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation
Pregnant	62	24.9033	9.3101
Nonpregnant	66	26.6212	6.8831

Summary Table for One-Way Analysis of Variance

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F-ratio
Between	1	94.3157	94.3157	1.420
Within	126	8366.9219	66.4041	(p < .235)

Table 4

Analysis of Variance for Narcissistic Values of Respondents

Group	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation
Pregnant	62	29.0484	11.4253
Nonpregnant	66	34.6970	5.7458

Summary Table for One-Way Analysis of Variance

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F-ratio
Between	1	1019.9866	1019.9866	12.714
Within	126	10108.7368	80.2281	(p < .001)

Table 5

Analysis of Variance for Instrumental Values of Respondents

Group	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation
Pregnant	62	35.9193	14.6268
Nonpregnant	66	40.1515	5.0084

Summary Table for One-Way Analysis of Variance

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F-ratio
Between	1	572.5414	572.5414	4.914
Within	127	14681.0295	116.5161	(p < .028)

Table 6
 Analysis of Variance for NSAFF Values of Respondents

Group	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation
Pregnant	62	6.3387	1.3422
Nonpregnant	66	6.5000	1.6756

Summary Table for One-Way Analysis of Variance

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F-ratio
Between	1	0.8313	0.8313	0.358
Within	126	292.3863	2.3205	($p < .550$)

Table 7
 Analysis of Variance for NSSW Values of Respondents

Group	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation
Pregnant	62	6.4839	1.5654
Nonpregnant	66	6.3939	1.8964

Summary Table for One-Way Analysis of Variance

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F-ratio
Between	1	0.2582	0.2582	0.085
Within	126	383.2406	3.0416	(p < .771)

Table 8

Analysis of Variance for Romantic Love Values of Respondents

Group	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation
Pregnant	62	66.8548	17.6986
Nonpregnant	66	74.8182	15.9681

Summary Table for One-Way Analysis of Variance

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F-ratio
Between	1	2027.2207	2027.2207	7.159
Within	126	35681.3359	283.1851	(p < .008)

Romantic Love

For the romantic love scale, the data indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the means of the two groups (see Table 8). The mean score for the pregnant group was 66.8 and the nonpregnant group mean score was 74.8. These results indicated that the pregnant group has a more romantic attitude toward love than the nonpregnant group.

Summary

The preceding results are indicated in Table 9. In summary, test results indicated that statistically significant differences existed between pregnant and nonpregnant teenagers when compared on motivation for parenthood and romantic love. A nonsignificant difference was found when compared on perception of need satisfaction. Based on this analysis, Hypothesis I was rejected.

Hypothesis II

For testing Hypothesis II, the pregnant group was divided into three age categories. The first group included the youngest through age 14. The middle category was comprised of the age range of the majority of pregnant teenagers, 15 to 17 years. The third group was composed of the oldest teenagers, those 18 to 20 years of age.

Hypothesis II: No differences exist among the three age categories of pregnant teenagers when compared on: (1) motivation for parenthood; (2) perception of need satisfaction; and, (3) romantic

Table 9

Summary of Mean Scores, F-ratios and Significance Levels for Pregnant^a
and Nonpregnant^b Teenagers on Motivation for Parenthood
Perception of Need Satisfaction and Romantic Love

Source	Mean	Standard Deviation	F-ratio	P
Fatalistic Pregnant	31.3	12.7	11.40	.001
Nonpregnant	37.2	5.9		
Altruistic Pregnant	24.9	9.3	1.42	.235
Nonpregnant	26.6	6.8		
Narcissistic Pregnant	29.0	11.4	12.71	.000
Nonpregnant	34.6	5.7		
Instrumental Pregnant	35.9	14.6	4.91	.028
Nonpregnant	40.1	5.0		
NSAFF Pregnant	6.33	1.34	.358	.550
Nonpregnant	6.50	1.67		
NSSW Pregnant	6.48	1.56	.085	.771
Nonpregnant	6.39	1.89		
Romantic Love Pregnant	66.8	17.6	7.15	.008
Nonpregnant	74.8	15.9		

^a_n = 62

^b_n = 66

Table 10

Mean Scores, F-ratio and Significance Levels for Pregnant
Teenagers on Motivation for Parenthood, Perception
of Need Satisfaction, and Romantic Love by Age

Source	Mean	Standard Deviation	F-ratio	P
Fatalistic			.165	.8480
13-14 ^a	30.8	15.3		
15-17 ^b	31.3	12.7		
18-20 ^c	33.2	12.3		
Altruistic			.244	.7838
13-14	26.0	11.9		
15-17	24.9	9.3		
18-20	26.7	11.6		
Narcissistic			.226	.7980
13-14	26.0	13.0		
15-17	29.0	11.4		
18-20	28.6	10.5		
Instrumental			.049	.9500
13-14	34.1	15.3		
15-17	35.9	14.6		
18-20	36.0	14.5		
NSAFF			.214	.8078
13-14	6.5	.97		
15-17	6.3	1.34		
18-20	6.1	1.85		
NSSW			.353	.7037
13-14	6.2	1.11		
15-17	6.4	1.56		
18-20	6.1	2.21		
Romantic Love			.350	.7060
13-14	61.2	15.9		
15-17	66.8	17.6		
18-20	66.9	14.4		

^a_n = 7^b_n = 62^c_n = 18

Table 11

Pearson Correlation Coefficients Among Motivation for Parenthood, Perception of Need Satisfaction, and Romantic Love for Pregnant Teenagers

	Fatalistic	Altruistic	Narcissistic	Instrumental	NSAFF	NSSW	Love
Fatalistic		.49 ^{***}	.74 ^{***}	.78 ^{***}	.33 ^{**}	.13	.29 ^{**}
Altruistic			.51 ^{***}	.59 ^{***}	.23 [*]	.04	.17
Narcissistic				.83 ^{***}	.41 ^{***}	.24 [*]	.21 [*]
Instrumental					.40 ^{***}	.22 [*]	.22 [*]
NSAFF						.60 ^{***}	.18 [*]
NSSW							.09

$n = 87$ * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

love. Analysis of variance, one-way classification, was utilized to test the significance of the differences among the means of the three groups for each variable.

The data indicated that there was a non-significant difference among the three categories of pregnant teenagers on all of the scales (see Table 10). Thus Hypothesis II was retained, that is, romantic love attitudes, perception of need satisfaction and motivation for parenthood scores were not significantly different across the three age categories.

Hypothesis III

In testing Hypothesis III, it was postulated that within the pregnant teenage group, no relationships existed among motivation for parenthood, perception of need satisfaction and romantic love. The four categories of motivation for parenthood, fatalistic; altruistic; narcissistic; and, instrumental were utilized. Two categories, affection (NSAFF) and self-worth (NSSW) measured perception of need satisfaction. Romantic love was measured by utilizing one category.

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were computed to determine the degree of relationship among variables (see Table 11). The correlation between the following pairs of variables were not statistically significant: (1) altruistic and NSSW; (2) altruistic and love; (3) fatalistic and NSSW; and, (4) love and NSSW. The remaining correlation coefficients were all statistically significant. Of those correlations that were statistically significant, low

correlations were found between perception of need satisfaction and motivation for parenthood; romantic love and motivation for parenthood; and, romantic love and perception of need satisfaction.

Based upon these results, it was concluded that significant positive relationships existed between the majority of the variables. Thus Hypothesis III was rejected. This indicated that significant relationships existed within the pregnant teenage group among the three variables.

Hypothesis IV

Hypothesis IV: There are no differences in relationships among motivation for parenthood, perception of need satisfaction, and romantic love attitudes for the pregnant teenage group and the non-pregnant teenage group. The four categories of motivation for parenthood, two categories of need satisfaction, and one category of romantic love were utilized to measure the variables.

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were computed to determine the degree of relationship among variables within the non-pregnant group. These coefficients were compared with coefficients that were found in the pregnant group and tested for significance.

The following significant negative relationships were found in the nonpregnant group: (1) fatalistic and altruistic; (2) narcissistic and altruistic; and, (3) instrumental and altruistic. Significant positive relationships found were: (1) NSAFF and NSSW; (2)

narcissistic and NSSW; and, (3) narcissistic and love. Table 12 contains the coefficients computed for the nonpregnant group.

The differences between the respective correlation coefficients for the two groups were tested for statistical significance utilizing the t-test on the transformed correlation coefficients (Fisher's z Transformation). Findings revealed that positive relationships in the pregnant group were significantly different from the negative relationships in the nonpregnant group (see Table 13).

Positive coefficients were found in the pregnant group when motivation for parenthood and need satisfaction were tested for significant relationships. Coefficient scores were low when romantic love was correlated with motivation for parenthood and perception of need satisfaction.

In the nonpregnant group, the majority of the coefficient scores were negative, low, and nonsignificant. Of those that were statistically significant the value of the coefficients were low with the exception of need satisfaction for affection and need satisfaction for self-worth (.66).

When the pregnant and nonpregnant groups were compared, differences between the following coefficients were significant: (1) fatalistic and altruistic; (2) fatalistic and narcissistic; (3) fatalistic and instrumental; (4) fatalistic and NSAFF; (5) fatalistic and love; (6) altruistic and narcissistic; (7) altruistic and instrumental; (8) altruistic and NSAFF; (9) altruistic and love; (10) narcissistic and

Table 12

Pearson Correlation Coefficients Among Motivation for Parenthood, Perception of Need Satisfaction, and Romantic Love for Nonpregnant Teenagers

	Fatalistic	Altruistic	Narcissistic	Instrumental	NSAFF	NSSW	Love
Fatalistic		-.43 ^{***}	-.18	.06	.09	.10	-.13
Altruistic			-.32 ^{***}	-.35 ^{***}	-.12	-.14	-.13
Narcissistic				-.08	.10	.20 [*]	.23 [*]
Instrumental					.20 [*]	.15	-.06
NSAFF						.66 ^{***}	-.10
NSSW							.09

n = 104

* p < .05

** p < .01

*** p < .001

Table 13

Differences Between Correlation Coefficients for Pregnant and Nonpregnant Teenagers on Motivation for Parenthood, Perception of Need Satisfaction, and Romantic Love

	Altruistic	Narcissistic	Instrumental	NSAFF	NSSW	Love
Fatalistic Pregnant	.49	.74	.78	.33	.13	.29
Nonpregnant	-.43	-.18	.06	.09	.10	-.13
t-values	6.65**	7.51**	6.38**	2.19**	.48	2.97**
Altruistic Pregnant		.51	.59	.23	.04	.17
Nonpregnant		-.32	-.35	-.12	-.14	-.13
t-values		6.00**	2.20*	2.09*	.98	1.98*
Narcissistic Pregnant			.83	.41	.24	.21
Nonpregnant			-.08	.10	.20	.23
t-values			8.23**	3.61**	1.32	.10
Instrumental Pregnant				.40	.22	.22
Nonpregnant				.20	.15	-.06
t-values				2.71**	1.32	1.95
NSAFF Pregnant					.60	.18
Nonpregnant					.66	-.10
t-values					2.34*	1.81

Table 13 (Continued)

	Altruistic	Narcissistic	Instrumental	NSAFF	NSSW	Love
NSSW						
Pregnant						.09
Nonpregnant						-.09
t-values						1.01

* p < .05

** p < .01

instrumental; (11) narcissistic and NSAFF; (12) instrumental and NSAFF; and, (13) NSAFF and NSSW.

Discussion of Variables

Hypotheses were tested to measure attitudinal differences between pregnant and nonpregnant teenagers. Comparisons were made of motivation for parenthood, perception of need satisfaction, and romantic love attitudes. The data from this study were compared and contrasted with those from previous studies related to the tested variables.

Motivation for Parenthood

Mean scores between pregnant and nonpregnant teenagers were significantly different for the fatalistic, narcissistic and instrumental categories of motivation for parenthood. The three categories listed are related to the personal gains associated with childbearing. Personal rewards received from parenthood are in contrast to an unselfish desire to foster growth and development in the young child. The differences between the two groups were found in predestination to procreate (fatalistic), proof of biological and psychological adequacy (narcissistic), and the utility of childbearing (instrumental). The motivation for parenthood category associated with unselfishness (altruistic) did not vary significantly between the two groups (see Table 3). Both groups may be viewed as having the desire to see children grow and develop, however, it may be inferred that pregnant teenagers also view children as a source of meeting personal needs and desires.

Motivations are conceived of as antecedents to attitudes which emerge concerning certain behavior. If teen mothers view their children as love objects for giving and receiving love (Connolly, 1975), their attitude toward children should be primarily that of instruments for fulfilling needs for affection, recognition, and enhancement of social status. Taylor (1955) suggested that the healthy attitude toward children is that of viewing them as a bundle of potentialities to be released through wholesome surroundings and wise guidance. Differences between pregnant and nonpregnant teenagers mean scores on motivation for parenthood showed that the two groups differed on all categories with the exception of altruistic motivation. The cause of pregnancy is not inferred, but differences in motivation did appear during analysis which suggest that children may have been perceived as a source of reward for pregnant teenagers. A similar finding was reported by Young (1954). She stated that the baby was utilized as a symbol and the focal point of the teenager's fantasy.

To measure relationships among the variables between the two groups, the four indices of motivation were utilized. Six correlations were found to be significantly different. Those correlations were fatalistic and narcissistic; fatalistic and instrumental; instrumental and narcissistic; instrumental and altruistic; fatalistic and altruistic; altruistic and narcissistic. The significant t-values indicated that the two groups were very likely independent. Table 13 showed the differences in correlation coefficients for the two groups. The

correlation analysis indicated that a significant difference between the two groups appeared on all of the motivation subvariables.

In summary, the pregnant teenagers indicated a high positive relationship and nonpregnant teens a low negative relationship between the expectation that the child will reflect glory upon the parent and prove her physical, biological and psychological adequacy and the notion that man or woman was brought into the world to procreate (narcissistic and fatalistic, $r = .74$) and the utility of the child in the achievement of parental goals (narcissistic and instrumental, $r = .83$). This finding was in agreement with the findings of Rabin (1966) and Major (1967) that the child who serves parental narcissistic purposes may also be instrumental to the achievement of parental goals. The fatalistic motive implies that there is a passive acceptance of children and little choice concerning their birth. It appears that the belief in predestination to have children may have had an influence upon the decision to control fertility or leave it to chance. If pregnancy occurred, it could be accepted and the child would be welcomed because of the positive feelings toward children and the reward that parenthood would bring to the individual.

Other studies which discussed motivation included Connolly (1975) and Hoffman and Hoffman (1973). Connolly reported that pregnancy can be seen as a solution for loneliness and a lack of love. Hoffman and Hoffman stated that the desire for adult identity could be a motivation for pregnancy. "More than finishing school, going to work, or even getting married, parenthood establishes a person as a truly mature,

stable, and acceptable member of the community and provides him with access to other institutions of adult society" (p. 48). Klerman (1975) and Butman and Kamm (1965) viewed the limited awareness of career opportunities as an important factor in parenthood motives for low-income minority women. The present findings appear to be congruent with those past observations. Bruce (1978) stated that:

If you want to drive the birth rate down, increase the life options for women; that is, give them an opportunity to attain a more rewarding future, and they are more likely to restrict childbearing as a principle means to achieve that future for themselves, and for their children as well (p. 78).

Perception of Need Satisfaction

Perception of need satisfaction was divided into two categories. Need satisfaction for affection (NSAFF) measured need fulfillment in the areas of affection and belonging. Need satisfaction for self-worth (NSSW) measured perception of need fulfillment in the areas of self-esteem and self-worth. Scoring of each category was obtained by adding together the number of responses indicating satisfaction of a particular need area. For each level, the possible range of scores was from zero to eight. Zero indicated a perception of low satisfaction and eight a perception of high satisfaction of the need. The affection and self-worth categories indicated satisfaction at both need levels for the two groups (see Table 2). The affection mean score was slightly higher for the nonpregnant group (6.50) than for the pregnant group (6.33). In the area of self-worth, the pregnant group received a slightly higher mean score (6.48) than the nonpregnant group

(6.39). The three categories of pregnant teenagers mean scores were not significantly different from one another. Analysis utilizing the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient for the two variables showed a positive linear relationship ($r = .66$).

Findings related to this variable are contradictory to studies indicating that sexually acting-out adolescents lack gratification of belonging and affection needs. The findings may imply that affectional needs are met through the dating relationship, since the majority of pregnant teenagers reported that they were involved in a steady dating relationship as opposed to casual, play-the-field type dating behavior. Ladner (1971) found the existence of a love relationship in a sample of ghetto girls participating in sexual activities. Spanier (1975) and Furstenberg (1976) noted that a high dating frequency among teenage girls, correlated with sexual involvement, and the development of a love relationship consequently led to sexual involvement. Wilkerson (1978) stated that "One function of romantic love is to help persons feel needed, special, unique and important" (p. 142).

A positive correlation was found among need satisfaction for affection, motivation for parenthood and romantic love within the pregnant group. In the nonpregnant group only one significant positive correlation was found when need satisfaction for affection was correlated with other test variables.

Wyatt (1967) noted that receiving affection is more closely related to self-esteem in women than in men. To a woman, to be loved

means to be endorsed. In a study of pregnant and nonpregnant girls, Sitkin (1972) reported that pregnancy was a consequence of searching for closeness and personal affirmation (self-worth). Wyatt observed that the woman has traditionally needed someone to help her determine her identity. The heterosexual relationship found in steady dating may cause the pregnant teenager to view herself as loving and loved. Recent (Zackler and Brandstadt, 1975) research has reported that male and female adolescents are interested in emotional as well as sexual gratification. They are seeking emotional and sexual satisfaction. Due to the limitations of this study, it can only be concluded that the needs for affection and self-worth were met by adolescents in this sample. The need satisfaction may have been due to family relationships, school, peers, or intimate others.

Romantic Love

Pregnant teenagers were found to be more romantic than non-pregnant teens in their love orientation. The difference in mean scores was statistically significant (see Table 8). Romantic love carries with it the connotation of anticipation of fulfillment forever with no hint of doubt or flaw in the loved one (Knox, 1971). The opposite of romantic love is conjugal love. Ellis (1970) noted that "Our mass media are full of assertions, implicit and explicit, about the nature of romantic love" (p. 35-37). Three of the assertions that may affect teenagers are: (1) romantic love is a completely irrational, illogical feeling that makes lovers do the maddest things;

(2) love has the power of life and death over men and women and can make them do, or not do almost anything; and, (3) a true lover gives in completely to the beloved.

Romantic love was positively related to need satisfaction for affection in the pregnant group. Connolly (1975) noted that first sexual adventures among adolescents was often a reflection of the search for love and affection. Rains (1971) reported that what was viewed as unacceptable sexual activity, whether kissing or intercourse was legitimized by love. With the high steady dating frequency among this sample of pregnant teens and the high degree of romanticism, it should not be surprising to find a high degree of sexual activity. However, Knox (1972) did not find a relationship between dating pattern and romantic love in his high school survey. He found that the parental model which portrayed realistic or conjugal love was an important variable in love attitudes among adolescents. Two-parent families provided a model of love more realistic than single-parent families. Divorced parents, he implied, may have been unsuccessful in marriage because of their romantic attitude, and widowed parents tended to over-romanticize the deceased spouse. Extending Knox's findings, it may be projected that single parents involved in a dating relationship may be more romantic than realistic in their love attitudes and behavior, thereby providing an unrealistic model of love for their children.

Sorenson (1973) reported that 55% of all nonvirgins engaged in initial coitus without using birth control measures. Del Campo,

Sporakowski and Del Campo (1976) reported that students who began dating earliest tended to be more permissive, but less knowledgeable about birth control. Most surveys of unmarried females seeking abortions and carrying pregnancies to term report the absence of use of birth control devices (Bowman, 1970). Teenagers reported that the use of birth control reduced the spontaneity in love and coitus. Romantic love may be used as a condition for satisfying fantasies. This type of love is the ideal or unattainable type of love. It is opposed to conjugal or familial love.

Romantic love implies fantasy which is characteristic of adolescent experimentation with new roles and relationships. In this study, relationships were found among motivation for parenthood, need satisfaction and romantic love. Love was positively correlated with the fatalistic motive, indicating predestination to bear children among the pregnant group. A negative correlation was found in the nonpregnant group among all variables with the exception of the narcissistic motivation category (see Tables 11 and 12).

Relationships Among the Three Variables

The mean scores for the three variables were found to be significantly different between the pregnant and nonpregnant groups, with the exception of need satisfaction. Both groups scored in a positive direction on the degree of need satisfaction, indicating satisfaction of the needs for affection and self-worth. Correlations were

significantly different among some of the variables between the pregnant and nonpregnant groups with the exception of love. The two groups showed an orientation towards romantic love.

The Furstenberg (1976) and Kantner and Zelnik (1977) research indicated that the majority of teenagers do not plan to become pregnant. In the majority of cases, teenage pregnancy results from a lack of contraceptive knowledge. Findings from this investigation suggests that steady dating and romantic love may create a climate for the acceptance of sexual activity, which could possibly satisfy needs and fulfill goals expressed in underlying motives.

Need satisfaction for affection was positively correlated with the narcissistic motive for parenthood (.41) and with the instrumental motive (.40) among pregnant teenagers. Those categories were also correlated with need satisfaction for self-worth and love. Taylor (1955) noted that immature parents tended to think of their child primarily as an instrument for fulfilling their own needs for affection, recognition, and goal fulfillment.

In this study, respondents ranked the narcissistic motive as the second motive for parenthood, and instrumental as the fourth motive. The instrumental motive implies that the child will serve a function for the parent. Whereas, the narcissistic motive may be an indicator that the child will be seen as an extension of the parents and reflect glory upon the parent. Young (1954) found that regardless of the consequences, the adolescent mother wanted a baby. The baby was subsequently rejected after birth because the mother could only focus on

her personal problems, and not consider that the baby had its own developmental needs. The baby was to function in the capacity of fulfilling a certain purpose in the mother's life.

Strokosch (1975) and Nielsen and Motto (1963) found that teenage mothers in a Florence Crittenton Home who reported the absence of a father suffered emotional deprivation. It was further noted that the unavailability of a father could cause the adolescent girl to become attached to another male to affirm her femininity. Strokosch concluded that few teenage pregnancies derive from a healthy and mature desire for parenthood. This investigation found that unhealthy motives were correlated with romantic love and need satisfaction for affection and self-worth in the pregnant group.

Two significant differences in unhealthy motives for parenthood were found between the pregnant and nonpregnant groups. The correlation measure on motivation for parenthood among pregnant teens for altruistic and narcissistic was .51 and for altruistic and instrumental it was .59. This revealed a significant positive relationship. Within the nonpregnant group there were significant negative relationships between altruistic and narcissistic (-.32) and altruistic and instrumental (-.35). This suggested that pregnant and nonpregnant adolescents differed in their motives for children as need fulfilling objects. The pregnant group tended to see children as desirable with the capability of fulfilling needs, and the nonpregnant group saw them as desirable in and of themselves.

In summary, Wilkerson (1978) noted that societies which make individuals feel lonely, and individually unimportant should expect a high degree of romantic love. If some teenagers have a motive for parenthood, it may be to guarantee a form of love and purposefulness. Even if the loved partner abandons the young mother, she will have a reminder of that special and unique love relationship that she and her partner once had together, and proof that she has been loved.

Chapter 5

SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The goal of this research was to measure attitudinal differences among pregnant teenagers and between pregnant and nonpregnant teenagers. Comparisons were made on motivation for parenthood, perception of need satisfaction and romantic love attitudes. The purpose of this chapter is to summarize findings, discuss implications based on present and past research, and present recommendations for future studies related to teenage pregnancy.

The sample was comprised of junior and senior high school students in grades 7 to 12 enrolled in Norfolk City schools during the 1978 Fall term. The pregnant group was comprised of 87 adolescents whose ages ranged from 13 to 20 years. The nonpregnant group included 105 adolescents between the ages of 13 and 20 years.

This study began with the assumption shared by many researchers that early pregnancy is a manifestation of some underlying need. Teenagers do not want to get pregnant but become involved in affectional relationships which lead to the consequent pregnancy. Once the pregnancy has occurred teenagers do want and keep their babies. This may be related to deficits in family structure, role models, family disorganization, and the socialization process so uniquely evidenced in their subculture. Psychological needs contribute to the phenomenon

due to absence of intimate relationships or other emotional disturbances with parents, siblings, peers or any combinations of the family system.

The suppositions were supported by this investigation. Findings revealed that pregnant and nonpregnant teenagers came from homes which contrasted in living styles. Dating styles showed a sharp contrast with pregnant teenagers preferring steady dating to casual friendships.

Psychological variables in this study included attitudes toward parenthood, romantic love, and need satisfaction. It was hypothesized that no relationships existed among the variables, and that there were no differences between pregnant and nonpregnant teenagers.

Motivation for parenthood was divided into four categories: (1) altruistic; (2) fatalistic; (3) narcissistic; and (4) instrumental. Pregnant and nonpregnant teenagers indicated a love for children as expressed on the altruistic scale. There was no significant difference between the two mean scores. However, on the fatalistic scale, which measured predestination to have children, the pregnant group scores differed from the nonpregnant group. The pregnant group scores indicated a willingness to accept children as a natural consequence with little choice in planning their birth. On the narcissistic scale, constructed to measure the degree to which subjects expected that children would reflect glory upon parents and prove biological and psychological adequacy, the two groups differed

significantly. When scores on the four categories were compared, this motivation item ranked third in both groups. Based on mean scores, the pregnant group scored higher on the narcissistic category than did the nonpregnant group. Scores on the instrumental category were significantly different between the groups, the pregnant group having higher scores. This motivation category implied that the child would be used in some way by the parents.

A positive relationship was found between romantic love need satisfaction for affection and motivation for parenthood in the pregnant group. Negative relationships were found in the nonpregnant group with the exception of one motivation category.

Implications and Recommendations

In related literature and this study, there are strong implications that a romantic love attitude and steady dating may be an influencing factor in the occurrence of teenage pregnancy. The pregnant group had significantly different mean scores from the nonpregnant group. It is generally true that adolescents are more romantic than realistic in their love orientation. Therefore, it follows that a romantic as opposed to conjugal score was expected in each group, however, this investigation found that pregnant teens were more romantic than nonpregnant teenagers.

One explanation may be that steady dating, as reported by this group, fosters the growth of fondness and love. If this is true,

teenagers who date one person regularly would be likely to engage in heavy petting and continue to sexual intercourse. With inadequate sex education and limited knowledge of reliable contraceptive measures, a pregnancy could very well result because of unprotected sexual activity.

The positive relationship found in the pregnant group among motivation for parenthood variables and need satisfaction gave strong indications that the infant would be accepted by the mother regardless of the reasons for pregnancy. Also the standard deviations for the group across the four categories of motivation for parenthood emphasized the differences in responses made between the two groups. Since the standard deviations for the pregnant group were considerably greater than those found for the nonpregnant group, it was suggested that perhaps proximity to parenthood and its realities evoked greater variance in motivations for parenthood.

Similarities between the pregnant and nonpregnant group on need satisfaction for affection and need satisfaction for self-worth may be understood in relation to the instrument utilized. Group counseling sessions facilitated by adults, and other incidents where there has been a lack of familiarity between the expectant teen mother and adults have reported accounts of defensiveness concerning family and family matters. The instrument utilized in this study necessitated direct (yes, no) responses from subjects on need fulfillment provided by the home and family. Due to defensiveness,

teenagers are more likely to report satisfying conditions in the home when there is an awareness that proof will not be required. Perhaps another instrument less direct and/or focused away from the family and aimed toward gathering information on perceptions of self-concept would be more appropriate than the direct attempt to assess self-worth and esteem.

Other factors to consider as contributing to the high need satisfaction score are: need fulfillment realized through the dating relationship; attention received by peers and family since pregnancy; and the teenagers' own sense of accomplishment due to pregnancy.

The putative fathers may have given the pregnant teens a great deal of emotional support, since they reported a high frequency of steady dating. This was contradictory to findings reported by Young (1954) on mother's involvement with the father. In that study many girls did not know the name of the father or had only dated him on a few occasions. For the most part there was an absence of familiarity between the male and female.

The three motivation categories selected by the pregnant group implied that the child would provide a source of identity, love, status, accomplishment, and proof of femininity for the mother. Also, they indicated that there was an inability to make decisions concerning the future. If parenthood can fulfill those needs, it is unlikely that sex education and contraceptive availability alone will substantially decrease the rate of adolescent pregnancy. Romantic love

expectations and parenthood as a means of meeting affectional needs must be replaced by alternate sources of accomplishment and identity formation.

In past studies it has been found that teenagers do not plan to become pregnant, however, the steady dating relationship, indecision, and inconsistency in usage of birth control often resulted in pregnancy. If the teenager is searching for love identity and need gratification, and finds it through the love relationship, the consequences of parenthood may be worth the risk taken while engaging in unprotected coitus. It is not difficult to find evidence that sex has been used in society by both men and women as a method of goal accomplishment and a source of gratification. Sexual behavior expresses a variety of needs and values. Educating men and women at an early age for the changing roles in society can make them aware of the variety of options available including, but not limited to parenthood.

Implications from this study seem to suggest that the type of intervention needed with a group similar to the pregnant teenagers in this study would include long range goal-setting, values clarification, opportunities for short range planning and successes, career exploration, decision making, incentives to develop initiative and autonomy, and awareness that the future can be planned, and not left to some omnipotent force.

Even though previous research has indicated minor differences between black and white pregnant teenagers, caution should be extended in making generalizations from this study in reference to white pregnant teens. Ninety percent of the subjects in the pregnant group were black. Traditionally, blacks have been over represented in comprehensive school-based programs for pregnant teens in comparison to other racial groups. White teenagers have frequently chosen other options such as marriage and Adult Education courses after birth of the baby, homebound instruction, withdrawal from school during pregnancy and abortion. Further investigations are needed regarding this group before making generalizations to all teenagers.

This investigation has documented a number of differences between pregnant and nonpregnant teenagers. It has added to the literature on attitudes toward love, need satisfaction and motivation for parenthood. The topic of teenage pregnancy is a very complex one which will require further study as well as implementation of programs designed with adequate knowledge and understanding of the issues in mind. This study has provided some additional insights into the situation and indicated possible directions for continuing study.

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APPENDIX

INSTRUCTION FOR THE SURVEY

This is a questionnaire to find out how you feel about certain topics in family relations, dating, and personal development. Please fill in or circle all blank spaces on the survey sheet. EACH QUESTION MUST BE COMPLETED. The answers to the questions in Parts II, III, and IV should indicate your opinions. There are no right or wrong answers. Special instructions to help you understand some of the questions better are given below.

Part I:

Question #1

Place your age, not the year that you were born in the blank space.

Questions #12 to 17

If you are not sure of your mother or father's last grade in school or their job title, guess the answer to your best ability.

Question #18

If you do not have a particular religious faith, place the type of church that your family attends now, or attended in the past.

Part II:

Questions #25 to 53

Follow the instructions under Part II and circle one answer for each statement.

Part III:

Questions #54 to 67

Follow the instructions under Part III. Each blank space should have a 1 2 3 or 4 in it based on your opinion.

Example: Parents expect their children . . .
(4) to believe in them
(1) to be happy
(2) to be loved
(3) to be cheerful

Part IV:

Questions #68 to 85

Follow the instructions under Part IV and check one answer for each statement.

ATTITUDE SURVEY

INSTRUCTIONS: You have been chosen to participate in a study of junior and senior high school students. No name or other information to identify you will be asked. Your personal identity cannot be made known to anyone. With this guarantee, will you please answer the questions as carefully and honestly as possible. If at any time you should have a question please ask for help.

Part I: Please complete the answer to each question by filling in the space provided or by checking the answer that applies to you.

1. Age:
Years _____ Months _____
2. Race:
(a) Black _____ (c) White _____
(b) Chicano _____ (d) Other _____
3. Year in school:
(a) 8th _____ (d) 11th _____
(b) 9th _____ (e) 12th _____
(c) 10th _____
4. What grade do you usually receive in school?
(a) A _____ (c) C _____
(b) B _____ (d) D _____
5. Are you:
(a) Single (d) Separated
(b) Engaged (e) Divorced
(c) Married
6. Are you living with your:
(a) Mother only _____ (e) Stepfather and Mother _____
(b) Father only _____ (f) Stepmother and Father _____
(c) Mother and Father _____ (g) Other _____
(d) Grandmother
7. Do you have any children at the present time?
Yes _____ No _____
If yes age(s) _____

8. Are you pregnant now?
 Yes _____ No _____
 If yes, how many months pregnant? _____ months
9. If you are pregnant now, what do you plan to do with the baby?
 (a) Keep the baby with you _____
 (b) Place the baby for adoption _____
 (c) Undecided _____
 (d) Other plans are _____
10. How many sisters and brothers do you have?
 Sisters _____ Brothers _____
11. Which child are you in the family? I am the:
 1st _____ 5th _____
 2nd _____ 6th _____
 3rd _____ 7th _____
 4th _____ etc. _____
12. What kind of work does your father (stepfather) do? _____
13. What kind of work does your mother (stepmother) do? _____
14. If married, what kind of work does your husband do? _____
15. What grade did your father (stepfather) complete in school? _____
16. What grade did your mother (stepmother) complete in school? _____
17. What grade did your husband complete in school? _____
 He is now in the _____ grade.
18. What is your religion? (Example: Baptist, Catholic, etc.)

19. How often do you attend church?
 (a) Once a week _____ (d) Once a month _____
 (b) More than once a week _____ (e) Seldom (once or twice a year) _____
 (c) Once every two weeks _____ (f) Never _____
20. How important is religion in your life?
 (a) Very important (c) Of little importance
 (b) Important (d) Has no importance
21. How many casual friends do you have? _____
22. How many close friends do you have? _____
23. At what age did you begin dating? _____

24. Would you say that most of your dating is (was):
 (a) Playing the field _____
 (b) Dating the same person regularly _____
 (c) About half and half _____
 (d) Other _____

Part II: Please read each statement and circle the number which you believe best represents your opinion.

- 1--Strongly agree (definitely yes)
 2--Mildly agree (I believe so)
 3--Undecided (not sure)
 4--Mildly disagree (probably not)
 5--Strongly disagree (definitely not)

	SA	MA	U	MD	SD
25. When you are really in love, you just aren't interested in anyone else.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Love doesn't make sense. It just is.	1	2	3	4	5
27. When you fall head-over-heels-in-love, it's sure to be the real thing.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Love isn't anything you can really study; it is a tragedy.	1	2	3	4	5
29. To be in love with someone without marriage is a tragedy.	1	2	3	4	5
30. When love hits, you know it.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Common interests are really unimportant; as long as each of you is truly in love, you will adjust.	1	2	3	4	5
32. It doesn't matter if you marry after you have known your partner for only a short time as long as you know you are in love.	1	2	3	4	5
33. As long as two people love each other, the religious differences they have really do not matter.	1	2	3	4	5
34. You can love someone even though you do not like any of that person's friends.	1	2	3	4	5

	SA	MA	U	MD	SD
35. When you are in love, you are usually in a daze.	1	2	3	4	5
36. Love at first sight is often the deepest and most enduring type of love.	1	2	3	4	5
37. Usually there are only one or two people in the world whom you could really love and could be happy with.	1	2	3	4	5
38. Regardless of other factors, if you truly love another person, that is enough to marry that person.	1	2	3	4	5
39. It is necessary to be in love with the one you marry to be happy.	1	2	3	4	5
40. When you are separated from the love partner, the rest of the world seems dull and unsatisfying.	1	2	3	4	5
41. Parents should not advise their children whom to date; they have forgotten what it is like to be in love.	1	2	3	4	5
42. Love is regarded as the best reason for marriage, which is good.	1	2	3	4	5
43. When you love a person, you think of marrying that person.	1	2	3	4	5
44. Somewhere there is the right person for most people. The problem is just finding that one.	1	2	3	4	5
45. Jealousy usually varies directly with love, that is, the more in love you are, the greater the tendency for you to become jealous.	1	2	3	4	5
46. Love is best described as an exciting thing rather than a calm thing.	1	2	3	4	5
47. There are probably only a few people that any one person can fall in love with.	1	2	3	4	5

	SA	MA	U	MD	SD
48. When you are in love, you can't think too clearly.	1	2	3	4	5
49. Love often comes but once in a lifetime.	1	2	3	4	5
50. You can't make yourself love someone; it just comes or it doesn't.	1	2	3	4	5
51. Differences in people and religion are of small importance in selecting a marriage partner as compared with love.	1	2	3	4	5
52. Daydreaming usually comes along with being in love.	1	2	3	4	5
53. When you are in love, you don't have to ask yourself a bunch of questions about love; you will just know that you are in love.	1	2	3	4	5

Part III: Give the answer you feel is the best by placing a one (1) in front of it. Write in front of the remaining answers (2, 3, 4) to show your choice.

54. Parents expect their children
 To fulfill the purpose of life
 To strengthen the family
 To be healthy and happy
 To follow in their footsteps
55. Men want children because
 They would like to prove their manhood
 It is a natural instinct
 They need them to make them feel good among their friends
 They like children
56. Mother expects her daughter
 To give her companionship and affection
 To take the place in the world for which she is destined
 To be like herself
 To be happy and well
57. Men want children because
 Children hold the marriage together
 They like to care and provide for children
 It is a function of the mature adult
 They want to continue to live through their children

58. Father expects his son . . .
 To be happy and well
 To take the place in the world for which he is destined
 To give him companionship and affection
 To be like himself
59. Women want children because . . .
 They like children
 They need them to make them feel good among their friends
 They would like to prove their womanhood
 It is a natural instinct
60. Generally, people want children because . . .
 They are supposed to have babies
 They desire to help someone grow and develop
 They create someone in their own image
 They provide companionship
61. Father expects his daughter . . .
 To believe in him
 To be happy and well
 To take her place in the world
 To give him companionship and affection
62. Women want children because . . .
 Children hold the marriage together
 It is a function of the mature adult
 They like to care and provide for children
 They want to continue to live through their children
63. Women want children because . . .
 They are supposed to have babies
 They desire to help someone grow and develop
 They provide companionship
 They create someone in their own image
64. Generally, people want children because . . .
 They like to care and provide for children
 They want to live forever through their children
 Children hold the marriage together
 It is a function of the mature adult
65. Mother expects her son . . .
 To take his place in the world
 To give her companionship and affection
 To be happy and well
 To believe in her

66. Men want children because . . .
 They provide companionship
 They create someone in their own image
 They are supposed to produce babies
 They desire to help someone grow and develop
67. Generally, people want children because . . .
 It is a natural instinct
 They like children
 They need them to make them feel good among their friends
 They would like to prove their womanhood or manhood

Part IV: Please answer each question based on how you feel. Check "Yes" or "No" (NNS, Lollar, 1971)

68. Do you have a chance to see the person you think is your closest or best friend? Yes () No ()
69. If you do something for somebody else, do you get credit for it? Yes () No ()
70. Do you do anything at home that is important to you? Yes () No ()
71. Is there someone at home that you can trust enough to talk to about yourself? Yes () No ()
72. Do you feel important? Yes () No ()
73. Do you like most of the people at home? Yes () No ()
74. If you had a problem, is there anyone who likes you enough to help you with it? Yes () No ()
75. Are you thought of as an important person at home? Yes () No ()
76. Are you lonely for anyone while at home? Yes () No ()
77. Do people around home respect you? Yes () No ()
78. Is there someone at home who believes you like them? Yes () No ()
79. Do people give you recognition for the things you do? Yes () No ()

80. Do you think that there is something at home that you can do really well? Yes () No ()
81. Is there someone around home who really loves you or cares about you? Yes () No ()
82. Are you happy with yourself? Yes () No ()
83. If you were told that you were not going to live in your neighborhood anymore, is there anyone who you would miss? Yes () No ()

July 20, 1978

Dr. Anna G. Dodson, Director
Department of Research and Testing
Norfolk Public Schools
800 East City Hall Avenue
Norfolk, Virginia 23510

Dear Dr. Dodson:

As stated in our conversation, I am currently pursuing a Ph.D. in Family Studies at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. The dissertation topic which I have selected involves a study of the attitudes and perceptions of pregnant and non-pregnant teenagers.

The participants for the study will be selected from a sampling of students in a Virginia public school division. I would like to obtain your approval to select the study sample from the Norfolk Public Schools. This would include pregnant students enrolled in special education classes and junior and senior high school females in their assigned classes at other schools.

All data will be held in strict confidence, and will not be used for any purpose other than research data. Names of individuals or code numbers will not be obtained and used in the dissertation.

The results of this study should provide information regarding the similarities and differences in pregnant and non-pregnant teenagers. Such information may be helpful to local supervisory and instructional personnel providing special services to teenage girls, and to in-service education programs.

Enclosed is a copy of the instrument designed for use in this investigation. It is a self administered questionnaire. The

Dr. Anna G. Dodson

Page 2

questions have been used in previous studies with junior and senior high school students. Completion time for the instrument is approximately 30 minutes.

Thank you for your attention to this matter.

Sincerely,

Martha M. Conley
Doctoral Candidate

Michael J. Sporakowski, Ph.D.
Professor of Family Development
Ms. Conley's Major Professor

MMC/co

enclosure

Norfolk Public Schools

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION BUILDING, POST OFFICE BOX 1357
NORFOLK, VIRGINIA 23501

July 25, 1978

Mrs. Martha Conley

Blacksburg, VA. 24060

Dear Mrs. Conley:

I have reviewed your request for permission to collect data from students attending the Norfolk Public Schools. Since the questionnaire to be used is personal in nature I recommend that only volunteers participate in your study. Also, Mr. Robert Beard, Supervisor of Psychological Services, must give final approval of the proposed study.

Feel free to call for further assistance.

Sincerely,

Edward B. Tokar, Ph.D.
Research Specialist

cc: Dr. Anna Dodson
Mr. Robert Beard

Norfolk Public Schools

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION BUILDING POST OFFICE BOX 1357
NORFOLK, VIRGINIA 23501

August 2, 1978

Mr. Thomas Newby
Washington High School
1111 Park Ave.
Norfolk, VA. 23504

Dear Mr. Newby,

I have given approval for Mrs. Martha Conley to ask your permission to collect data in your school. An attitude scale is enclosed for your review. If you grant approval, the data must be collected under the following conditions:

1. Students must be volunteers
2. Students must have parental permission

Mrs. Conley plans to collect the data during the 2nd week in October. She will be contacting you in the near future.

Sincerely,

Edward B. Tokar, Ph.D.
Research Specialist

✓cc: Mrs. Martha Conley

enclosure

Norfolk Public Schools

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION BUILDING, POST OFFICE BOX 1357
NORFOLK, VIRGINIA 23501

August 2, 1978

Mr. Ray Rollins
Lake Taylor Jr. High School
1380 Kempsville Rd.
Norfolk, VA. 23502

Dear Mr. Rollins,

I have given approval for Mrs. Martha Conley to ask your permission to collect data in your school. An attitude scale is enclosed for your review. If you grant approval, the data must be collected under the following conditions:

1. Students must be volunteers
2. Students must have parental permission

Mrs. Conley plans to collect the data during the 2nd week in October. She will be contacting you in the near future.

Sincerely,

Edward B. Tokar, Ph.D.
Research Specialist

✓cc: Mrs. Martha Conley

enclosure



VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY

Blacksburg, Virginia 24061

DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT, HOUSING AND FAMILY DEVELOPMENT (703) 951-6163

October 16, 1978

Dear Parent or Guardian:

Your daughter has been selected to participate in a survey. Since young people have definite ideas about topics such as religion, love, marriage, child development, family life and friends, this study is to find out some of their attitudes and opinions. Questions in the survey have been used with other teenagers in other localities in Virginia and various parts of the United States.

Students who participate in the survey will not be identified by name or address. They are simply asked to participate because they are in the Norfolk Public School System. The information will not be used by the school system. I am an instructor at Norfolk State College interested in the opinions and attitudes of Junior and Senior high school students in the Norfolk Public Schools.

Sincerely,

Martha M. Conley
Ph.D. Candidate
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and
State University

MMC:m

P.S. Please return the attached to your Counselor or Teacher.

I do give permission for my child to participate in the survey.

Child's Name

Parent or Guardian Signature

Date: _____

**The vita has been removed from
the scanned document**

MOTIVATION FOR PARENTHOOD, PERCEPTION OF NEED SATISFACTION
AND ROMANTIC LOVE: A COMPARISON BETWEEN
PREGNANT AND NONPREGNANT TEENAGERS

by

Martha McClenny Conley

(ABSTRACT)

The purpose of this research was to measure attitudinal differences between pregnant and nonpregnant teenagers. The sample was comprised of 192 junior and senior high school students. The pregnant group consisted of 87 teenagers enrolled in a Continuing Education Program for pregnant teens. The nonpregnant group was enrolled in a regular junior and senior high school. Comparisons were made of motivations for parenthood, romantic love attitudes and perception of need satisfaction. Analysis of Variance, one-way classification, was used to test the significance of the differences between the means of the two groups for each of the three variables. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were computed to determine the degree in relationship among variables.

Results of the study revealed that significant differences were found between the mean scores of the pregnant and nonpregnant groups on motivation for parenthood and attitudes toward love. There was a nonsignificant difference between the two groups on perception of need satisfaction.

The three motivation for parenthood categories which differed between the groups were fatalistic, narcissistic, and instrumental. As indicated in the fatalistic category, the pregnant group scores suggested a passive acceptance of the consequences of parenthood. The narcissistic motivation category scores suggested that, for pregnant teenagers, parenthood involved self-enhancement and proof of femininity. Instrumental motivation scores implied that there was a preconceived set of expectations concerning the function of children. Altruistic scores for the pregnant and nonpregnant group indicated an unselfish love for children. Further results indicated that the pregnant group had a more romantic attitude toward love than the nonpregnant group.

Findings suggest linkages among teenage pregnancy and: steady dating; romantic love attitudes; the search for identity and purpose; and other covert motives which lead to behavior directed toward need gratification. Since only high positive correlations were found among motivation for parenthood variables, it was concluded that this variable would warrant further investigation.