

EXPLORING POTENTIAL PREDICTORS OF COLLEGE ATTENDANCE FOR
AFRICAN AMERICAN WOMEN WHO PARENTED AS TEENS

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JACQUELYN A. COOK-KYLE B.S., M.Ed.

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to a host of family members, loved ones and supporters, specifically my five Js who are my children: Jolyn, Julian, Jacques, Jacelyn, and Jasmin. Thank you for understanding the importance of this doctorate degree and for sacrificing our time showing selflessness as my countless days and nights in class and at the library took time away from our family time together. Thank you for understanding that these sacrifices did not take away from my love and dedication to each of you.

I greatly appreciate my friends who fondly encouraged me by referring to me as Doc J long before I reached this point and to my cousin, Wilford Davis, (Poppa) for always being a phone call away (before your 10:30 p.m. bedtime). To the precious memory of my mother, Willa Cook, I thank God for you and the unwavering support that you gave throughout my life journey. To the memory of my father, Robert A. Cook, who set the example for me to reach for the stars through education, promising me that this hard work would bring great “future rewards”. To my colleagues, Dr. Janice F. Moore, Shelia Lumar, Chim Ahanotu, Akhtari Hashem Chowdhury, Tesia Wells, Elaine Bailly, Jesse McNeil, Joe McCalister, Francis Hodge, Ernest White, Alice Ajanga and Joyce Kyle-Miller and S.W.A.P., I thank you for leaving giant footprints for me to follow.

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Mysterious Nature

The people like me love life and celebrate living three hundred and sixty five days a year. We feel that the terra firma is our natural audience; therefore, we are always on stage but we do not have to be the star. We want to be the people that make good things happen for others be it a deed or a smile. We want to be a part of it. We want to be the one that you call all of the time, anytime. You can call us in a time of need. You would never really know it but we give what we really do want to receive from others. So as you get to know us, you will find that we are sometimes insecure and a bit shy. What people don't know about us is that we sincerely love people.

We exhibit a polished confidence and bold security in a crowd. However, we want to be really special to someone. Yes special, a simple, yet powerful word. We are loyal and believe in the long and winding road. When the road ends and those dreams of loyalty are found void, we are shaken. When those feelings of loyalty are not there, we feel starved and saddened. We always seek the loving support from the ones that we love and admire. Though we'd never ask, we'd love to hear, "you did a good job or I am so proud of you." Although, the love often appears unappreciated, we press forward and deliver a memorable presentation.

We can dress the part. It is often said that we “clean up” extremely well. Guess what? We know it! We present what you see to be seen by you, and you and you. It is no accident; on the contrary, it is all by strategic design. What you see is what it is, "lovers of knowledge, airs of confidence, intelligence and quests for spirituality. Powerful passion, sheer elegance, intimacy and rich, raw appeal" That's us! We often captivate our audience in a few minutes with a few simple words. We bring that special something to the table that carves an indelible mark on the mind. We drop pearls of wisdom and pick them up along our life' journey. We are humble. We appreciate others and feel joy and pride in knowing that we can most times go back once there.

We choose our words carefully, placing memorable thoughts in your head leaving thought after thought in your mind. We aim to please and we hit the bull's eye! Our mission is to produce and we work hard to get the job done. We set lofty goals and work diligently to accomplish greatness. We are driven by tenacity and we won't stop. We simply can't! People are amazed with our lives. We fight back taking opposition in stride (shaken but not stirred). We access, reassess and move forward seeing every step as progress. A snare holds us for only for a moment. We don't lose at anything, and I do mean anything. By seeing the glass as “half full,” we see the positive points when it is not obvious. You might say that we put the “P” in persistence therefore with us, everything is negotiable. When we say it, we mean it and when you say it we expect you to follow through. It is said by many that we appear to have an addictive personality and some say quite obstinate.

Our passionate raging rivers are powerful and run ever so deeply and we have been known to long, for that which is not ours to have. Like a warrior, we must fight and triumph temptation and remain in full armor at all times recognizing the war, understanding the spoils of war, knowing that the fight is never ending. When we are in battle with these feelings, we labor at length denying ourselves immediate personal satisfaction, our deepest desires. We love adventure and sometimes play with matches and dance too close to the fire.

Life for “The People Like Me” is simple. We are the flickers of light in a slow burning kerosene lantern. We see the forest and climb the tree. We are powerless and know that all power has HE. We thank God for his grace and mercy. We boldly celebrate this life each day. “That is, the people like me.” Mysterious Nature 2008

ABSTRACT

JACQUELYN A. COOK-KYLE

EXPLORING POTENTIAL PREDICTORS OF COLLEGE ATTENDANCE FOR AFRICAN AMERICAN WOMEN WHO PARENTED AS TEENS

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The purpose of this study was to explore the potential predictors of college attendance for African American women who parented as teens and are now between the ages of 20-35. Using a quantitative research methodology, this study examined variables that predict college attendance for this targeted population by exploring demographics, motivation, and perceived social support. Three instruments were comprised to design the survey instrument: the Academic Motivation Survey, the Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support and Cook-Kyle's Demographic Questionnaire to create the Predictors of College Attendance Instrument. Results show that many teenage mothers did not seek available support from school counselors; whereas, those that did seek support were more likely to go to college. The results further show that those teen mothers who continue their education reported higher income. In conclusion, the study results suggest that teens need more academic information from their school counselor

about college admission. In addition, there needs to be a special outreach to this population to increase there awareness and knowledge about higher education options.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Attending college after high school has multiple challenges but one of the most prevalent is teenage pregnancy which can impede aspirations to attend college. Teenage pregnancy is an epidemic and almost pandemic in the United States. Kost and Henshaw (2008) reported almost 750,000 U.S. women between the ages of 15–19 become pregnant every year, however, the numbers for girls younger than 15 were less bleak. Kost and Henshaw further noted that out of every 1,000 teens who were 14 years or younger, 6.6 pregnancies occurred. The authors further explained less than 1% of teens younger than 15 became pregnant. In 2008, 59% of pregnancies in teens between the ages of 15 and 19 years ended in birth, 26% ended in abortion, and 15% ended in miscarriage (Kost & Henshaw, 2008).

Regardless of how alarming this may be, teenage pregnancy continues to derail obtainment of a high school diploma, as well as the pursuit of college aspirations. Attending college is viewed as a pathway to qualities of life not experienced by everyone. Motherhood experienced prematurely can culminate in dismal life goals and events. Teenage mothers often place educational goals and career ambitions secondary or tertiary to what they dreamed about during formative school-age years. Many teen mothers choose to leave high school and forgo their education and diploma. Attending college is associated with access to a better quality of life. This quality of life cannot be accessed

without earning a high school diploma or its equivalent, such as a general equivalency diploma (GED, 2013). At minimum, a high school diploma provides for entry to service industry employment, thus an improved quality of life.

Teenagers dealing with a pregnancy often never complete high school, and at times, they are never afforded an opportunity to attend college. The National Campaign to Prevent Teen and Unplanned Pregnancy (NCPTUP, 2010) reported that teenage mothers affirm pregnancy and parenthood are the major causes for them to drop out of school and that 30% of African American girls comprise this population of teenage mothers. Furthermore, less than 2% of teen mothers graduate from college by the time they reach 30 years of age (NCPTUP, 2010).

Statement of the Problem

Once a teenager begins traveling the pathway to parenthood versus college, the outcome for college is often dismal. Frequently, the thought of attending college is never revisited when dealing with pregnancy as a teenager in high school. America's pregnancy rate among adolescents is the highest compared to other developed countries (Women and Infants Researcher [WIR], 2011). Marshall (2011) cited parenthood as the greatest cause of teen girls dropping out of school, with the high school dropout rate due to teenage pregnancy at 30%. Earlier results support findings that a significant relationship exists between becoming a teen mother and not completing high school (Levine & Painter, 1999). An additional roadblock of teenage pregnancy is the personal cost for teens and families with considerable costs to taxpayers (Kaye, 2012). Additionally, teen

pregnancy places a financial burden on local community, state, and federal resources.

Van Pelt (2012) reported on the limited number of special programs with meaningful strategies to combat continuation with high school and college entrance for teen mothers.

Connected to costs in dealing with teen pregnancy, schools and communities struggle in dealing with the lack of indispensable support from family, friends, and communities. Professional counseling for emotional support is one such area that is often lacking for the teenage mothers and their families (American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry [AACAP], 2012). Support from family, friends, and communities can boost the self-esteem of teenage mothers and provide strategies for enduring pregnancy during this period of their life.

Rationale for the Study

Attending college after giving birth as a teenager is not uncommon. Some African American teen mothers are motivated to complete their high school education and attend college. However, other African American teen mothers lack this motivation and turn their backs on a high school diploma and a college education. Once pregnant, some teenage girls often lose interest in academic pursuits.

Researchers often report on minimal educational expectations that stand in the way of academic success of teen mothers (Barr & Simons, 2012). However, there is a lack of research that report on what motivates teen mothers to complete high school and attend college (Barr & Simons, 2012). Additionally, WIR (2011) concluded there is a distinct need for intervention programs for teen mothers that ensure high school

graduation along with attending college in order to fulfill their career aspirations. This study is needed in order to determine factors that play a role in motivating young women to further their education. Once these factors are identified, intervention programs can be instilled to help teen mothers further their education and provide a better future for themselves and their children.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study was to determine what motivates African American teen mothers to complete high school and continue with a formal college education. Using a quantitative survey research method, this study focused on the psychological, physical, and emotional development of African American teen mothers who elected to attend a 2-year or 4-year college. Furthermore, the study examined factors associated with African American teen mothers who pursued college degrees in comparison to African American teen mothers who did not pursue college degrees. There are countless studies that report on the lack of support from family, friends, and communities in coming to the aid of teen mothers. Many studies focusing on teen mothers outline the cost to families, communities, and taxpayers and the inadequacy of programs assisting teen mothers (Fagan, Bernard, & Whiteman, 2007; Hermann, 2006; Hoffman, 2006; Marshall, 2011; Minnick & Shandler, 2012). Teen mothers, their families, and the communities where teen mothers live need to be made aware of what motivates teen mothers to obtain a high school diploma and continue with college even

after giving birth as a teenager. A family studies lenses was utilized to explore factors that motivate teen mothers to complete high school and attend college.

Research Questions

The following research questions were examined in African American females who became parents as teenagers and attend college:

1. Do (1) college attendance and (2) college completion depend on academic motivation?
2. Do (1) college attendance and (2) college completion depend on social support?
3. Do (1) college attendance and (2) college completion depend on community support?
4. Do (1) college attendance and (2) college completion depend on information received about financial aid and other community and government resources?
5. Do (1) college attendance and (2) college completion depend on counseling received from high school guidance counselors and teachers?
6. Do (1) college attendance and (2) college completion depend on information received from high school guidance counselors and teachers about college?

In addition to these research questions, the effects of demographic variables on (1) college attendance and (2) college completion were studied as the secondary research questions.

For each of the research questions, the following hypotheses were made regarding *African American females who became parents as teenagers*:

1. Those who (1) attend and (2) complete college will be significantly higher in academic motivation than those who do not attend or complete college.
2. Those who (1) attend and (2) complete college will have significantly more social support than those who do not attend or complete college.
3. Those who (1) attend and (2) complete college will have significantly more community support than those who do not attend or complete college.
4. Those who (1) attend and (2) complete college will have received significantly more information about financial aid and other community and government resources than those who do not attend or complete college.
5. Those who (1) attend and (2) complete college will have received significantly more counseling from their high school guidance counselor and teachers than those who do not attend or complete college.
6. Those who (1) attend and (2) complete college will have received significantly more information about college from their high school

guidance counselor and teachers than those who do not attend or complete college.

7. Those who (1) attend and (2) complete college will be significantly older than those who do not attend or complete college.
8. Those who (1) attend and (2) complete college will have significantly higher household income than those who do not attend or complete college.

Definitions

The following terms were defined based on how they were used for the purposes of this study:

Academic aspirations: A strong desire to achieve long-term academic accomplishments, such as high school graduation or attaining a college degree.(Redd, Brooks, & McGarvey, 2001).

Academic motivation: A student's desire (as reflected in approach, persistence, and level of interest) regarding academic subjects when the student's competence is judged against a standard of performance or excellence (McClelland, 1961; Wigfield & Eccles, 2002).

Adolescence: A period of time during the teenage years between 13 and 19 and can be considered the transitional stage from childhood to adulthood (Stanton, 2007).

African American: A person having origins from any of the African Black racial groups (Belgrave & Allison, 2010). When referencing African Americans in this research, the term Black will be used interchangeably.

Amotivation: A lack of incentive or motivation to perform any activity; sometimes this is due to a perception of incompetence or of a lack of value for the activity (Vallerand & Bissonnette, 1992).

Black: A person having origins from any of the African Black or African American racial groups (Belgrave & Allison, 2010).

College Attendance: Time required by individual institutes of higher learning to be considered a currently enrolled student is considered as college for the purpose of this study,

College Completion Any title or designation mark, abbreviation, spelling or series of letters or words, including “associate, ” “bachelor’s,” “masters” and “doctor’s” and their equivalents and foreign cognates while signifies satisfactory completion of the requirements of a program study which is generally regarded and accepted as an academic degree leveled program accrediting agencies recognized by the board.

Community support: Various types of support that are provided by a community-based organization to people in need such as community-based programs that help families to build on their own strengths and to promote the healthy development of children (“Community support,” 2013).

Egocentrism: The cognitive structures and characteristics of adolescents during this developmental stage, having a heightened awareness of self-consciousness, with the notion that others are watching, thinking, and having interest in them (Elkind, 1967).

Emotional development: One's emotional change over a lifetime; a child's changing experience, understanding, and emotions from birth to adulthood (Trentacosts & Izard, 2006).

Emotional support: Sharing another's burdens in an understanding, compassionate manner. In an environment conducive to this study, it would involve parents of teen mothers attending parent-teacher conferences (Goldsmith, 2014).

Extended family: A term referring to relatives not belonging to the nuclear family such as grandparents, aunts, uncles, and cousins all living nearby or in the same household (Andersen & Taylor, 2007).

Extrinsic motivation: An external incentive that prompts a person to perform a certain task, such as money, grades, a promotion, or other kinds of rewards (Vallerand & Bissonnette, 1992).

Family: The traditional group arrangement of a breadwinner husband and a homemaker wife who live with their biological children (Treuthart, 1991).

Family involvement: The relationships between parents, teachers, communities, and schools; parents' association with children's activities and schooling (Eccles & Harold, 1996).

Family structure: A description of how the family is organized, the manner in which members' roles are arranged, and how members relate to each other (Bowden & Greenberg, 2010).

Family support: Ways in which parents and other family members can offer help to family teen mothers by providing the basic needs for food, clothing, and shelter and help with baby care ("Family support," 2014).

Fictive kin: Individuals considered to be part of an extended social family, bearing no connection by marriage or blood; commonly found in the African American community (Shaw, 2008).

Future life choices: Life dreams that foretell the distant future and also predict what is just around the corner (Bogner, 2006).

GED: An acronym for general equivalency diploma. The GED diploma is equivalent to a high school diploma. One receives this diploma upon passing the GED test. The test is available in English, Spanish, and French and the questions cover five academic areas at a high school level: reading, writing, math, science, and social studies (GED Testing Service, 2013).

Household income: House hold income is measured on a scale of less than \$20, 000 to \$50.000 or more.

Intrinsic motivation: An inner motivation within an individual (such as pride) that provides pleasure or satisfaction gained from performing a task or completing a job well, something that money cannot buy (Vallerand & Bissonnette, 1992).

Kinship: Biological relationships between parents and children, siblings, and marital partners that create social ties between individuals and groups (Stewart, 2007).

Multigenerational family: More than two generations living together under one roof (“Multigenerational family,” 2013).

Nuclear family: A group composed of two parents (a mother and a father) and their biological or adopted children; some include a stepparent and any mix of dependent children, including stepchildren and adopted children (Haviland, Prins, & Walrath. (2007)

Parent: African American teenage mother.

Peer support sex education: A means of providing resources on sexual education in a wider context (Allerston & Davies, 2001).

Physical development: The process of change and growth in a human being, influenced by biological factors such as heredity (Kail, 2011).

Psychological development: The changes of one’s cognitive, emotional, intellectual, and social capabilities and functioning over the course of one’s life. Erik Erikson believed that personality develops in a series of stages (Erikson, 1959).

Sex education: Curriculum-based instruction that offers a “balance between providing young people with information and developing their skills in sexual empowerment and negotiating sexual pressure” (Mutri & Hennink, 2006, p. 129).

School counseling; : A collaborative effort between students and their advisors as they work together to meet the essential learning goals that support student individual life needs to foster academic success (“School counseling,” 2014).

Teenager: A person age 13 through 19 inclusively adolescent (Stanton, 2007).

Assumptions

This study was grounded in the following basic assumptions:

1. Adolescent thinking may reflect idealism rather than reality (Elkind, 1984; Ginsburg, Opper, & Brandt, 1987).
2. Participants will be open, willing, and truthful with the investigator.
3. Participants will be willing to share their insights and experiences as teen mothers.
4. Participants will have experiences that are subjective and will share these regarding their experiences as teen mothers.

Theoretical Frameworks

The theoretical framework for this study consists of three conceptual lenses: Andrew Billingsley’s family framework, Urie Bronfenbrenner’s ecological systems theory, and Robert Vallerand’s motivation theory. This section serves to illuminate theories and structures related to the support systems for teen mothers in their academic growth and future success.

Billingsley's Family Structure

Andrew Billingsley (1968) focused his research on the African American family and developed his family framework by taking the position that African American families operate within a system of three family functions: instrumental family functions, expressive family functions, and instrumental-expressive family functions. Furthermore, Billingsley's family framework consisted of five factors that work within the family structure to hold it together and make it thrive: (a) families extended in form for support, (b) support from fictive kin, (c) supportive family patterns, (d) flexible family boundaries, and (e) broad gender roles in child rearing (Billingsley, 1968). In Billingsley's opinion, social scientists overlooked the structural differences among families. He alerted researchers to be careful when assuming that two-parent families are structured and are knit together while single-parent households are dysfunctional. This premise is based on the assumption that a single-parent household has less income and lacks amenities in noneconomic areas, including childrearing. Billingsley found this to be untrue in that some one-parent families in certain areas have more successful parenting skills and ways of working together and coping than two-parent families (Billingsley, 1968).

Billingsley (1968) offered a framework which he believed would provide a broader and less distorted picture of Black families. The researcher labeled his family functions: (a) instrumental, (b) expressive, and (c) instrumental-expressive functions. Instrumental functions pertain to family relations in an external environment: constant

employment, sufficient shelter, a good education, ample income, and appropriate health care. Expressive functions relate to the internal environment of the family: maintaining a sense of belonging, a sense of worth, meaningful relationships, and a good marriage. Instrumental-expressive family functions consist of a mixture of instrumental and expressive behavior relating to sex, reproduction, and raising children, emphasizing child socialization (Billingsley, 1968).

Billingsley (1968) affirmed the cultural distinction and the strengths of the Black family. He characterized the African American family as having extraordinary elasticity, adjustability, and a spirit of toughness and buoyancy. Billingsley affirmed African American family members exhibit remarkable flexibility by taking on the role of absent family members and performing their duties such as mother/father functions in the absence of parents. Billingsley saw this adaptability and resiliency in Black women who often become the primary bread winner in their families when the former bread winner leaves or dies.

Billingsley (1968) found many variations of class and family structure in the Black community which gave strength to the community as a whole. The researcher divided the African American family organization into three basic groups: the nuclear family, the extended family, and the augmented family. He stated these adaptations were a result of social and economic changes in society. Billingsley described four classes of relatives who might live together as an extended African American family. The first group consists of grandchildren, nieces and nephews, cousins, and siblings less than 18

years of age. Another group would be peers of parents like their siblings, cousins, or other adult relatives. The third group contains elders of parents such as aunts and uncles, and the fourth group is comprised of parents of family leaders. Billingsley determined that Black families exhibit strengths in unified religious beliefs, offering love, positive coping skills, sharing in responsibilities, and providing family support (Billingsley, 1968). Andrew Billingsley posited that African American families operate based on three primary functions, including instrumental functions (e.g., providing shelter and education), expressive functions (e.g., maintaining a sense of belonging in the family), and instrumental-expressive functions (e.g., reproduction and child socialization). Billingsley's framework suggested that these functions helped teen mothers to exhibit flexibility and resilience by allowing family members to take on varying roles of parents. This framework specifically addresses the resources within the family.

Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Systems Theory

Noted for his work with early childhood, adolescence and the family, psychologist Urie Bronfenbrenner (1979) introduced a more widely accepted perception on Billingsley's family frameworks and presented a socio-cultural view of family development. In his ecological systems theory, Bronfenbrenner described the family as an operational system with five types of environmental systems: microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, macrosystem, and chronosystem. Bronfenbrenner explained how human development is influenced by these environmental systems. His theory helps us to

understand why we may behave differently in the presence of our family compared to our behavior when we are in school or at work (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

Bronfenbrenner (1979) described the microsystem in our lives as those people with whom we have direct contact and interaction: family, friends, neighbors, classmates, teachers, and co-workers. Peers and family members rely on each other for primary support. Bronfenbrenner held that we are not mere recipients of our social experiences with these people; we also contribute to the construction of this environment (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). In examining African American teen mothers for this research, the microsystem includes family members, peers, school, religious communities, and others comprising the neighborhood members.

Bronfenbrenner (1979) stated the mesosystem describes how our microsystem relationships broaden our lives by involving relationships where school and families may find teachers, counselors, community organizations more supportive of continued education or may not. Our family experiences may relate to our school experiences. For example, an African American teen mother who does not receive parental support for college may find teachers, counselors, and community organizations more supportive for continued education.

Bronfenbrenner (1979) reported the third system, the exosystem, merges with the mesosystem outside of self and family to include the workplace and other environments. An example of the exosystem maybe the primary bread winner's loss of employment directly impacts the financial stress within the household including the African American

teen mother and her child. Bronfenbrenner further explained the macrosystem examines one's cultural ideologies, beliefs, and religion and is the actual culture of a person. The cultural contexts involve the socioeconomic status of the person and his family, his ethnicity or race, and where he lives. For example, if an African American teen mother desires to seek continued education by applying for government and non-government resources, she must qualifying requirements outlined as political and religious cultural norms.

The last environmental system of Bronfenbrenner (1979) is the chronosystem which embraces all the transitions that occur in one's lifetime, connects environmental changes over time, and includes all of these five systems. This system may explain how one's socio-historical contexts influence him. Child birth for the African American teen is a major life transition that has implications that will last through the lifespan. These life choice decisions may affect effect future quality of life and career choices.

Urie Bronfenbrenner (1979) expanded on Andrew Billingsley's family framework with the ecological systems theory, stating that human development is the result of an operational system with five system levels (i.e., microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, macrosystem, chronosystem). From the basic microsystem (e.g., immediate family, peers, teachers) to the overarching macrosystem (e.g., cultural ideologies, religion), these systems work together over time (chronosystem) to determine how human development depends upon family and its community and cultural surroundings. Andrew Billingsley and Urie Bronnfenbrenner's research segment family's growth and development in

stages. Billingsley's studies reveal that, the African American family functions within cultural systems where primary support for teen mothers comes from within the family structure and extended into the community and society. Urie Bronfenbrenner broadened that lens to include additional family systems from a European perspective noting the family role in supporting adolescent development. Both of these frameworks provide a lens for exploring the African American teen mother's predictors of attending college.

Vallerand's Motivation Theory

Canadian social psychologist, Robert Vallerand (1997) focused his research on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and studied the determinants and consequences of both types of motivation. In 1992, Vallerand and Bissonnette defined the following terms: (a) intrinsic motivation as the drive to pursue an activity simply for the pleasure or satisfaction gained by it, (b) extrinsic motivation as the pursuit of an activity due to a sense of obligation, and (c) amotivation as the absence of intent or drive to pursue an activity due to one's failure to establish a link between their behavior and the activity. In summary, Robert Vallerand's academic motivational theory on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation serves as a framework for the examination of academic college readiness in exploring potential predictors of college attendance for African American women who parented as teens.

Vallerand, Blais, BriBre, and Pelletier (1989) developed the Academic Motivational Scale (AMS), which was aimed at adolescents and adults in academic environments to help determine the influence that academic motivation has on the

learning process. The purpose of the scale is to assess a student's or an individual's academic motivation to analyze if it is intrinsically or extrinsically driven. Vallerand's research revealed that most people are passionate about some type of activity (Vallerand, 1997). Harmonious passion can lead to adaptive outcomes. However, the more obsessive one's passion is, the less adaptive one may become (Vallerand, 1997).

Vallerand and Reid (1988) found higher levels of intrinsic motivation after positive feedback than after negative feedback. Participants who received positive feedback felt more competent and motivated; their feedback influenced their intrinsic motivation. The AMS shows that students who exhibit a greater self-determination level also achieve a better academic record, demonstrate more interest in class, show signs of competence and, usually, have better school attendance.

Vallerand and Reid (1988) determined higher levels of intrinsic motivation followed positive feedback, but lower levels followed negative feedback. In their research, Vallerand, Fortier, and Guay (1997) concluded that students who had more self-determined motivation for completing their schoolwork were most likely to stay in school than those who did not. These three researchers found a link between intrinsic motivation and positive academic performance. After a group of high school students completed the AMS, Vallerand et al. (1997) found that the students rated their teachers' autonomy as supportive. The students' perceptions of teachers' autonomy were positively associated with the non-self-determined forms of motivation. From this same study, Vallerand et al. (1997) surmised school contexts and home contexts have similar outcomes. Students

who perceived their parents to provide autonomy support were more self-determined which was revealed in their motivational profiles; in contrast, when students perceived their parents to be more controlling, their motivational profiles were less self-determined. Thus, Vallerand et al. (1997) determined the effects of school contexts parallel the effects of home contexts.

The research of Vallerand et al. (1997) revealed that motivation is one factor in a student's decision to drop out of school. A better understanding of the process of dropping out can lead to insight for future interventions for the high school population. In terms of education, it seems apparent that intrinsic motivation leads to outcomes that are beneficial to individuals and to society. Robert Vallerand's (1997) theoretical framework focuses on the determinants and outcomes of intrinsic motivation, or the internal drive to pursue an activity for its pleasure and satisfaction, and extrinsic motivation, or the external drive to pursue an activity to fulfill an obligation. This framework has shown useful for examining the role of motivation in determining academic success (e.g., completing school, maintaining strong academic records, holding interest in courses, having good school attendance).

This principal researcher has developed a Venn diagram (Figure 1 below) to demonstrate how the three theories of Billingsley (African American Family Theory), Bronfenbrenner (Ecological Systems Theory – Global Family) and Vallerand (Academic Motivational Theory) are intertwined. The diagram illustrates how the three theories

work together to support the research in this study and to support teenage mothers as they attempt to balance motherhood while pursuing a college education.

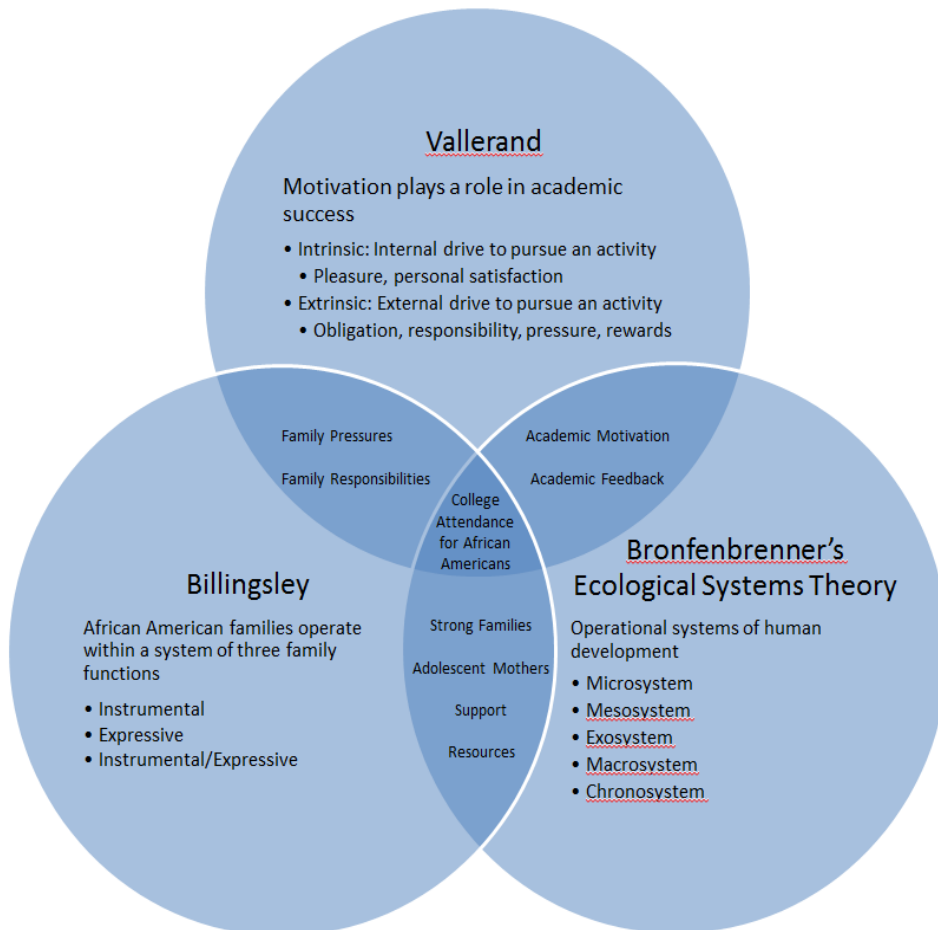


Figure 1. Three theoretical frameworks intertwined: Venn Diagram connecting Billingsley, Brokenbrenner, and Vallerand (Created by Cook-Kyle in 2014).

Summary

College attendance will afford teen mothers opportunities to develop skills and Pursue interest in various fields of study for life careers. Research shows that there is a significant relationship between academic failure and teenage pregnancy. Pregnancy

among teens is a primary factor in the dropout rate. African American teen mothers who do not receive post secondary education have a difficult time finding adequate employment. Given the surmounting demands for post secondary education, it is becoming increasingly vital that teenage mothers complete high school and go to college. A college education will provide these young mothers an avenue for obtaining those well paying jobs given today's competitive employment market.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In order to provide an empirical and conceptual framework for this inquiry, a review of related literature was conducted and presented in this chapter. The survey of literature includes available information on teenage pregnancy and its impact on college readiness and future life choices. This literature review covered the statistics of teen births and their effect on the teen mother's education, the vulnerability of teens, and the various support systems available to teen mothers.

College attendance represents the prerequisite of a bright future for high school adolescents; however, the high school dropout rate reveals staggering statistics. The National Campaign to Prevent Teen and Unplanned Pregnancy (NCPTUP) (2010) reported that a high school diploma is not adequate competition for jobs within the global market. The number of pregnant teen dropouts is astounding, and African American girls make up 30% of this population of teenage mothers (NCPTUP, 2010). Teenage mothers list pregnancy and parenthood as a major reason for dropping out of school (NCPTUP, 2010). Less than 2% of teen mothers complete postsecondary education by 30 years of age (NCPTUP, 2010).

Some believe that pregnant teens and teen mothers do not desire a college education or a good job. The research team at Women and Infants Hospital (WIR) (2011) in Rhode Island has refuted this assumption. The WIR found that pregnant teens and teen

mothers dream of a college education and a good job; they can reach their goals with support. In order to provide an empirical and conceptual framework for this inquiry, this principal researcher conducted a survey of related literature which is presented in this chapter. The survey of literature includes available information on (a) how intrinsic motivation impacted teen mothers; (b) a discussion of the levels of support for adolescent mothers from families, communities, teachers, and counselors; and (c) an analysis of social and government support for these teens.

Statistics

Among the developed countries in the world, America has the highest adolescent pregnancy and birth rate (Smith-Battle, 2012; WIR, 2011). Statistics reveal the rate of teenage girls giving birth made a drastic increase of 5% during the years of 2005 and 2007; however, this rise was inverted by a decline of teen births in 2008 and 2009 (Smith-Battle, 2012). In 2011, the birth rates for Black adolescent mothers ages 18-19 showed 47.3% per 1000, (Hamilton, 2012). More recently, the number of teenage mothers has increased drastically to one out of every ten (Van Pelt, 2012). The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) (2011) reported that the primary reason teenage girls do not complete high school is due to pregnancy. Researchers found these statistics are staggering and warrant a cause to be alarmed (CDC, 2011; Van Pelt, 2012). The CDC further found less than four out of ten (38%) teenage mothers who give birth before their 18th birthday graduate from high school, and less than 2% of this population

attains their college degree before they reach 30 years of age. When teen girls do not complete high school, their chances for success are greatly endangered (Van Pelt, 2012).

Unplanned pregnancies are inclined to show higher rates of stress both emotionally and financially. A report from the NCPTUP (2009) found these stressors can impede academic accomplishment. Teenage girls ages 18-19, who become pregnant, are increasing in number on community college campuses, and the chance of them getting their degree is poor (NCPTUP, 2009). Birth rates per 1000 Black females ages 15-19 indicate that from 1990-2012, 47.3% Statistics show that 61% of female students in community colleges who give birth after enrollment do not finish their education; this rate is 65% higher than those women who do not have children (NCPTUP, 2009). Because of this growing population on campuses, community colleges have the opportunity to play a pivotal role with teenagers who are facing unplanned pregnancies. WHO (2012) reported education protects teen girls from pregnancy. The more education these girls have, the less likely they are to have early pregnancies. Women with less education have higher birth rates than those with secondary education (WHO, 2012).

Health Risk Factors for Teen Mothers and Their Infants

The NCPTUP (2007) reported on the risk factors that affect teen mothers and their infants. Teen pregnancy can have negative health implications for both the mother and her child. NCPTUP found a teen mother's health and behavior before, during, and after pregnancy will affect her baby's health and often leads to premature birth and low

birthweight. These newborns are at greater risk for infant death, respiratory distress syndrome, bleeding in the brain, vision loss, and serious intestinal problems (NCPTUP, 2007). Additionally, Mangiaterra, Pendse, McClure, and Rosen (2008) found babies born to adolescents also face a significantly higher risk of death compared to babies born to older women.

Culp-Ressler (2013) reported the most risky day in childbirth for mothers and babies is the first day of life. The United States has the highest infant mortality rate on babies' first day of life of any industrialized country. One million infants die every year in the world on the same day they are born; this includes 11,300 U.S. babies (Culp-Ressler, 2013). Research reveals our country's reason for these high numbers is due largely to unintended teen pregnancies and births (Culp-Ressler, 2013). American teen mothers tend to be poorer, less educated, and have less prenatal care than older mothers (Culp-Ressler, 2013).

Kaye (2012) revealed babies born to teen mothers are at amplified risk for specific health problems compared to babies born to older mothers. These risks are partly due to poor prenatal care and smoking during pregnancy, resulting in preterm birth and low-birthweight; these results can impact the infant for years to come (Kaye, 2012). Kaye presented staggering statistics that negatively impact infants of teen mothers:

1. Teen mothers (43%) are apt to go without prenatal care in the first trimester compared to older mothers (25%).
2. Teen mothers (33%) are apt to smoke during pregnancy compared to older

mothers and most of these teen mothers did not quit smoking after childbirth.

3. Compared to infants born to older mothers, infants of teen mothers are 17% more likely to be born prematurely and 25% more likely to have low-birth weight.

4. A teen mother's infant mortality rate is 50% higher than that of older mothers (9.6 deaths per 1,000 births compared to 6.3).

The outcome differences for infants of teens and older mothers were noteworthy in every racial and ethnic subgroup, and the infants of teen mothers continue to be at risk for poor health outcomes (Kaye, 2012).

The health of teen mothers is also at risk due to sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) and HIV/AIDS. The NCPTUP (2007) reported 25% of the sexually active population is ages 15 to 24, and they are responsible for half of STD new cases. The cases of teens with Chlamydia increased 20% between 2000 and 2004; this is the second highest rate for all age groups (NCPTUP, 2007). Teen cases of Gonorrhea rank second to adults 20-24 years of age (NCPTUP, 2007). The number of AIDS cases for teens between the ages of 13-19 amounted to 6,300 by the end of 2005 in the United States (NCPTUP, 2007).

Health consequences result because teen parents have not yet developed into fully-grown adults (Anderson & McGuinness, 2008; Farley & Cowley, 2001; Fagan, Bernard, & Whiteman, 2007); however, teenage girls are still learning how to cope with life and its course. Yet, as a result, 33% of teenage girls experience postpartum

depression symptoms (Anderson & McGuiness, 2008). Reid and Meadows-Oliver (2008) suggested that postpartum depression in adolescent mothers “may lead to less positive interactions with their children as well as a host of physical and behavioral problems in the children” (p. 294).

Mangiaterra et al. (2008) reported adolescent mothers have a much higher risk of dying from maternal causes than mothers in their 20s and 30s. The risk is greater for younger mothers. The risk of death for adolescents under 16 is four times greater than the maternal death of women over 20 (Mangiaterra et al., 2008). It is evident that all of these negative health consequences for both infant and mother have an impact on teen mothers going back to high school to get a diploma or furthering their education in college.

Vulnerability of Teen Mothers

Teen Parenting Skills

NCPTUP (2009) stressed the need for strong parenting skills in order for parents to ensure healthy lives for their children. However, strong parenting skills need an adult brain. Fellows and Farah (2007) reported the teen brain is not completely developed. Parents of teens often wonder if their child has morphed into a total stranger when they do weird things: dye their hair red with black stripes and wear studded leather jackets with high-heeled shoes to school. Fellows and Farah stated the problem is not what teens are thinking; it's about how teens are thinking. The reality is a teen's nerve cells that join the frontal lobe to the rest of the brain are not yet fully connected (Fellows & Farah, 2007). The teen's frontal lobe is working but it is sluggish, and their ability to access it is

slow. Teens are not thinking about the consequences of their actions. They have yet to gain insight ability. That will come when the fatty coating called myelin, or white matter, will become thicker as they reach adulthood (Fellows & Farah, 2007). This neural insulation becomes complete in the mid-20s. Until then, teens are not capable of thinking about how their behavior affects others. That kind of thinking requires insight which comes with a fully connected frontal lobe (Fellows & Farah, 2007). An adult brain helps to develop strong parenting skills.

Other scientists have studied teenage brains and behavior. The research of Galvan et al. (2006) revealed that teenage impulsivity and risk-taking behaviors are linked to the orbitofrontal cortex of the teenage brain. This particular area of the brain does not mature until early adulthood. In response to their findings, Galvan et al. reported that experts in this field are switching their focus from pregnancy prevention to the promotion of healthy behaviors and are assisting teens in developing quality decision-making skills. Schools, community centers, faith-based organizations, and health care providers (HCPs) are embracing this more positive approach (Galvan et al., 2006).

Hurd, Moore, and Rogers (1995) studied the parenting skills of African Americans. The authors explored the values, attitudes, and activities of African American parents by asking them to describe what they believed they were doing right. The results of the study revealed three trends: (a) substantial parental involvement, (b) considerable male involvement, and (c) profuse support from external caregivers. Furthermore, Hurd and his colleagues found the following eight themes fostering effective parenting skills:

(a) connection with family (b) emphasis on achievement (c) respect for others (d) spirituality (e) fostering of self-reliance (f) emphasis on importance of education (g) teaching coping skills, and (h) self-respect.

While Hurd et al. (1995) examined prominent themes and trends in African American families, Dworsky and Meehan (2012) found the contrary in their investigation. Research has shown that many young women who are homeless are also pregnant or parenting and pregnant. Dworsky and Meehan conducted a qualitative study on parenting which encompassed exploring the parental skills of youth who were homeless, pregnant, parenting, or both. Their study involved 23 participants whose age ranged from 16 to 20 years. These participants were pregnant (3), parents (13), or were both pregnant and parents (7). The participants in this study lived in shelters that were specifically set up for mothers who were adolescents or adolescent mothers-to-be. The focus of Dworsky and Meehan's somewhat structured interviews was to explore the women's ideas regarding (a) what it meant to be a good parent, (b) key trials they coped with, and (c) how parenting had altered their lives. These women understood that, as parents, their children's needs came before their own. Additionally, they realized it was their duty to teach their children to behave well and to respect rules and the law.

From their interviews, Dworsky and Meehan (2012) found that none of these participants' mothers had been positive role models for their daughters. The authors further determined that these young, homeless women were fully aware of the difficult road ahead of them. The participants wanted to do well by their children, but they

expressed concern for their ability to provide for their children because of their meager financial resources. Dworsky and Meehan concluded social policies and practices needed to be in place to help these mothers with their parenting skills and their need for more education so they could provide a better life for their children.

Economic and Social Pressures

Mollborn and Jacobs (2011) conducted a study that considered 20 aspects of overcoming teen pregnancy. From a sample size of 55 teen mothers, they learned two things. First, these mothers were dealing with harsh economic and social pressures. Second, these mothers obtained a great deal of assistance from their family members and from the fathers of their children. Even with this assistance, many basic needs were not met. Finally, this research revealed the prevalent matter that many individuals, family members, and communities did not approve of childbearing among teenagers.

Mollborn and Jacobs' (2011) study shed some light on economic stressors and the consequences of teen parenting. This research is important because it is based on the abundance of quantitative investigations that focused on teenage mothers many decades ago. These researchers looked beyond the consequences of childbearing at an early age and focused on the economic, demographic, and normative changes in the context of bearing a child as a teenager. In their inductive study, Mollborn and Jacobs centered their investigation on a broader assortment of processes and consequences for teenage mothers. These authors explored how teenage parenthood influences the lives of young individuals and their children. They concluded mothers who are teenagers experience

economic and social strains from being a young mother. This combination creates the position of vulnerability for the teen mother and her child. No matter how hard teenage mothers attempt to improve their position, they find it difficult to achieve their ambitions in life as well as their educational goals (Mollborn & Jacobs, 2011).

Smith-Battle (2000) recognized the strain and vulnerability of being a teenage mother. Even though her study was conducted in 2000, Smith-Battle acknowledged that bearing a child as a teenager is often believed to culminate with a long life of negative consequences. This could include living in poverty. Smith-Battle conceded that bearing a child as a teenager can jeopardize the pathway to parenthood because of the education derailment often experienced.

Teen Mothers and Loss of Education

A high school diploma is a requirement for all students who are preparing to further their education. Additionally, having a diploma increases job opportunities. Smith-Battle (2012) determined that a diploma benefits disadvantaged, pregnant, and parenting students the most. Battle (2007) found some school districts are hard pressed to meet the needs of pregnant and parenting teens, in light of these teens' challenges of combining parenthood, school, and work.

Education helps an individual to move easily from one job to another, and lack of adequate education may prevent one from attaining a good job. Childbearing at an early age may hinder a teenage girl from attending college or getting into a good career (Cates & Schaeffle, 2011; Maynard & Hoffman, 2008; Minnick & Shandler, 2012; Swail, 2000;

Yampolskaya, Massey, & Greenbaum, 2006). Moreover, early pregnancy has dire consequences for a teenage mother's educational and career prospects, with about 50% of female adolescents failing to earn a high school diploma, earning an average income of \$46,500 for the first 15 years of parenting, and becoming increasingly dependent on public assistance (Minnick & Shandler, 2012).

Race runs parallel to different rates of college attendance. Hill and Jepsen (2004) demonstrated that race is analogous to the differential rates of postsecondary collegiate attendance. Hill and Jepsen determined that predictors of attendance in postsecondary education include family income and the education of the maternal parent. Additionally, if a teen has several siblings, this factor could have a derogatory impact on the teen's postsecondary attendance.

More findings from Hill and Jepsen's (2004) investigation included behavioral measures that predict attending a postsecondary institution. Test scores from eighth grade may enhance the odds of attending a postsecondary school, premature sexual activity decreases the odds of attending a postsecondary school, and drug use decreases the odds of attending school in a postsecondary setting (Hill & Jepsen, 2004). An interesting finding from Hill and Jepsen's investigation revealed participants who worked during high school increased their chances of attending a postsecondary institution.

Teen pregnancy can damage teenage educational outcomes. Levine and Painter (2003) reviewed the cost of teenage pregnancy educationally. The researchers investigated the 1988 National Educational Longitudinal Survey (NELS) to determine the

magnitude of the apparent effects of teenage pregnancy because of already present conditions of being from disadvantaged backgrounds and disadvantaged families. Levine and Painter compared junior high school girls by contrasting teenage mothers with teens who are not mothers. The investigators concluded the education of teen mothers is reduced significantly while their cohorts do not experience the same negative impact. Based on their findings, Levine and Painter expected teenage mothers to have poor outcomes. This is on point with the bulk of the studies conducted during this era but somewhat contrary to more recent studies. These investigators acknowledged the high rate of teenage pregnancy in the United States. During the time of this study and before these teens reached the age of 20, the ratio of teens giving birth to children was approximately two to five. The results support earlier findings that a significant relationship exists between becoming a teen mother and not completing high school (Levine & Painter, 2003).

Hofferth, Reid, and Mott (2001) examined the college attendance of teen mothers using data from the National Longitudinal Survey of Labor Market Experience of Youth and the Panel Study of Income and Dynamics. Hofferth et al. hypothesized that a teen's pregnancy has a negative impact on college attendance (Hypothesis: Teen + Pregnancy = No College) by comparing two sets of data between teen mothers and young women who start their families later in life. The researchers found the likelihood of going to college increased for young women without babies in contrast to teen mothers who started to attend college. Additionally, the authors reported a significant, derogatory impact existed

for teenage mothers who wanted to further their education. The authors found teenage birth has a significant impact on school and school completion. Hofferth et al.'s archetype suggests that women who have children in their 30s complete their education whereas teenage mothers complete 1.9 to 2.2 fewer years of education. A comparison of these two groups further showed that women who give birth after 30 years of age have a greater likelihood of continuing and completing their education, whereas, the odds of a teen mother completing high school was only 10-12% as high, and their chances were 14-29% for postsecondary school completion (Hofferth et al., 2001). There is a reduction in the variance between teen mothers and their peers that have not given birth. More young women are completing high school despite timing and first childbirth. Nonetheless, between the early 1960s and the early 1990s, the divide between early parenting and later parenting and postsecondary school attendance has broadened from 27 to 47 percentage points (Hofferth et al., 2001).

Economic Costs of Teen Pregnancy

One of the negative consequences of teenage pregnancy is the financial cost to the family, the community, and taxpayers in general (Fagan et al., 2007; Herrman, 2006; Hoffman, 2006; Marshall, 2011; Minnick & Shandler, 2012). Indeed, teenage pregnancy and childbearing present pressing societal concerns because of the resulting economic and social costs (Minnick & Shandler, 2012). On average, childbearing costs U.S. taxpayers \$4,080 per teenager age 17 and under (Minnick & Shandler, 2012). Staples and Johnson (1993) reported that most teens living on their own are poor and disadvantaged

and need to work hard in order to escape from poverty. Should one of these teens become pregnant, their financial situation becomes worse. Both teenage mothers and their partners worry about how to meet social, educational, and financial expectations for their offspring. Indeed, when teen mothers experience financial stress, so does society at large.

In addition to personal costs for teens and their families, Kaye (2012) noted there are considerable costs to taxpayers associated with the public healthcare expenses of teen childbearing. Reducing teen pregnancy will not only improve the health of teens and their future children, it will also reduce some of the costs of public health services. It is more likely that children of teen mothers will depend on public health care compared to children of older mothers. In the first year of their life, 84% of their health care expenses are provided through public programs, as well as 75% of teen mothers' preschool children (Kaye, 2012). The health care expenses for children whose mothers are 20-22 years of age are half of this amount (Kaye, 2012). The cost of providing health and medical care, mostly through Medicaid and SCHIP, to teen mothers' children is \$2 billion each year (Kaye, 2012). Additionally, 72% of teen births in the United States are paid for by Medicaid (Kaye, 2012).

Marshall (2011) further presents the case that the school dropout crisis is costly. The main reason why girls drop out of high school is because of pregnancy or motherhood (Marshall, 2011). Since fewer students are graduating, the number of students that drop out of school in the next 10 years will cost taxpayers \$3 trillion (Marshall, 2011). Dropout results will bring about less tax revenue, will add to prison

costs, and will cause more spending on welfare and Medicaid (Marshall, 2011). If there were fewer teenage pregnancies and births, teens would have a better chance for continuing their education and developing a good career.

Types of Motivation, Definitions, and Connection to Academics

Motivation is one key factor in reducing teen pregnancy and in encouraging teen mothers to further their education. This section examined over eight major studies including Vallerand's work on motivation. The research points to three types of motivation: intrinsic, extrinsic, and amotivation. Vallerand and Bissonnette (1992) defined intrinsic motivation as an inner incentive within an individual, such as pride. An example might be the pleasure or sense of satisfaction that a person gains from performing a task or completing a job well done, something that money cannot buy. It is the opposite of external motivation. Vallerand and Bissonnette (1992) defined extrinsic motivation as an external incentive that prompts a person to perform a certain task, such as money, grades, a promotion, or other kinds of rewards, which is a contrast to intrinsic motivation. Vallerand and Bissonnette (1992) defined amotivation as the lack of motivation or incentive to perform any activity. Dörnyei (2001) defined amotivation as the absence of motivation. Dörnyei perceived this lack of motivation is not caused by a shortage of interest but is caused by one's position of feeling incompetent and helpless when faced with a specific task.

Vallerand and Bissonnette (1992) reported on four types of amotivation. The first type of amotivation can result from a capacity-ability belief, meaning that the learners

think they do not have the ability to perform an action. Secondly, amotivation can result from strategy beliefs, meaning learners perceive that the strategies used do not bring the desired outcomes. The third type of amotivation, the capacity-effort belief, refers to lack of motivation due to beliefs that the behavior is too demanding and requires too much effort. Vallerand and Bissonnette determined the fourth type of amotivation, a helplessness belief, is a product of a general perception that learners' efforts are inconsequential. When considering the enormity of the task to be accomplished, the learner believes he is powerless and his efforts would be insignificant in completing the task (Vallerand & Bissonnette, 1992).

Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, and Ryan (1991) found students can be motivated in their education by (a) promoting an interest in their learning; (b) helping them to value education; and (c) bolstering their confidence in themselves, their capabilities, and their talents. This motivation process leads the student to a high quality of learning and understanding and augments his personal growth (Deci et al., 1991). The researchers reported that factors which foster intrinsic motivation show the way to desired educational outcomes. Such factors might include a commendation from a teacher or parent or when a student connects with his teacher and feels that the teacher has an interest in the student's work. Vallerand and Bissonnette (1992) linked intrinsic motivation and self-directed forms of extrinsic motivation to positive academic performance. A study conducted by Benware and Deci (1984) revealed college students who learned text material in order to put it to use reported they gained intrinsic

motivation for learning and showed greater conceptual understanding than did students who learned the material for a test.

Further research revealed a connection between motivation and academic performance. Studies conducted by Lloyd and Barenblatt (1984) and Haywood and Burke (1977) revealed that intrinsic motivation and scholarly feats were related. Vallerand, Blaise, BriBre, and Pelletier (1989) found those students who were exposed to greater amounts of intrinsic motivation demonstrated more positive emotions in the classroom, more pleasure in their academics, and more fulfillments with school than those students whose motivational profiles were less self-governing. Furthermore, the results from the studies of Vallerand et al. (1989) and Connell and Wellborn (1990) deduced that students who are intrinsically motivated in school are more likely to achieve, to understand, to be better adjusted, and to remain in school than students who have been less motivated. Connell and Wellborn determined that, educationally, intrinsic motivation leads to positive outcomes for persons and for society. Deci et al. (1991) agreed that students who were highly motivated excelled academically. When significant adults like teachers and parents become involved with students “in an autonomy-supportive way, the students will be more likely to retain their natural curiosity and to develop autonomous forms of self-regulation through the process of internalization and integration” (Deci et al., 1991, p. 342).

How do these types of motivation relate to teen parenting? Motivation or the lack of it plays an important role in the lives of teen mothers, especially when they are

contemplating furthering their education. Teen mothers might encounter amotivation and feel helpless, hopeless, that the effort is too demanding, or that the task is too large for her to accomplish (Dornyei, 2001; Vallerand & Bissonnette, 1992; Vallerand et al., 1997). The support systems in our discussion provide motivation for teen mothers to reach their goals and further their education.

Support Systems for Teen Mothers

Support systems are crucial for teen mothers. Confronting school, parenting issues, and making ends meet can be overwhelming for teen mothers. It is incredibly challenging to raise a child as a teenager. Teen mothers need emotional, physical, and financial support, as they are at great risk of dropping out of school and living in poverty. Various support systems are available that nurture success for a teen mother. School counselors provide information on scholarships and grants to help students further their education (Rhiannon, 2013). This discussion of support systems includes support from schools, teachers, and counselors; family; community; and social and government support systems.

Support from Schools, Teachers, and Counselors

Vallerand (1997), through his motivation theory, related the value of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, especially with regard to school support systems. Through the development of the Academic Motivational Scale, Vallerand, et al. (1989) realized the value of their work regarding adolescents in academic environments. This influence that

academic motivation has on the learning process can benefit teen mothers in furthering their education.

School programs. In developing more effective school programs, teen parenting program developers and advocates have integrated programmatic strategies to reduce amotivation belief types. In order to prevent this possible destructive path teenage mothers have approached, active involvement intended to prevent mothers from giving up on school is needed through school support systems.

Van Pelt (2012) reported on another type of special school program with several components that include small environments in schools. These environments are designed to cater to the needs of teen mothers (Van Pelt, 2012). These special programs offer mentoring and counseling that are easily accessible and provide support for academic and career choices (Van Pelt, 2012). Van Pelt described one of these special programs with successful strategies that help keep teen mothers in school: the Adolescent Girls and Parenting Education (AGAPE) program. This program offers teenage mothers hope and a future through a holistic educational approach that provides (a) parental support, (b) preparation for postsecondary opportunities, and (c) academic integrity. The setting in this type of program offers teen mothers an environment that is stable and supportive. It is like a home away from home (Van Pelt, 2012). Van Pelt reported that AGAPE programs in the Chicago public schools combat the issues that teen mothers face by encouraging and connecting these mothers with social workers who are not judgmental. Additionally, the AGAPE program provides a positive environment that

offers connectedness and engagement which produces respect from others for these mothers (Van Pelt, 2012). The AGAPE program forges a teenage mother's desire to attend school and increases her self-esteem and self-confidence (Van Pelt, 2012). Barriers that prevent this population from attending school on a regular basis can be uncovered when their needs are met. Once these barriers are removed, teen mothers' school attendance will increase (Van Pelt, 2012).

Through the AGAPE program, counseling plays an important role in keeping teen mothers on track in school. Van Pelt (2012) discussed the need for teenage mothers to obtain support not only in school but also in out-of-school settings. One option is counseling in a group situation that allows for teen mothers as a group to gain strength from other teen mothers. This setting also allows for concentration on specific needs and issues that are dynamic to teen mothers or mothers-to-be (Van Pelt, 2012).

Teen mothers and intrinsic motivation in school culture. Byrd and Chavous (2011) presented an example of intrinsic motivation in a school setting when they investigated the culture of a school to determine if the racial climate in schools was a negative factor which influenced school attendance among racial groups. The participants of this study consisted of 359 African American 11th grade boys and girls. The authors concluded that the self-efficacy of these African American students gave them a strong feeling of racial pride. This sense of pride provided the intrinsic motivation for attending school, which allowed these students to incorporate a relaxed relationship with their

multiracial peers. Race and standards were not issues in the school climate and did not influence school attendance. For these students, a sense of belonging prevailed.

Battle (2007) studied teen pregnancy and its impact on education. This qualitative study consisted of 10 Black and 9 White teens ages 15 to 18. Additionally, surrogate teens were recruited for the study, bringing the sample size to a total of 41 participants which included 18 families and 19 teen mothers. The education of the biological mothers' ranged from 8th grade to 2 years in college. Battle related limited family support was a major barrier for teen mothers to continue their education. The mothers of these teen mothers offered little support in coaching their daughters on school completion because these grandmothers had limited education themselves. However, one teen mother found support from her school which promoted school continuation. Through her education system, this teen was intrinsically motivated to finish high school and go on to college. Battle (2007) concluded that unless the cycle of teen pregnancy from generation to generation could be stopped and families could see the value in advanced education, teens will not have the family support needed to promote continuing education. However, when teen mothers outside that cycle find family or school support with other opportunities, they can be motivated to further their education.

Because a teen's academic success is improved by graduating from high school, Smith-Battle (2006) expressed the need for high schools to support and encourage teen mothers to continue their education and get their diploma. However, Smith-Battle realized these mothers face many challenging demands, and their aspirations for

education are diluted because they lack consistent support from family and school.

Smith-Battle challenged school nurses to support teen mothers in their desire to graduate by connecting them to resources for child care, financial support, and health care. Smith-Battle reinforced the need for schools to foster the success of teen mothers by advocating for policies that endorse high school graduation.

Smith-Battle (2012) discussed other barriers to teen mothers furthering their education: inequities in education and pervasive stereotyping of teen parents. Smith-Battle further challenged public health nurses to advocate for all-inclusive reforms that would reduce educational prejudice and fight the stereotyping of teen parents. The author sensed the core of the problem was based on ideological presumptions that the source of teen childbearing and unsuccessful maternal-child outcomes resulted from individual choices and lifestyles rather than from social inequality. Public health nurses fighting for these reforms could make a difference in teen mothers graduating from high school (Smith-Battle, 2012).

Family Support System

Billingsley (1968) researched the African American family from a holistic perspective. From his studies, Billingsley derived the conclusion that, sometimes, single parent families function better in some areas than 2-parent families. He found family behavior to be supportive, family restrictions to be flexible, and gender roles to be expansive in raising children. Furthermore, he determined that Black families displayed strengths in the areas of harmony, religious beliefs, love, the ability to cope in a positive

manner, sharing tasks, and providing family support (Billingsley, 1968). Ten years later, Urie Bronfenbrenner (1979) gave a full report on Billingsley's assertions and developed a socio-cultural view of family development. He described the family as an operational system in which family members gave primary support to one another, families supported school personnel and activities, and families extended themselves to other environments such as work, neighbors, community, and beyond.

Billingsley (1968) and Bronfenbrenner (1979) described the kind of parental and family support that teen mothers need. However, this is not always the kind of support that these teens receive from their families. Reid and Meadows-Oliver (2007) found a connection between poor family relationships and stress in teen mothers. The authors stated "teen mothers reported that poor family relations and few social supporters can produce higher levels of stress and negative coping skills in comparison with teenage mothers experiencing positive family relations and coping mechanisms" (p. 291).

Parental expectations. Wood, Kurtz-Costes, and Copping (2011) examined the relationship between parental expectations for their children's future and youth motivation outcomes after high school. Participants of the study consisted of 424 middle class African American male and female students in Grade 11 and their parents. Wood et al. found parental expectations were linked positively to their youths' educational objectives, values for education, and how they perceived racial barriers to upward advancement. The 11th grade boys expected to attend college 1 year after graduation. The

authors noted that boys were apt to gain from interventions that promoted positive motivational beliefs.

Der-Karabetian (2004) noted the effect of parental expectations on student achievements. The author found African American mothers with a positive and supportive attitude towards mathematics greatly affected their child's mathematical achievements. However, the attitude of African American fathers had a negative effect on their child's achievements. This negative effect was probably due to the fact that these fathers were absent from their families for the most part (Der-Karabetian, 2004).

Lopez (2011) reported African American students from a low socio-economic status have an increased probability of encountering educational barriers due to unemployed parents, single parents working multiple jobs along with other social issues. However, there are studies that indicate success for these students when there is a strong support system consisting of community support coupled with strong leadership (Lopez, 2011).

Parent and family support. Perrin and McDermott (1997) found when adolescent mothers gained positive family support, they have a better chance of returning to school, finding employment, and getting help in caring for their child (Battle-Smith 2007; Billingsley, 1968). However, living with family does not guarantee the teen mother of access to social support when conflict occurs. Perrin and McDermott further found the teen who receives encouraging affirmation from her parents is more probable to develop high self-esteem. However, when the teen mother perceives a lack of support

from her parents, the formation of her self-esteem is critically harmed. Perrin and McDermott reported family conflicts arise when grandparents subdue the teen mother's role. The family can offer good advice when their teen mother is making decisions such as regarding infant care and returning to school, but they must support their teen's final decision. In contrast, teen mothers who live alone are apt to have little help with child care and are more distraught than those who live with family (Perrin & McDermott, 1997). Pregnant and teen mothers are at risk for three internalized variables: loneliness, depression, and introspection. These variables affect the adolescent's value of social support interaction (Perrin & McDermott, 1997).

Community Support Systems

Community and family support programs are created to enrich family life. These programs are intended to provide various flexible and affordable opportunities to educate multiage family members. It is important that pregnant and parenting teens have access to information on continuing education.

Community programs and agencies. Greene, Smith, and Peters (1995) developed a community-based, life choices improvement program that promotes the reduction of high-risk activities among adolescents. This program is called "I have a future" (IHAF). These risky behaviors include incidents of early pregnancy, school dropouts, STDs, and many more. The IHAF program convinces teens that they have a future which they can control by avoiding undesirable actions, taking on desirable lifestyles, and reaping the benefits. IHAF serves the youth and their families by initiating

certain activities. Program activities for all participants focus on understanding and awareness, attitudes, and behaviors. Some of the sessions include employment training, entrepreneur programming, developing social and decision-making skills, turning over a new leaf, redirecting energies, and resolving conflicts. Topics like alcohol and drug abuse, violence, sex, and crime are addressed. IHAF allows youths to perceive themselves as having options or life choices, which enables them to connect in more desirable behavior (Greene et al., 1995). A community program like IHAF can offer support and help teen mothers to perceive their new life with hope for a future for themselves and their child.

Agencies and community programs are available to help teen mothers gain skills and education for employment. Planned Parenthood Federation of America (PPFA) (2013) is a nonprofit agency which offers health care, education, training programs, and support to anyone, including teen mothers. These clinics can be found throughout America and they have a sliding scale for payment, based on one's income. They provide all kinds of particulars, including information about school grants and child care. Additionally, the United States Department of Health and Human Services (USDHHS) (2006) Agency provides help for teen mothers who need information on grants, financial aid, or support. The USDHHS offers an assortment of education programs for teen mothers throughout America and often does this with the help of local social services agencies. Moreover, the HHS furnishes foster placement for children whose mothers

cannot take care for them. The placements can be temporary or permanent, involving adoption (USDHHS, 2006).

Community support groups. For the most part, teen mothers are not equipped to raise children by themselves. Teenage pregnancy is usually unplanned, but many girls become pregnant before they finish high school. The support of family and friends is essential for young mothers, but teen mothers often need help from other people, as well. Ajayi, Abloh-Odjidja, Cox, Phillips, and Toby (2009) reported that community support groups for teen mothers help them to learn to cope with their new life and to care for their children. Ajayi et al. found many communities provide support groups for teenage mothers in their local area. Sometimes teen mothers contact their YMCA and local social services to find such a support group in their local area. Other valuable sources for gathering information about these support groups include hospitals, churches, and health care centers (Ajayi et al., 2009).

Ajayi et al. (2009) described typical community support groups which offer teen mothers help for various concerns. They may need emotional support for addressing their fears, worries, anger, and happiness. They may have social concerns and gain help through peer interaction with other teen mothers facing the same issues. They may need financial advice about supporting themselves and their child. They may need help in finding a job or finding informational resources. In addition to the support groups, Ajayi et al. stated community groups provide guidance from professional counselors and classes on infant care.

Other community resources. Collins (2006) discussed many available community resources that provide emotional support and help teen moms learn the skills they need to be a mother. Billingsley (1968) in his seminal research on Black families reported that Black families and friends are the primary support team for many teen mothers. Billingsley noted that Black churches offered various social services to support teen mothers and families by providing day care, early school programs, parenting classes, remedial education, and employment training. Collins applauded the combined efforts of Black churches that addressed problems with at-risk teenage pregnancy. Collins advocated combining the efforts of public schools and universities as a positive way to promote college attendance for young women. Teen mothers involved in these programs can become role models for other teen mothers. Black churches provide mentors and role models for at-risk youth and pregnant teens (Collins, 2006).

Professional counseling. The American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry (AACAP) (2012) recommended professional counseling for both the pregnant teen and her family. In order for parents to be supportive of their pregnant daughter, many issues need to be worked through, and professional counselors can help the family discuss all the options available to them. The AACAP suggested that specialized support systems may be needed to help the pregnant teenager get through the pregnancy, the birth, and the decision about keeping the infant or giving it up for adoption. The AACAP cautioned that the pregnant teen's emotional and mental state may require the help of a mental health professional. Parents need to be supportive throughout this difficult time.

Social Support Systems

Perrin and McDermott (1997) assessed crucial matters akin to gauging social support and identified 28 instruments which measure social support for pregnant adolescents. Social support offers the pregnant teen or teen mother a variety of available resources which help her to tie into others and into groups (Perrin & McDermott, 1997). Social support can influence a teen's self-esteem and help her to adjust to her new environment. Social support helps to buffer the teen from stressful experiences and offers a number of people, in addition to family and friends, to whom she can turn when needed. This variety of sources can serve different functions and extend numerous coping strategies that help teen mothers adapt to the stress of caring for a new baby, dealing with family conflicts and difficult relationships, handling economic hardships and health problems, furthering her education, and finding employment (Perrin & McDermott, 1997).

Young, Johnson, Hawthorne, and Pugh (2011) examined cultural predictors of academic motivation and achievement. The purpose of their quantitative study was to establish the importance of social support systems, how they motivate students academically, and how they impact students' academic motivation and achievement across cultures, socioeconomic status (SES), and generation with college experience. Their study consisted of 93 first generation college undergraduates from three cultural groups from a respected university in Northeast Texas. However, the results of the study revealed that SES, family generation with college experience, and social support

predicted intrinsic and extrinsic motivation for African Americans. Young et al. concluded that social support, SES, and the impact of generation of college students varied across cultural groups and that the college students of today perceive social support and their college experience as having very little influence on intrinsic motivation.

Government Support Systems for Pregnant Adolescents

Collins (2006) discussed many available community resources that provide emotional support and help teen moms learn the skills they need to be a mother. Some of the assistance available to teen mothers may be found through state, local and federal resources.

State and local government support. Billingsley (1968) reported Black families and friends are the primary support team for many teen mothers. Billingsley noted that Black churches offered various social services to support teen mothers and families by providing day care, early school programs, parenting classes, remedial education, and employment training. Collins applauded the combined efforts of Black churches that addressed problems with at-risk teenage pregnancy. Collins advocated combining the efforts of public schools and universities as a positive way to promote college attendance for young women. Teen mothers involved in these programs can become role models for other teen mothers. Black churches provide mentors and role models for at-risk youth and pregnant teens (Collins, 2006).

The state government in New Mexico scored a victory for teen parents. The governor of New Mexico signed a bill into law that requires schools to grant young parents extra excused absences for birth and to take care of their medical needs and the medical needs of their children (“Strong families,”2013). New Mexico has the most teen pregnancies in the country, and young parents united their efforts to support the bill and get it passed (“Strong families,” 2013). The frustrated students found the schools’ inflexible attendance policies made it very difficult for them to get their diplomas. They were successful in getting the government to help them by making the necessary change (“Strong families,.” 2013).

Kennedy (2012) stated Florida is another state that supports teen mothers by permitting pregnant and parenting students to receive instruction at home. Kennedy reported that the state has a written plan with a clear process for these students to make up class work when they have to miss school. Florida also allows those students the choice of taking classes on line. Some Florida school districts even offer free day care for teen mothers. In St. Johns County, the school district gives free day care for children of teen mothers and bus transportation for students and their children (Kennedy, 2012). These school policies enable teen parents to get their high school diploma. The Texas Education Agency sponsors teen parent programs through various school districts such as the Lewisville Independent School District (LISD) (“School Age Parent Programs,” 2008). The Teen Parent Programs in LISD provide support to expectant teen parents, enabling them to stay in school before and after their baby is born. Services vary from

district to district but include parenting classes, health care job training, transportation, child care, and assistance in obtaining government aid. For example, Mangino (2008) reported the Round Rock Independent School District in Round Rock, Texas has a comprehensive Teen Parent Program that provides teen mothers with (a) a parent educator, (b) six weeks of homebound instruction after the baby is born, (c) parenting classes, and (d) free access to two child care centers in two elementary schools in the district. Transportation to and from school and the child care centers for parent and child is also available as part of the program (Mangino, 2008).

U.S. government support. Many teen mothers struggle to stretch the dollars for college tuition and baby expenses; however, Rhiannon (2013) reported that the U.S. government offers grants and scholarships to defray financial costs for families. These funds aid teen mothers in achieving their college goals while providing for their child. Rhiannon (2013) described The Pell Grant for undergraduate American students or legal residents who are in college. The student must be enrolled in a degree-oriented program, must be attending a qualified school, and must meet defined academic requirements (Rhiannon, 2013). Rhiannon detailed the Patsy Takemoto Mink Education Foundation Scholarship, offered to low-income teen mothers who qualify. Candidates must be at least 17 years of age and have children who are not adults. Applicants must be enrolled in a vocational or trade school or a 4-year university undergraduate or graduate program. The \$2,000 scholarship can be used for school or living expenses (Rhiannon, 2013). The final scholarship that Rhiannon listed is the Raise the Nation Scholarship for single teen

mothers enrolled in any postsecondary college or university. These mothers must meet the organization's income limit. As of 2010, these grants range from \$500 to \$1,000. The application fee costs \$20 (Rhiannon, 2013).

The United States Department of Education (USDE) (2014) reported on one successful program: Federal Pell Grants. These grants offer mothers an education with the hope of pursuing a career that can support both her and her child. The Pell Grant is for undergraduate American students or legal residents who are in college. The student must be enrolled in a degree-oriented program, must be attending a qualified school, and must meet defined academic requirements (USDE, 2014). While this program offers some degree of success, other avenues are needed.

United States of America President Barack Obama encouraged "Scholarships for Moms" officially know as Federal Pell Grants through community support groups. Community-based resource programs provide financial support for teen mothers. These community projects fund special programs that subsidize financial resources such as child care, children's health care, counseling and training in life skills (Holman & Arcus, 1987). In 2011, the U.S. Congress pushed for the reformation of programs that would enable pregnant teens to attain an education by means of the Pregnant and Parenting Students Access to Education Act (2011). This act has raised public awareness of the need for higher education for these young families. Additionally, this act alerts Americans to the inequities in policies that support pregnant and parenting teens. Government financial support for this population varies from state to state. The Pregnant

and Parenting Students Access to Education Act (2011) presents a lens of discrimination in the Title IX Education Amendments Act of 1972 noting that teen mothers lack access to affordable child care that would allow high school completion, postsecondary education, and career choices. Programs to support teen mothers are created to build stability in young families. According to Turney et al. (2011), Healthy Families of America (HFA) is an example of this kind of program. Through HFA, mothers can gain independence through an education while being supported through a research-based home visiting program (Turney et al., 2011). Organizations like HFA offer scholarships for moms along with grants and additional funding for young mothers who want to go to college (Turney et al., 2011). Community-based organizations provide resources to help teen mothers, and colleges and universities offer scholarships that support teen mothers who want to get a college degree.

Smith-Battle (2012) outlined a U.S. government program which helps teen mothers, Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF). Smith-Battle disagreed with the general public's assumption that pregnant teens are defiant, lack morals, and have no aspirations for their futures. Smith-Battle noted the policies of TANF encourage and in some cases insist that those receiving assistance must work or attend school. TANF policies oppose removing the social, economic, and educational barriers that further punish teen mothers with tradeoffs of poor employment and family problems (Smith-Battle, 2012).

Teen Mothers with College Aspirations

Comparing adolescent mothers to non-parenting teens, Barr and Simons (2012) found teen mothers are less likely to graduate from high school or attend college. In their study of young African-American women, Barr and Simons assessed how the college aspirations of teens and their expectations are affected by teen motherhood. Furthermore, the researchers tested how these affects create a gap between teen mothers and their childless peers for attaining a college education. Comparing teen mothers and childless teens, Barr and Simons determined that the desires of both groups to further their education were similar. However, their minimal educational expectations stand in the way of their academic success (Barr & Simons, 2012).

For 2 years, the WIR (2011) research team interviewed 257 pregnant teens to determine if they had career expectations. The average age of these participants was 16.8 years, 70% of these girls had never been pregnant, and 46% were Hispanic. The researchers' goal was to determine any connection between the teen's intention to get pregnant and her ambitions for a career. Also, the WIR team needed to understand if the participants' college aspirations were based on career aims that required a college education. Most of the participants reported unintended pregnancies. Although teen mothers have a lower educational achievement than teens without children, these participants had career aspirations that required a college degree. Furthermore, they intended to continue their education after the baby was born (WIR, 2011).

Because the educational achievement of teen mothers is much lower than women without children, the WIR (2011) team concluded there is a distinct need for interventional programs specifically geared to this population that will assist pregnant teens in graduating from high school and attending college to follow their dreams. Additionally, the team emphasized the need for teen pregnancy prevention programs and programs that assist parenting teens. Counseling and support programs should focus on incorporating sensible information that will help this population continue their education and reach their career goals after their child is born (WIR, 2011).

Summary

This chapter provided an overview of empirical and conceptual frameworks by exploring the literature on teen pregnancy and its implications on college readiness and future life goals. The literature addresses current statistic, health related factors, vulnerability of teen mothers, types of motivation, definitions and connection to academics, economic and social pressures, loss of education, economic costs of pregnancy, social support systems for teen mothers and college aspirations.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter embodies the aforementioned dependent variables and independent variables. Additionally, this chapter includes research design, research questions, research hypothesis, instrumentation, data collection, and the data analysis strategy. In conclusion, this chapter depicts the exploration and possible limitations in the methodology used in this study.

Research Design

A quantitative research design was utilized in this study using the following variables: one dependent variable, eight independent variables, and five demographic variables. The outcome variable is college attendance. The predictors include (a) academic motivation (from the Academic Motivation Scale); (b) the level of family support (from a multidimensional scale of perceived social support); (c) the level of community support; (d) the amount of information received about financial aid, childcare programs, and support from other government and community programs; and (e) the level of counseling provided by school guidance counselors; (f) the level of counseling provided by teachers; (g) the amount of information about colleges provided by school guidance counselors; and (h) the amount of information about colleges provided by

teachers. The demographic variables consist of current age, age when first child was born, marital status, number of children, and household income.

Population - Demographics

The population for this study was comprised of African American females who became parents during their adolescent years. The eligible participants of this study made various education choices. Many of the women chose not to graduate from high school, some graduated but did not go to college, and others enrolled in college and completed a 2-year or 4-year college degree.

Sampling Procedures

The sampling method for this research project was convenience sampling. Convenience sampling was chosen for this study because it is a non-probability sampling technique which is low-cost, requires minimum time investment, and allows the researcher to collect adequate and accessible samples from a large population of African American women age 20-31 years who parented as teens. This principal researcher followed the guidelines set forth by the Texas Woman's University Institutional Review Board in conducting the research for this project. Upon receiving approval from the IRB and TWU Graduate School the process of recruitment commenced (Appendices A and B). The principal researcher contacted leaders of African American women's groups, schools with programs for pregnant girls, housing groups, parenting groups, church organizations, community social service agencies, and social media. Via email, the principal researcher described (Appendix F) the proposed research and explained how

these groups could volunteer to participate in this quantitative research by completing a 15-to-20-minute survey using Psych Data. The principal researcher requested permission to allow a copy of the survey to be placed on their website. Data were collected and analyzed by the principal investigator.

I MESSENGER Enterprises was contacted in reference to posting a link on their multiple websites: I MESSENGER, Garland Journal Texas and Texas Metro News placed information on their websites seeking qualifying participants for this study. Additionally, leaders of the non-profit organizations, the Daughters of Naomi, Changing Lives World Ministries and the social network Meet-up group, Urban Mosiach, and the North Texas Singles were contacted seeking an opportunity to recruit participants for this research. The aforementioned organizations, their group leaders, and their representatives are completely aware that the process of presenting the instruments in this study was approved by the Texas Woman's University Institutional Review Board.

Participants were informed that their participation is voluntary. No individual compensation was given. However, a random drawing for two \$50 gift cards was held to reward the participants. Confidentiality was assured, and all the information regarding participants and their responses remained anonymous. The survey was hosted with Psych Data, and all the data were encrypted using 256-bit SSL Technology (Secure Socket Layer) that is equivalent to the industry standard. This technology encrypted both the questions displayed to the participants and their responses. Thus, all responses were instantly encrypted. The informed consent form (Appendix B) was electronic and

necessary for completion and transaction of the surveys. Personal identifiers of the participants, such as names or student identification numbers, were not recorded, with the exceptions of age, marital status, and academic classification.

Research Question

Earlier statements identified six research questions that are easily captured in this overall question. The following research question was addressed in this study:

What are the factors that predict college attendance for African American women who parented as teens? The following research hypothesis identified even more.

Research Hypotheses

These research hypotheses pertain to African American women who parented as teens:

1. Those who (1) attend and (2) complete college will be significantly higher in academic motivation than those who do not attend or complete college.
2. Those who (1) attend and (2) complete college will have significantly more social support than those who do not attend or complete college.
3. Those who (1) attend and (2) complete college will have significantly more community support than those who do not attend or complete college.
4. Those who (1) attend and (2) complete college will have received significantly more information about financial aid and other community and government resources than those who do not attend or complete college.

5. Those who (1) attend and (2) complete college will have received significantly more counseling from their high school guidance counselor and teachers than those who do not attend or complete college.
6. Those who (1) attend and (2) complete college will have received significantly more information about college from their high school guidance counselor and teachers than those who do not attend or complete college.
7. Those who (1) attend and (2) complete college will be significantly older than those who do not attend or complete college.
8. Those who (1) attend and (2) complete college will have significantly higher household income than those who do not attend or complete college.

Instrumentation

This quantitative research study was used to examine the factors that influenced some African American females who parented as adolescents and pursued college degrees in comparison to African American females who parented as adolescents and have not gone to college. A discussion of the instrumentation for this research study included the Predictors of College Attendance Instrument, (PCAI). This instrument combines the Academic Motivational Survey (AMS), the Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS) and the Cook-Kyle Demographic Questionnaire.

The Predictors of College Attendance Instrument

The Predictors of College Attendance Instrument (PCAI), a three part, 66 closed ended questionnaires addressed demographic items to provide a lens into the lives of the

qualifying participants to investigate these variables. Appendix C is the Academic Motivational Survey, 28 items; Appendix D is the Multi-Dimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS), which has two parts: (a) Levels of Support: Family/Friends by Zimet, Dahlem, Zimet, and Farley (1988), 12 items; and (b) Level of Community Support and School Support (Cook-Kyle, 2013), 9 items; and Appendix E is the Cook-Kyle Demographic Survey, ranging from 7 to 11 items depending on participant response.

The Academic Motivational Survey

The Academic Motivational Survey (AMS) (Appendix C) is a questionnaire that was developed by psychologist Robert Vallerand and his colleagues (Vallerand, Blais, BriBre, & Pelletier, 1989). The AMS has been tested and generally accepted as being a reliable test of motivation in students (Cronbach alpha 0.83-0.86). The instrument was the result of extensive research done in the realm of the self-determination theory. The three types of motivation on the Self-Determination Continuum illustrate the following stretch: (a) from a lack of motivation (amotivation), (b) to increased motivation forms (extrinsic types), (c) to self-determined motivation (intrinsic types). The instrument has a total of 28 questions divided into seven subscales, each consisting of four questions. These questions are assessed on a 7-point Likert-type Scale with answer choices varying between “Very strongly disagree” and “Very strongly agree”. The AMS instrument returns an overall score termed a *Self-Determination Index* (SDI). The range on the SDI is from -18 to +18. The higher the score, the more intrinsic the participant is considered to be.

Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support

The Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS) was used to measure perceived social support (Canty-Mitchell, & Zimet, 2000; Chou, 2000; Eker, Arkar, & Yaldiz, 2000). The MSPSS consists of 12 items and was developed by Zimet, Dahlem, Zimet, and Farley (1988) to identify the social support factors perceived by the individuals. E-mail to Dr. Zimet and His Response: Request for Permission to Use MSPSS on September 21st (Appendix G). The scale is comprised of three groups, depending on the source of support; each group consists of four items. These items are family, friends, and a special person. In this study, all the items were adapted to measure support from family and friends. Each item was rated using a 7-point scale varying between “Very strongly disagree” and “Very strongly agree”. The sum of all sub-scale scores provided the overall scale score. The lowest score for the overall scale was 12, and the highest was 84. MSPSS has proven to be psychometrically sound in diverse samples and to have good internal reliability, good test-retest reliability, and good robust factorial validity (Cecil, Stanley, Carrion, & Swann, 1995; Zimet et al., 1988). Specifically, in terms of reliability, the internal consistencies of the total scale and the sub-scales are high, ranging from .79 to .98 in various samples. Furthermore, the test-retest reliability over a 2-3 month period produces correlations ranging from .72 to .85, regarding the level of community support, amount of information received about financial aid, childcare programs, level of counseling provided by school guidance counselors, level of counseling provided by teachers, amount of information about colleges provided by

school guidance counselors, and the amount of information about colleges provided by teachers, all of which were a part of the survey (Zimet et al., 1988).

Cook-Kyle Demographic Questionnaire

The demographic variables for this study were (a) current age of the participant, (b) age when the participant had her first child, (c) marital status, (d) number of children, and (e) household income. The survey using these demographic variables was written by the principal researcher, Cook-Kyle (2013).

Data Collection

The Process

As part of the data collection proof, 119 participants volunteered to complete the survey, the Academic Motivation Survey (AMS) (Appendix C). This survey included demographic questions as well as questions regarding academic motivation, the level of family support (MSPSS), the level of community support, the amount of information received about financial aid, childcare programs, the level of counseling provided by school guidance counselors, the level of counseling provided by teachers, the amount of information about colleges provided by school guidance counselors, and the amount of information about colleges provided by teachers. Permission to use this survey is not required because the purpose is not to be used for commercial gains. However, Dr. Robert Vallerand, the original author of the survey, was contacted via e-mail in May of 2013, and he granted permission for use of the survey (Appendix G). Psych Data was used to host the survey and to collect the data. Participants (African American young

women who parented as adolescents) were asked to complete the survey. The first section of the questionnaire posited academic motivation, followed by questions regarding family and community support, and ending with demographic information. An E-mail, the Reminder Script, (Appendix H) was sent to the organization leaders who agreed to support this research by posting a link for this survey on their websites. The Reminder Script reminded them that the survey would be launched on February 3, 2014. The results of the study were used by researchers to expand existing knowledge relating to (a) African American women who became pregnant as a teen, (b) the factors that contributed to obstacles and (c) the completion of their educational aspirations.

Elite Research, Inc. has experience in research and hosting surveys and handled the process of data collection and analysis. Psychdata.com hosted the survey questionnaire for collecting the data, and Elite Research managed the surveys by checking the number of survey questionnaires completed, downloading data, checking the data, etc., and providing reports from the data collected for the researcher. The information was stored in a secured database. Elite Research, Inc. did not use, sell, rent, trade or otherwise disseminate or disclose data either by itself or by any third party, except as required by the researcher's authorized written request or consent. No names of respondents were collected as part of this research. The researcher worked with Elite Research, Inc. to ensure the proper information and surveys were linked to the website prior to collecting data from the respondents.

Ethical Procedures

To ensure that ethical procedures were followed for the research, appropriate information was explained to the participants: the purpose of the research, procedures, potential benefits, confidentiality, risks, and other information. The principal researcher included the informed consent form (Appendix B) as part of the online web link to the survey questionnaire before administration of the online survey.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics were calculated for all variables will be seen in the next chapter. Additional calculations included categorical demographic variables, such as marital status etc. Distributions of the continuous variables were examined to determine if normality assumptions were met and parametric testing was appropriate, or whether transformed data or non-parametric tests should be used. Extreme outliers were investigated for technical or clerical errors. If the size of the measurement was not attributed to such an error, it was included in the analysis and the effect of deleting the observation was also reported. The data were analyzed using SPSS v.21.0. Alpha of .05 was used to determine significance levels.

Preliminary analyses were conducted to assess the simple/bivariate relationships among the academic motivation, level of family and community support, information and counseling provided by teachers and counselors and college attendance, as well as to assess for potential covariates such as age that needed to be included in the primary analysis. Table 1 lists and defines the independent and dependent variables in the

research hypothesis. Specifically, independent analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to assess the relationships between one categorical variable and one continuous variable such as marital status and academic motivation. Pearson's product moment correlations (r) were conducted to assess the relationships between two continuous variables such as academic motivation and level of family/friends support. Bivariate correlations also provided a measure of the strength of this relationship, with values closer to 1, indicating a stronger relationship and values closer to 0, indicating a weaker relationship.

Table 1

Independent, Dependent and Demographic Variables in Research Questions

	Measure	Items	Scale	Reliability
Independent Variables				
Academic Motivation	Academic Motivational Survey (AMS; Vallerand et al., 1992)	28	From 4 to 28	.83-.86
Social Support	Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS; Zimet et al., 1988)	12	From 1 to 7	.79-.98
Community Support	Amount of community support and school support received	4	From 0 to 4	
Financial Aid Information	Amount of information received about Financial Aid, Childcare Programs, WIC, etc.	9	From 0 to 9	
School Counseling	Level of support provided by school guidance counselors	4	Three levels	.928
70 School Information	Level of information received about colleges	4	Three levels	.905
Dependent Variables				
College Attendance and Interruptions	Did participants attend college? Were there any interruptions in college attendance?	2		
College Completion	Did participants complete college?	1		
Demographics				
Age	Age	1		
Age at Parenthood	Age when they had the first child	1		
Number of Children	Number of children	1		
Marital Status	Marital status	1		
Household Income	Household income	1		

Note: The reliability scores of School Counseling and School Information were calculated based on participants' evaluations of support (two items for each).

Potential Limitations

A potential limitation to this methodology includes minor modifications made to clarify the wording of the AMS for those who went to college as well as for those who did not. Also, in the perceived social support survey, the items are adapted to measure support from family and friends as opposed to family, friends, and special person.

Conclusion and Summary

Chapter 3 consisted of the research methods for this study. It described the research design, the selection of participants, survey instruments, methodological assumptions or limitations, the procedures, and analysis. Chapter 4 presented the results of the survey using the methodology described in Chapter 3. The covariates were household income and age. An open-ended question asked the participant's age at first birth.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of academic motivation, social support, community support, financial aid information, school counseling, and school information on college attendance and college completion among a sample of African American teen mothers. Data collected were analyzed utilizing a mixed methods approach. Descriptive analyses, including means and standard deviations of continuous items and frequencies and percentages of categorical variables, were calculated to describe the sample as well as to test the statistical assumptions of primary analyses. Pearson's correlation, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests, independent sample *t* test, and multinomial logistic regression model were conducted to investigate the relationships among dependent variables, independent variables and demographic variables.

Demographics

A total of 161 women participated in this study. Among them, 40 participants did not complete the whole questionnaire; one participant did not report becoming a parent as a teenager; and one participant was 65 years old. These people were removed from the data, resulting in a final sample of 119 participants.

Means and standard deviations for continuous demographic variables are displayed in Table 2. As shown, participants' ages ranged from 20 to 35 years with a

mean of 27.13 ($SD = 4.56$). Participants' ages at first parenthood ranged from 13 to 20 years with a mean of 16.26 ($SD = 1.50$).

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations for Continuous Demographic Variables

	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min	Max
Age	116	27.13	4.56	19	35
Age at First Parenthood	118	16.26	1.50	13	20

Frequencies and percentages for all categorical demographic variables are displayed in Table 3. As shown, there was an equal percentage of participants who had one child as there was that reported having two children (34.5%), with the remaining 30.3% of participants reporting three or more children. Slightly more than half of the participants (52.1%) were single, 16.0% were married, 12.6% were divorced or separated, and 17.6% were in a committed relationship. Regarding participants' household income, the majority of participants reported an annual income from \$20,000 to \$ 29,999 (26.9%). Additionally, a considerable number of participants reported annual household incomes less than \$20,000 (20.2%), \$30,000 to \$39,999 (21.0%), \$40,000 to \$49,999 (12.6%), and \$50,000 or more (18.5%).

Table 3

Frequencies and Percentages for Categorical Demographic Variables

	<i>n</i>	%
Number of Children		
1	41	34.5
2	41	34.5
3 or More	36	30.3
Missing	1	.8
Marital Status		
Married	19	16.0
Single	62	52.1
Divorced/Separated	15	12.6
In a Committed Relationship	21	17.6
Missing	2	1.7
Household Income		
Less Than \$20,000	24	20.2
\$20,000 to \$29,999	32	26.9
\$30,000 to \$39,999	25	21.0
\$40,000 to \$49,999	15	12.6
\$50,000 or More	22	18.5
Missing	1	.8

Note. Frequencies not summing to $N = 119$ and percentages not summing to 100 reflect missing data.

Independent Variables

The academic motivation was measured using the Academic Motivational Survey, which contains seven subscales: Extrinsic Motivation – External Regulation, Intrinsic Motivation – To Know, Extrinsic Motivation – Identified, Intrinsic Motivation – To Experience Stimulation, Intrinsic Motivation – Toward Accomplishment, Extrinsic Motivation – Interjected, and Amotivation, with higher scores on each subscale indicating higher amounts of motivation within a particular domain. Pearson's Product-Moment correlations were conducted to examine the relationships among the seven subscales. As shown in Table 4, with the exception of Amotivation, the six remaining subscales were significantly and positively correlated with each other with strong relationships, r s ranging from .781 to .918, all p s < .01, indicating that those who scored high on any of these six subscales, tended to score higher on the other subscales (with the exception of Amotivation). Due to the strong correlations among the motivation items, a total motivation score was computed by taking the mean of each of these six domains of motivation to avoid multi-collinearity problems in the regression models. The resulting measures of Motivation and Amotivation were used to reflect participants' academic motivation. As shown in Table 5, the scores of Amotivation ranged from 3 to 27 with a mean of 13.14 ($SD = 5.44$); the scores of Motivation ranged from 4 to 28 with a mean of 20.14 ($SD = 5.29$).

The social support was measured using the Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support, with higher scores indicating a higher degree of perceived social support. The score of social support ranged from 1 to 7 with a mean 4.87 ($SD = 1.56$), see Table 5.

Table 4

Pearson's Product Moment Correlations among Seven Motivation Scores

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Extrinsic Motivation - External Regulation						
2. Intrinsic Motivation - To Know	.860 *					
3. Extrinsic Motivation - Identified	.893 *	.916 *				
4. Intrinsic Motivation - To Experience Stimulation	.781 *	.877 *	.836 *			
5. Intrinsic Motivation - Toward Accomplishment	.872 *	.922 *	.914 *	.881 *		
6. Extrinsic Motivation - Introjected	.880 *	.907 *	.918 *	.855 *	.905 *	
7. Amotivation	-.146	-.159	-.161	-.109	-.156	-.142

Note. * $p < .001$.

Table 5

Means and Standard Deviations for Independent Continuous Variables

	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min	Max
Amotivation	119	13.14	5.44	3	27
Motivation	119	20.14	5.29	4	28
Social Support	119	4.87	1.56	1	7
Community Support	118	1.72	1.43	0	4
Financial Aid Information	119	1.92	1.23	0	7

Community support was measured using four questions: *did your school district offer a teen pregnancy or parenting program, did you participate in the program, did the program offer childcare, and did it provide transportation*. Community support was computed by taking the sum of positive endorsements of these four items. As shown in Table 4, the score ranged from 0 to 4 with a mean 1.72 ($SD = 1.43$). A higher score represents more community support.

The amount of information received about financial aid was measured by asking participants that if they received information about support agencies (see Appendix D). A total score for financial aid information was computed by taking a sum of total agencies utilized to gain financial aid information. As show in Table 5, the score ranged from 0 to 7 with a mean 1.92 ($SD = 1.23$).

The school counseling support was determined based on four questions (see Appendix D). Participants were asked that if they received counseling from school guidance counselors and teachers. If they received, they were asked to rate the support using a 7-point scale with answer choices varying between “Extremely bad” and “Extremely good.” If a participant didn’t receive counseling from school guidance counselors or teachers, that support was rated as 0. The sum of two rates was calculated. Based on the value of sum, all participants were classified into three groups: did not received support (0), received some support (1-7), and received good support (>8). As shown in Table 6, the greatest percentage of participants received good support (41.2%), 25.2% received some support, and 31.9% did not receive any support.

Table 6

Frequencies and Percentages for Independent Categorical Variables

	<i>N</i>	%
School Counseling Support		
Received Good Support	49	41.2
Received Some Support	30	25.2
Did Not Receive Support	38	31.9
Missing	2	1.7
School Information Support		
Received Good Support	41	34.5
Received Some Support	35	29.4
Did Not Receive Support	40	33.6
Missing	3	2.5

Note. Frequencies not summing to $N = 119$ and percentages not summing to 100 reflect missing data.

The school information support was determined using the same methods as school counseling support described above. As also shown in Table 6, 34.5% of participants reported good support on information, 29.4% received some support, and 33.6% did not receive any support.

Dependent Variables

The frequencies and percentages of dependent variables are displayed in Table 7. As shown, 19.3% participants attended college without any interruptions, 41.2% attended college but experienced interruptions, the remaining 38.7% did not attend college. Of those who attended college, 45.0% graduated from college, and 55.0% failed to graduate from college.

Table 7

Frequencies and Percentages for Dependent Categorical Variables

	<i>n</i>	%
College Attendance and Interruptions		
Attended College Without Interruptions	23	19.3
Attended College With Interruptions	49	41.2
Did Not Attend College	46	38.7
Missing	1	.8
College Completion		
No	27	22.7
Yes	33	27.7
Missing	59	49.6

Note. For College Attendance and Interruptions, frequencies not summing to $N = 119$ and percentages not summing to 100 reflect missing data.

Primary Analyses

To address the research hypothesis, one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), individual sample *t* test, and cross-tabulations with Pearson's chi-square test were conducted to examine the effects of independent variables on college attendance and college completion.

As shown in Table 8, the results of one-way ANOVA indicated that there was a significant relationship between Motivation and college attendance, $F(2, 115) = 5.18, p = .007$. Tukey HSD post-hoc analyses revealed that participants who attended college with interruptions had higher motivation ($M = 21.74, SD = 4.45$) than participants who did not attend college ($M = 18.36, SD = 4.54$), $p < .05$. There was also a significant effect of Amotivation on college attendance, $F(2, 115) = 6.998, p < .001$. Tukey HSD post-hoc analyses revealed that participants who did not attend college had significantly higher Amotivation ($M = 15.39, SD = 4.54$) than did participants who attended college with interruptions ($M = 11.82, SD = 5.11$) and participants who attended college without interruptions ($M = 11.52, SD = 6.53$), $ps < .05$. The effect of social support on college attendance was also significant, $F(2, 115) = 4.95, p = .009$. Tukey HSD post-hoc tests reveal that participants who did not attend college had significantly less social support ($M = 4.31, SD = 1.54$) than did participants who attended college with interruptions ($M = 5.22, SD = 1.35$) and participants who attended college without interruptions ($M = 5.22, SD = 1.80$), $ps < .05$. The effect of community support on college attendance was significant, $F(2, 114) = 3.77, p = .026$. Tukey HSD post-hoc tests revealed that participants who attended college without interruptions had more community support (M

= 2.43, $SD = 1.38$) than participants who attended college with interruptions ($M = 1.58$, $SD = 1.41$) and participants who did not attend college ($M = 1.50$, $SD = 1.41$), $p < .05$. Lastly, there was not a significant effect of financial aid information on college attendance, $F(2, 115) = 1.42$, $p = .245$. Due to standard deviations that were greater than half the mean, all parametric tests were confirmed utilizing Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric analyses, yielding equivalent results.

The relationships between college attendance and the other two independent variables (i.e., school counseling support, school information support) were examined using cross-tabulations with Pearson's chi-square tests. As shown in Table 9, there was not a significant relationship between college attendance and school counseling, $\chi^2(4) = 3.21$, $p = .524$, Cramer's $V = .117$. However, there was a significant relationship between school information support and college attendance, $\chi^2(4) = 18.82$, $p = .001$, Cramer's $V = .285$. A greater proportion of participants who did not attend college reported that they did not receive any support on college information (46.7%) compared to participants who attended college without interruptions (13.6%). In contrast, a smaller proportion of participants who did not attend college received good support (13.3%) compared to participants who attended college without interruptions (50.0%) and participants who attended college with interruptions (49.0%).

Table 8

Means and Standard Deviations for Motivation, Amotivation, Social Support, Community Support, and Financial Aid Information by College Attendance

	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Motivation				5.18	.007
Attended College Without Interruptions	23	20.12 ^{ab}	7.19		
Attended College With Interruptions	49	21.74 ^a	4.45		
Did Not Attend College	46	18.36 ^b	4.54		
Amotivation				7.00	.001
Attended College Without Interruptions	23	11.52 ^a	6.53		
Attended College With Interruptions	49	11.82 ^a	5.11		
Did Not Attend College	46	15.39 ^b	4.54		
Social Support				4.95	.009
Attended College Without Interruptions	23	5.22 ^a	1.80		
Attended College With Interruptions	49	5.22 ^a	1.35		
Did Not Attend College	46	4.31 ^b	1.54		
Community Support				3.77	.026
Attended College Without Interruptions	23	2.43 ^a	1.38		
Attended College With Interruptions	48	1.58 ^b	1.41		
Did Not Attend College	46	1.50 ^b	1.41		
Financial Aid Information				1.42	.245
Attended College Without Interruptions	23	1.74	.96		
Attended College With Interruptions	49	2.16	1.46		
Did Not Attend College	46	1.80	1.02		

Note. Means with different superscripts differ, $p < .05$.

Table 9

Frequencies and Percentages for School Counseling and School Information by College Attendance

	College Attendance and Interruptions					
	Attended College Without Interruptions		Attended College With Interruptions		Did Not Attend College	
	<i>N</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%
School Counseling Support						
Received Good Support	12	54.5	21	42.9	16	34.8
Received Some Support	4	18.2	11	22.4	15	32.6
Did Not Receive Support	6	27.3	17	34.7	15	32.6
School Information Support						
Received Good Support	11	50.0	24	49.0	6	13.3
Received Some Support	8	36.4	9	18.4	18	40.0
Did Not Receive Support	3	13.6	16	32.7	21	46.7

Note. There was no significant relationship between School Counseling Support and College Attendance and Interruptions, $\chi^2(4) = 3.21, p = .524$, Cramer's $V = .117$. There was a significant relationship between School Information Support and College Attendance and Interruptions, $\chi^2(4) = 18.82, p = .001$, Cramer's $V = .285$.

The relationships between independent variables and college completion are displayed in Table 10 and Table 11. As shown in Table 10, independent sample t tests revealed no significant effects of independent variables on college completion, $ps > .05$. However, there was a marginally significant effect of Amotivation on college completion, $t(58) = 1.95, p = .056$. Participants who failed to graduate from college had

marginally higher Amotivation ($M = 13.15$, $SD = 5.43$) than did participants who graduated from college ($M = 10.30$, $SD = 5.77$). The effect of community support on college completion was also marginally significant, $t(57) = 1.79$, $p = .079$. Participants who graduated from college had marginally greater community support ($M = 2.09$, $SD = 1.57$) than did participants who did not graduate from college ($M = 1.41$, $SD = 1.34$). As shown in Table 11, there was not a significant relationship between school counseling support or school information support on college completion, $ps > .05$.

Table 10

Means and Standard Deviations for Motivation, Amotivation, Social Support, Community Support, and Financial Aid Information by College Completion.

	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Motivation				.31	.758
No	27	21.17	4.55		
Yes	33	21.62	6.30		
Amotivation				1.95	.056
No	27	13.15	5.43		
Yes	33	10.30	5.77		
Social Support				.54	.588
No	27	5.16	1.19		
Yes	33	5.38	1.72		
Community Support				1.79	.079
No	27	1.41	1.34		
Yes	32	2.09	1.57		
Financial Aid Information				.10	.917
No	27	2.04	1.40		
Yes	33	2.00	1.35		

Table 11

Frequencies and Percentages for School Counseling and School Information by College Completion

	College Completion					
	No		Yes			
	<i>N</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	χ^2	<i>P</i>
School Counseling Support					3.76	.152
Received Good Support	12	44.4	15	45.5		
Received Some Support	2	7.4	8	24.2		
Did Not Receive Support	13	48.1	10	30.3		
School Information Support					3.80	.149
Received Good Support	13	48.1	16	50.0		
Received Some Support	3	11.1	9	28.1		
Did Not Receive Support	11	40.7	7	21.9		

Secondary Analyses

To address the research questions regarding to demographic variables, similar methods were conducted to examine the effects of demographic variables on college attendance and college completion.

As shown in Table 12, the results of one-way ANOVA indicated that there was a significant relationship between Age and college attendance, $F(2, 113) = 8.05, p < .01$. Tukey HSD post-hoc analyses revealed that participants who did not attend college were significantly younger ($M = 25.2, SD = 4.12$) than were participants who attended college with interruptions ($M = 28.5, SD = 4.22$) and participants who attended college without

interruptions ($M = 28.4$, $SD = 4.81$), $p < .05$. There was not a significant relationships between age at first parenthood and college attendance, $F(2, 115) = .04$, $p = .965$.

The relationships between college attendance and the other three demographic variables (i.e., number of children, marital status and household income) were examined using crosstabulations with Pearson's chi-square tests. As shown in Table 13, there was not a significant relationship between college attendance and number of children, $\chi^2(4) = 4.64$, $p = .326$, Cramer's $V = .140$. Also, there was not a significant relationship between college attendance and marital status, $\chi^2(6) = 8.93$, $p = .178$, Cramer's $V = .195$. However, there was a significant relationship between household income and college attendance, $\chi^2(8) = 26.90$, $p = .001$, Cramer's $V = .338$. A greater proportion of participants who did not attend college reported that their household incomes were less than \$20,000 (37.0%) compared to participants who attended college without interruptions (0%) and participants who attended college with interruptions (14.3%). In contrast, a smaller proportion of participants who did not attend college reported that their household incomes were \$50,000 or more (4.3%) compared to participants who attended college without interruptions (39.1%) and participants who attended college with interruptions (22.4%).

Table 12

Means and Standard Deviations for Age and Age at First Parenthood by College Attendance

	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Age				8.05	.001
Attended College Without Interruptions	23	28.4 ^a	4.81		
Attended College With Interruptions	47	28.5 ^a	4.22		
Did Not Attend College	46	25.2 ^b	4.12		
Age at First Parenthood				.04	.965
Attended College Without Interruptions	23	16.2	1.83		
Attended College With Interruptions	49	16.3	1.50		
Did Not Attend College	46	16.2	1.34		

Note. Means with different superscripts differ, $p < .05$.

Table 13

Frequencies and Percentages for Number of Children, Marital Status and Household Income by College Attendance

	College Attendance and Interruptions					
	Attended College Without Interruptions		Attended College With Interruptions		Did Not Attend College	
	<i>N</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%
Number of Children						
1	11	47.8	17	34.7	13	28.3
2	7	30.4	14	28.6	20	43.5
3 or More	5	21.7	18	36.7	13	28.3
Marital Status						
Married	5	21.7	9	18.8	5	10.9
Single	11	47.8	23	47.9	28	60.9
Divorced/Separated	5	21.7	8	16.7	2	4.3
In a Committed Relationship	2	8.7	8	16.7	11	23.9
Household Income						
Less Than \$20,000	0	0	7	14.3	17	37.0
\$20,000 to \$29,999	5	21.7	11	22.4	16	34.8
\$30,000 to \$39,999	5	21.7	12	24.5	8	17.4
\$40,000 to \$49,999	4	17.4	8	16.3	3	6.5
\$50,000 or More	9	39.1	11	22.4	2	4.3

Note. There was no significant relationship between Number of Children and College Attendance and Interruptions, $\chi^2 (4) = 4.64, p = .326$, Cramer's $V = .140$. There was no significant relationship between Marital Status and College Attendance and Interruptions, $\chi^2 (6) = 8.93, p = .178$, Cramer's $V = .195$. There was a significant relationship between Household Income and College Attendance and Interruptions, $\chi^2 (8) = 26.90, p = .001$, Cramer's $V = .338$.

The relationships between demographic variables and college completion were presented in Table 14 and Table 15. As shown, none of these demographic variables had significant relationships with college completion, $ps > .05$.

Table 14

Means and Standard Deviations for Age and Age at First Parenthood by College Completion

	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Age				1.23	.224
No	25	28.2	4.14		
Yes	33	29.6	4.34		
Age at First Parenthood				.61	.547
No	27	16.2	1.62		
Yes	33	16.4	1.44		

Table 15

Frequencies and Percentages for Number of Children, Marital Status and Household Income by College Completion

	College Completion					
	No		Yes			
	<i>N</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	χ^2	<i>P</i>
<hr/>						
Number of Children					3.64	.162
1	6	22.2	14	42.4		
2	9	33.3	11	33.3		
3 or More	12	44.4	8	24.2		
Marital Status					2.62	.455
Married	4	15.4	8	24.2		
Single	10	38.5	15	45.5		
Divorced/Separated	6	23.1	7	21.2		
In a Committed Relationship	6	23.1	3	9.1		
Household Income					3.39	.495
Less Than \$20,000	3	11.1	1	3.0		
\$20,000 to \$29,999	7	25.9	5	15.2		
\$30,000 to \$39,999	6	22.2	8	24.2		
\$40,000 to \$49,999	5	18.5	7	21.2		
\$50,000 or More	6	22.2	12	36.4		

Findings

The demographic variables revealed that participants who had one child were younger than the participants with two or more children. Married participants were found to be in a higher income bracket than single participants. Descriptive statistics with independent variables showed most participants lived in areas where school districts

offered parenting programs. However, results revealed that these women did not choose to participate in those parenting programs. Statistics with dependent variables showed most participants had attended college but had an interruption. Nevertheless, most of the participants who completed college earned a bachelor's degree. Most participants received support provided by school guidance counselors. However, they did not receive any support from their teachers. The number of children a participant had was not significantly related to college attendance or completion of college. Participants who received information from counselors about colleges scored higher on intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation than participants that did not.

A positive correlation was noted between school counselors, financial aid and community support. Participants who received guidance from school counselors scored higher on community support than participants who did not receive guidance from counselors. By the same token, participants who received guidance counseling had more information about financial aid than participants who did not receive guidance from and school counselors.

Summary

This chapter presents the summary of the findings of this quantitative research study. Participants were African American women who parented as teens. The study explored predictors of college attendance for this population of young women now age 20-35. Data were analyzed from responses to an online survey.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

Chapter 5 will provide a summary of the research included in this study. The summary contains a discussion of findings, conclusions, results, limitations, summary, implications and recommendations. Research reveals that African American females who parent as teens are sometimes not afforded an opportunity to attend college and for this reason, their full potential is never reached (Smith-Battle, 2007). Gaining insights into trends and contributing factors that prevent these adolescent mothers from furthering their education will imperative in aiding their efforts to overcome income inequities. Although this -study expanded the current body of knowledge on African American teenage mothers and college attendance, it also supports the critical need for continued education for this population. Additionally, this affirmed Billingsley's paradigm of instrumental expressive family functions in supporting adolescent mothers and their families.

The purpose of this quantitative study was to explore the predictors of college attendance for African American women who parented as teens using a four point online survey and a 119 convenient sample size of age 30-35 years old. Participants responded to the Predictors of College Attendance Instrument (PCAI): a four part, 66 close-ended questionnaire. The four parts included (a) Academic Motivation, 28 items; (b) Perceived Family and Friend Support, 12 items; (c) Perceived Community Support, 13 items; and

(d) Demographics, 13 items. Questions ranged from thoughts during teenage pregnancy to academic motivation and perceived micro and macro social support and instrumental and expressive systems. In addition, the questions caused participants to reflect on their future, family, school and community support.

The research questions were: Do (1) college attendance and (2) college completion depend on academic motivation? (2) Do (1) college attendance and (2) college completion depend on social support? (3) Do (1) college attendance and (2) college completion depend on community support? (4) Do (1) college attendance and (2) college completion depend on information received about financial aid and other community and government resources? (5) Do (1) college attendance and (2) college completion depend on counseling received from high school guidance counselors and teachers? (6) Do (1) college attendance and (2) college completion depend on information received from high school guidance counselors and teachers about college?

The hypotheses were: those who (1) attend and (2) complete college will be significantly higher in academic motivation than those who do not attend or complete college. Those who (1) attend and (2) complete college will have significantly more social support than those who do not attend or complete college. Those who (1) attend and (2) complete college will have significantly more community support than those who do not attend or complete college. Those who (1) attend and (2) complete college will have received significantly more information about financial aid and other community and government resources than those who do not attend or complete college. Those who

(1) attend and (2) complete college will have received significantly more counseling from their high school guidance counselor and teachers than those who do not attend or complete college. Those who (1) attend and (2) complete college will have received significantly more information about college from their high school guidance counselor and teachers than those who do not attend or complete college. Those who (1) attend and (2) complete college will be significantly older than those who do not attend or complete college. Those who (1) attend and (2) complete college will have significantly higher household income than those who do not attend or complete college.

The research questions results were analyzed using the following instruments: ANOVA, individual sample *t* test, cross-tabulations with Pearson's chi-square test, multinomial logistic regression, Tukey HSD test, Kruskal-Wallis, means and standard deviation and a binary regression model. The impact of college attendance and college completion was calculated using logistical multinomial regression. The results of one-way ANOVA indicated that there was a significant relationship between motivation and college attendance. Tukey HSD post-hoc analyses revealed that participants who attended college with interruptions had higher motivation than those who did not. There was also a significant effect of Amotivation on college attendance. The effect of social support on college attendance was also significant. Tukey HSD post-hoc tests revealed that participants who attended college without interruptions had more community support than participants who attended college with interruptions and participants who did not attend college. Since there was not a significant effect of financial aid information on college attendance and standard deviations that were greater than half the mean, utilizing

Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric analyses, yielding equivalent results all parametric tests were confirmed.

Using cross tabulations with Pearson's *chi* test, the relationships between college attendance and school counseling support was not significant; however, the relationship between school information support and college attendance was significant. Independent *sample t test* revealed no significant effect of variables on college completion and there was marginal significant effect of Amotivation on college completion. Subsequently, the effect of community support on college completion was marginally significant. There is not a significant relationship between school counseling support or school information on college completion.

Discussion of Findings

RQ1. Do college attendance and (2) college completion depends on academic motivation?

The first research question examined the role of academic motivation and how it affects a student's attendance and completion of college. The survey results revealed that the motivation scores of participants who did not attend college were significantly lower than the participants' scores who attended college but experienced interruptions. Results further revealed that there was no significant difference in the academic motivation between participants who completed college and those who did not complete college. The principal researcher determined that some teen mothers had foresight to realize that a college degree would improve their financial status. Smith-Battle (2000) acknowledged

that the life of teen mothers without college degrees is often filled with depressing outcomes including poverty.

RQ2. Do (1) college attendance and (2) college completion depend on social support?

The second research question examined whether college attendance and college completion depend on social support. Findings showed that participants who did not attend college had significantly less social support than did participants who attended college. However there was no significant difference on social support between participants who completed college and those who did not. Participants who received information about college from school guidance counselors scored higher on social support than did participants who did not receive information from counselors. Van Pelt (2012) realized the benefit of school counseling and mentoring that provided support for academic and career choices.

RQ3. Do (1) college attendance and (2) college completion depend on community support?

The third research question examined whether college attendance and college completion were influenced by community support. The survey results revealed that participants who attended college without interruptions had significantly more community support than did participants who attended college but experienced interruptions and those who did not attend college. Community programs like "I Have a Future" offer support and help teen mothers to envision a future with promise and a foundation to support their family (Greene, Smith, & Peters, 1995).

RQ4. Do (1) college attendance and (2) completion depend on information received about financial aid and other community and government resources?

The fourth research question explored whether college attendance and college completion depend on information received about financial aid and other community and government resources. The survey results showed there was no significant difference on financial aid information among participants who attended college with or without interruption and those who did not attend college. Moreover, the results showed there was no significant difference on financial aid information among participants who completed college with or without interruption and those who did not complete college. The U.S. government provides scholarships for teen mothers who want to get a college degree (USDE, 2014; “Scholarships for Moms”, 2014).

RQ5. Do (1) college attendance and (2) completion depend of counseling received from high school guidance counselors and teachers?

The fifth research question examined whether those who attended and completed college would have received significantly more counseling from their high school guidance counselors and teachers than those who did not attend and complete college. The survey revealed that there was no significant difference between participants who attended college with or without interruptions and those who did not attend college. Furthermore, there was no significant difference on school counseling between participants who completed college and those who did not complete college. Counselors provide information that fosters continuing education for teen mothers (Women and Infants Research, 2011).

R6. Do (1) college attendance and (2) college completion depend on information received from high school counselors and teachers about college?

The sixth research question explored whether college attendance and college completion depended on information received from high school guidance counselors and their teachers about college. The research found a greater proportion of participants who did not attend college did not receive any support compared to participants who attended college. In contrast, a greater portion of the participants who attended college received good support compared to participants who did not attend college. There was no significant difference in information between participants who completed college and those who did not complete college. Counselors provide students with information about scholarships and Pell Grants available for students that meet academic requirements (Rhiannon (2013).

A logistical multinomial regression model was used to predict the odds of attendance using significant independent variables and other potential covariates. The overall model was significant with an acceptable fit. Of all the predictors, school information was significant; better support on school information increased the odds of attending college. Community support was also significant; more community support increased the odds of attending college. Among the control variables, age and household income were significant; older age increased the odds of attending college. Higher household income also increased the odds of attending college. A logistic regression model with independent variables that was used to predict the odds of college completion

was not found to be significant. There were no significant relationships between independent variables and college completion.

Conclusion

Studies reveal that African American females who parent as teens are never afforded an opportunity to attend college, and for this reason, their full potential is never reached. This study was used to assess the factors that are most significant in promoting college attendance and the successful completion of college in African American women who became parents as teenagers. By determining these factors, researchers and interventionist have been able to encourage college attendance by promoting the most important forms of motivation and support for these individuals. Additional efforts are needed to educate and support adolescent mothers. Childbirth at a young age can often lead to negative consequences for a lifetime, including poverty (Smith-Battle, 2000). When African American teens become pregnant, goals and aspirations for college attainment often become dismal (Smith-Battle, 2007), Thus, this research has and will continue to ultimately improve the lives of these women by guiding researchers to effectively encourage college attendance.

The purpose of this quantitative study was to explore the predictors of college attendance for African American women who parented as teens. To fulfill the purpose of this study, this principal researcher conducted a convenient sampling that was used to invite responses to an online survey. There were 119 volunteer qualifying participants between the ages of 20-35 years old that parented as teens. On a Likert Scale, these women reflected on their thoughts during their teenage pregnancy and provided

responses to survey questions about demographics, academic motivation, and perceived social support. In addition, the questions caused them to reflect on their feelings about their future, family, school, and community support. Additionally, the questions made them revisit the financial support they needed and received during that time. Also, the survey asked participants how much education they had attained and what was their current economic status. The findings of the survey represented teenage mothers who are now adults.

Limitations of the Study

1. An inclusive criterion of this study limited the participants to African Americans.
2. This study limited the age of participants to a current age range of 20-35.
3. There is a gap in the scholarly literature on this topic. The current body of knowledge is vastly reported from the practitioner's perspective.
4. The Hawthorne Effects of social relations on motivation and responses. .

Summary

The final chapter in this study reviewed the findings and implications of this qualitative research exploring the potential predictors of college attendance for African American women who parented as teens. This study expanded the literature on demographic factors, academic motivation and perceived social support as viewed in retrospect by these young women who became parents during their teenage years.

Implications

It is this principal researcher's conceptualization that theory based research on the psychological development of the adolescent should be approached utilizing scientific

method. Information and education for pregnant African American teens varies such as, six education program, accessibility to continued support provided by schools, parents and community. When teen mothers feel support from the family, they are motivated to continue education and attend college. If parents of teenage mothers are supported through education of the upcoming changes about becoming early grandparents, they are better prepared to successfully cope with the new transitions in family dynamics with the birth of a baby and responsibilities of supporting the new family structure. Additionally, it is important that while in high school, teen mothers and their families receive information and education on college requirements and mentors connected with college admissions.

In order to increase teenage mother's opportunities for college attendance, teenage mothers will also need to receive more in-depth information from school guidance counselors, teachers and the community about college attainment, financial aid, and strategies for accessing and utilizing these resources. When teenage mothers feel that they lack support, their opportunities to attend college are slim. Parents of teen mothers should advocate that policy makers and community leaders consider these factors when designing educational curricula and special programs for pregnant students. Implications for these changes are based on the findings of this study. Data reflected from the survey indicate that African American women who become teen mothers are faced with multiple challenges as they encounter difficult circumstances for their family. Secondary schools are preparing students for their future. A greater systemic connection between high schools, colleges, and universities through information and mentorship may increase self-

confidence and promote solutions for the challenges of balancing motherhood and college. Policy makers could continue to examine the changing dynamics that influence college attendance for African American teenage mothers and create policies that foster greater educational opportunities and financial support for this population. As students continue to pursue a college education, more colleges and universities should consider providing these students with academic advisors who specialize in working with students through an ongoing monitoring and tracking system. The system would be designed specifically for young, parenting, African American women. The system would closely monitor and assess students' needs as they attempt to balance motherhood, college attendance, and college completion.

Recommendations

This principal researcher would like to make the following recommendations regarding funding, governmental and state agency policies, and future research. Based on the findings of this study, the results show that more empirical research is needed that applies to a scientific approach to better understand how motivation and teen pregnancy impact college attendance. The findings also show that more comprehensive sex education programs are needed that focus beyond the abstinence programs but also promote common sexual education modalities.

Considering the large number of school districts that have adopted the abstinence only curriculum for adolescents, research shows a need for more comprehensive sex education programs that focus on practices of healthy social behaviors, building relationships, and pregnancy preventive measures. Therefore, family practitioners should

increase efforts to develop programs and opportunities for all young African American women in order for each to receive information and encouragement to attend college. School counselors and teachers need to remain abreast of academic support and learn multiple ways to present information to teen mothers about high school completion and post secondary opportunities for college attendance. Families and community members should advocate for state policies that increase funding for comprehensive sex education programs and that address specific needs for school districts. Young people should have easy access to information that answers questions about sexuality along with individual and group guidance counseling on questions or situations that may arise. Schools should have systematic methods of providing continuous support for pregnant teens once they have been identified. This system should be staffed with educators and trained volunteers to provide a 24 hour hotline service to answer questions and provide direction for pregnant teens, parenting teens, and their families. State agencies should provide greater support for teenage parents through school guidance counseling to include school graduation, GED completion and college admissions.

To raise awareness of the plight of African American teen mothers and their families, African American communities should re-visit the concept of fictive kin. Restoring the family structure that respects the wisdom of family elders is important. When family members accept multiple gender roles, guidance, education, childcare and financial support for the entire family of pregnant and parenting teens can be found within the family to help develop a stable environment for the new family structure. In conclusion of this study, there should be a triangular linkage between high schools,

community colleges and universities that recognize the crucial need for trained faculty mentors at all levels for African American young mothers who parented as teens that desire to attend college.

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Appendix A

E-mails Sent to Single Mother Support Groups Regarding Survey and Their Replies

#1 -----Original Message-----

From: mtoe <jakap12345@aol.com>

To: jrossroy <jrossroy@aol.com>

Sent: Thu, Jan 2, 2014 3:25 pm

Subject: J.A. Cook-Kyle Dissertation Request Texas Woman's University

Dear Ms. Roy,

I am moving forward in the dissertation process. The Texas Woman's University Institutional Review Board requests that your information of support be placed on business letterhead. I hope that you will be available to accommodate this request. You will need to say that you will allow me to place a link to my survey on your magazine website once I have IRB approval.

Sincerely,

Jacquelyn A. Cook-Kyle Ph. D. Candidate

214 478-3604

New Year, New Me!

-----Original Message-----

From: Jackie Ross-Roy <jrossroy@aol.com>

To: jakap12345 <jakap12345@aol.com>

Sent: Wed, Sep 11, 2013 4:13 pm

Subject: Re: Research Request

#2 ----- Original Message -----

Subject: Dissertation Research Support

From: mtoe <jakap12345@aol.com>

Date: Fri, October 18, 2013 10:40 am

To: newsletter@eqtmagazine.com

Hello Ms. Mlambo,

My name is Jacquelyn Cook-Kyle, and I am a doctoral candidate in the Family Studies Department at Texas Woman's University. I am seeking permission to place a link to my online survey on your website. I am familiar with your magazine and know that your business reaches a global audience and many may qualify for this study. I'm recruiting individuals to voluntarily participate in my on-line research study. My topic is "Predictors of College Attendance For African American Women Who Parented as Teens." Results from this study will help family life professionals add to the body of knowledge that seeks to improve future life choices for this targeted population,

Participation will take approximately 15 minutes.

Eligibility criteria:

Self identity as an African American woman age 20 – 35 who parented as a teen.

I need an official letter from you granting permission for me to share my research survey with your audience.

Your support is sincerely appreciated. Please contact me if you have questions.

Respectfully,

Jacquelyn A. Cook-Kyle

(214) 478-3604

#3 - URBAN MOSAIX :: DIVERSE FUN x DIVERSE FOLKS!

UrbanMosaix.org / info@UrbanMosaix.org

We use Twitter for important 'In-The-Moment' event updates

Click below to follow Urban Mosaix



On Thu, Jan 2, 2014 at 3:22 PM, mtoe <jakap12345@aol.com> wrote:

Dear Ms Farr,

Thank you for our phone conversation earlier today. The Texas Woman's University Institutional Review Board request that your information of support be placed on business letterhead for Urban Mosaix and North Texas Singles. I hope that you will be available to accommodate this request. . You will need to say that you will allow me to place a link to my survey on your websites once I have IRB approval. .

Sincerely,

Jacquelyn A. Cook-Kyle Ph. D. Candidate

214 478-3604

New Year, New Me!

#4 - -----Original Message-----

From: mtoe <jakap12345@aol.com>

To: penonfire <penonfire@aol.com>

Sent: Mon, Oct 7, 2013 10:04 am

Subject: Research Support J, .Kyle Ph.D. Candidate

Ms. Cheryl Smith,

My name is Jacquelyn Cook-Kyle, and I am a doctoral candidate in the Family Studies Department at Texas Woman's University. I am seeking permission to place a link to my online survey on your website. I know that your business reaches a global audience and many may qualify for this study. I'm recruiting individuals to voluntarily participate in my research study. My topic is "Predictors of College Attendance For African American Women Who Parented as Teens."

Participation will take approximately 15 minutes.

Eligibility criteria:

Self identity as an African American woman age 20 – 35 who parented as a teen.

I need an official letter from you granting permission for me to share my research survey with your audience.

Your support is sincerely appreciated. Please contact me if you have questions.

Jacquelyn A. Cook-Kyle

(214) 478-3604

jakap12345@aol.com

#1 – Response from Daughters of Naomi Ministry

DAUGHTERS OF NAOMI MINISTRY



MINISTRY OVERSEER
Evangelist Jackie Roy

MINISTRY CO-DIRECTOR
Rev. Carolyn McCullough
Rev. Lenora Counter

BOARD MEMBERS
Minister Valarie Wright
Stephanie Goree

SPIRITUAL ADVISOR
Rev. Reginald J. Houston

September 11, 2013

Dear Ms. Cook-Kyle:

As per our conversation and as founder/overseer of the Daughters of Naomi Ministry, I would be delighted to have you post your link to the survey on my website once you have IRB approval.

I feel this research is vital to the success of the education of our young teen/adult women. Thanks again for taking the time to invest in our youth. Feel free to contact me if you need any other information.

Sincerely,

Evangelist Jackie Roy
Ministry Overseer

#2 – Response from Equanimity



Equanimity LLC
P. O. Box 3585
Coppell, TX 75019
(817) 705-6212

October 18, 2013

Dear Jacquelyn A. Cook-Kyle,

We are in receipt of your request. This letter officially grants you permission to share your research survey with Equanimity Magazine's audience. You can share your survey on Equanimity's website or magazine

Good luck to you!

Thank you,

Lumbie Mlambo
Editor-In-Chief
Equanimity, LLC
www.equanimitymag.com

#3 – Response from Urban Mosaix



info@UrbanMosaix.org / 214.679.9454 / 1409 South Lamar, Loft 851 Dallas TX 75215

Dear Ms Cook-Kyle,

I will be happy to assist in the data collection for your **dissertation**. I'm the organizer of two social activity groups; see below. I can post the link to the survey on the websites and directly email your request for participants to the members of both organizations. Please edit to your preference the message that I composed from the information in your email (see below). I wish you all the best with your study!

Urban Mosaix / 1244 members > <http://www.meetup.com/Urban-Mosaix/>
North Texas Single Parents / 412 members > <http://www.meetup.com/NTXSingleParents/>

Cheers,

Siobhan Farr

Siobhan Farr, Organizer
Urban Mosaix and North Texas Single Parents
website : UrbanMosaix.org

Message to our members with your revisions as needed:

Hello Members! A friendly associate of mine is a doctoral candidate in the Family Studies Department at Texas Woman's University. She is recruiting individuals to voluntarily participate in her research. The focus explores predictors of college attendance for African American women **who parented as teens**. She is in the process of seeking Texas Women's University IRB approval; at that time her data collection will began. This is a 15 to 20 minutes online study.

Eligibility Criteria : Self identity as an African American woman currently age 20 - 31 who parented as a teen.

If you'd like to participate, please directly contact:
Jacquelyn Cook-Kyle / jakap12345@aol.com or CLICK link to the study



#4 – Response from I MESSINGER



October 7, 2013

TO: Jacquelyn A. Cook-Kyle

RE: Research Survey

It will be a pleasure for me to make your research survey on the topic of "Predictors of College Attendance for African American Women Who Parented as Teens" available to my audiences on the following websites under the I Messenger Enterprises brand:

www.mymessenger.com
www.texasmetronews.com
www.garlandjournal.com

Thanks for considering me. I look forward to seeing the outcome of your research!

Best wishes,

Cheryl Smith

Cheryl Smith
Publisher/Editor
I Messenger Enterprises
320 South R.L. Thornton Freeway
Suite 220
Dallas, TX 75203

Appendix B

Informed Consent to Participate in Online Research

TEXAS WOMAN'S UNIVERSITY
CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN ONLINE RESEARCH
Title: EXPLORING POTENTIAL PREDICTORS OF COLLEGE ATTENDANCE
FOR AFRICAN AMERICAN WOMEN WHO PARENTED AS TEENS

Investigator: Jacquelyn A. Cook-Kyle, BS, MeD

jakyle@twu.edu

(214) 478-3604

Advisor: Joyce Armstrong, PhD

jarmstrong@twu.edu

(940) 898-2690

Explanation and Purpose of the Research

Dear Potential Research Participant

You are being asked to participate in a research study for Jacquelyn A. Cook-Kyle's Dissertation at Texas Woman's University. The purpose of this research is to explore the potential predictors of college attendance for African American women who parented as teens. In particular, this study will examine how African American young mothers viewed their experiences as a teenage mother and how motherhood at a young age influenced their decision to attend or not attend college.

Research Procedures

The survey can be taken at your convenience as it will appear on select approved websites. Your maximum total time commitment will be approximately 15-20 minutes. A code number, rather than your real name, will be used on survey. Only the investigator and an independent company specializing in data collection and analyses, Elite Research, will have access to survey results. This company has completed all necessary IRB training to safely access and analyze the data. PsychData.com will host the online survey, and Elite Research will manage the data. The information will be stored in a secured database. Elite Research will not use, sell, rent, trade or otherwise disseminate or disclose data, except as required by the researcher's authorized written request or consent.

Ethical Procedures

To ensure that ethical procedures are followed for the research, appropriate information will be explained to the participants: the purpose of the research, procedures, potential benefits, confidentiality, risks, and other information. The researcher will include the informed consent form as part of the online web link to the survey questionnaire before administration of the online survey.

Potential Risks

There are potential risks related to your participation in this study. However, TWU does not provide medical services or financial assistance for injuries or counseling that might happen because you are taking part in this research. You might have a loss of time from work during questionnaire completion. An estimated 15-20 minutes will be required

to complete the consent form and questionnaires. Participants will be allowed to stop the survey and/or discontinue participation at any time.

RISKS/STEPS TO MINIMIZE RISK

No names will be collected as a part of this research. Online participants will not be identifiable. Information from the surveys will be stored in a secure database.

RISK/STEPS TO MINIMIZE RISK

Participants may feel emotional discomfort when reflecting of past experiences specified survey questions. Participants may decide to skip questions or discontinue questions at any time during the data collection for this study.

RISK/ STEPS TO MINIMIZE RISK

Loss of confidentiality. The responses from the online questionnaires will be accessible to only the research team members and Elite Research.

IRB Contact Information

Confidentiality will be protected to the extent allowed by law. The researchers will try to prevent any problem that could happen because of this research. You should let the researchers know at once if there is a problem and they will help you. However, TWU does not provide medical services or financial assistance for injuries that might happen because you are taking part in this research.

You will be given a copy of this signed and dated consent form to keep. If you have questions about your rights as a participant in this research or the way this study has been conducted, you may contact the Texas Woman's University Office of Research and Sponsored Programs at 940-898-3378 or via e-mail at IRB@twu.edu.

Signature of Participant _____
Date _____

Request to receive a summary of the results of this study by placing your initials below:
Initials: _____

Address: _____

City, State, Zip: _____

Appendix C
Academic Motivational Survey

Academic Motivational Survey
(Vallerand, Pelletier, Blais, Brière, Senécal, & Vallières, 1992)

Please rate your level of agreement for the following when you were a pregnant teenager:

	Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neutral	Mildly Agree	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree
With a high school degree, I would not find a high-paying job later on.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I experienced pleasure and satisfaction while learning new things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I thought that a college education would help me better prepare for the career I had chosen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I experienced intense feelings of going to college when I was communicating my own ideas to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I really felt that school was a waste of time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I experienced pleasure while I surpassed myself in my studies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I thought I would be capable of completing my college degree.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Going to college would help me obtain a more prestigious job later on.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I experienced pleasure when I discovered new things never seen before.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
College education would enable me to enter the job market in a field that I liked.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I experienced pleasure when I read interesting authors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I once had good reasons for going to college; however, as a pregnant teenager I wondered whether I should go to college.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I experienced pleasure while I surpassed myself in one of my personal accomplishments.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would feel important if I succeeded in college.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
College would provide me with "the good life" later on.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I experienced pleasure in broadening my knowledge about subjects which appealed to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
College would help me make a better	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I experienced pleasure when I felt completely absorbed by what certain authors had written.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I couldn't see why I should go to college and frankly, I couldn't care less.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I felt satisfaction when I was in the process of accomplishing difficult academic activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Going to college would help me show myself that I am an intelligent person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
College would help me provide a better salary later on.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My studies would allow me to continue to learn about many things that interest me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I believed that a few additional years of education would improve my competence as a worker.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I experienced a "high" feeling while reading about various interesting subjects.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I couldn't understand what I was doing in school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
College would allow me to experience a personal satisfaction in my quest for excellence in my studies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I wanted to show myself that I could succeed in my studies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix D

Multi-Dimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS)

Level of Support: Family/Friends (Zimet, Dahlem, Zimet, & Farley, 1988)

Please answer the following questions based on the level of support you received from your family/ friends when you were a pregnant teenager

	Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Neutral	Mildly Agree	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree
There were family/friends around when I was in need.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There were family/friends with whom I could share my joys and sorrows.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My family/friends really tried to help me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I got the emotional help and support I needed from my family/friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I had family/friends who were a real source of comfort to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My family/friends really tried to help me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I could count on my family/friends when things would go wrong.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I could talk about my problems with my family/friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I had family/friends with whom I could share my joys and sorrows.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There were family/friends in my life who cared about my feelings.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My family/friends were willing to help me make decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I could talk about my problems with my family/friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix E

Cook-Kyle Demographic Questionnaire

Part III Level of Community Support and School Support (Cook-Kyle, 2013)

Did your school district offer a teen pregnancy or parenting program? Yes ____
No ____

Did you participate in the program? Yes ____ No ____

Did the program offer childcare? Yes ____ No ____

Did it provide transportation? Yes ____ No ____

Amount of Information received about Financial Aid, Childcare Programs, WIC, etc. (government and community support)

Did you receive information about the following support agencies? (Please check all that apply)

- ____ Church
- ____ Girl Scouts of Central Texas
- ____ Catholic Charities of the Archdiocese
- ____ Texas Education Agency's Teen Parent Program
- ____ WIC
- ____ Maya Angelou and Vivian Baxter Scholarship
- ____ AAUW Scholarships
- ____ TANIF
- ____ Other (please specify) _____

Level of Counseling provided by school guidance counselors

Did you receive support provided by school guidance counselors? Yes ____ No ____

How would you	Extremely	Very	Moderately		Moderately	Very	Extremely
rate the level of	Bad	Bad	Bad	Okay	Good	Good	Good
support?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Level of Counseling provided by teachers

Did you receive guidance from teachers? Yes ____ No ____

How would you	Extremely	Very	Moderately		Moderately	Very	Extremely
rate the level of	Bad	Bad	Bad	Okay	Good	Good	Good
support?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Amount of Information about colleges provided by school guidance counselors

Did you receive information about colleges provided by school guidance counselors?

Yes _____ No _____

Regarding the amount of information you received about colleges provided by school guidance counselors, how would you rate the level of support?	Extremely Bad	Very Bad	Moderately Bad	Okay	Moderately Good	Very Good	Extremely Good
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Amount of Information about colleges provided by teachers

Did you receive information about colleges provided by teachers? Yes _____ No _____

Regarding the amount of information you received about colleges provided by teachers, how would you rate the level of support?	Extremely Bad	Very Bad	Moderately Bad	Okay	Moderately Good	Very Good	Extremely Good

Amount of Information received about Financial Aid, Childcare Programs, WIC, etc. (government and community support)

Did you receive information about the following support agencies? (Please check all that apply)

- _____ Church
- _____ Girl Scouts of Central Texas
- _____ Catholic Charities of the Archdiocese
- _____ Texas Education Agency's Teen Parent Program
- _____ WIC
- _____ Maya Angelou and Vivian Baxter Scholarship
- _____ AAUW Scholarships
- _____ TANIF
- _____ Other (please specify) _____

Level of Counseling provided by school guidance counselors

Did you receive support provided by school guidance counselors? Yes ____ No ____

How would you rate the level of support?	Extremely Bad	Very Bad	Moderately Bad	Okay	Moderately Good	Very Good	Extremely Good
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Level of Counseling provided by teachers

Did you receive guidance from teachers? Yes ____ No ____

How would you rate the level of support?	Extremely Bad	Very Bad	Moderately Bad	Okay	Moderately Good	Very Good	Extremely Good
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Amount of Information about colleges provided by school guidance counselors

Did you receive information about colleges provided by school guidance counselors?

Yes ____ No ____

Regarding the amount of information you received about colleges provided by school guidance counselors, how would you rate the level of support?	Extremely Bad	Very Bad	Moderately Bad	Okay	Moderately Good	Very Good	Extremely Good
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Amount of Information about colleges provided by teachers

Did you receive information about colleges provided by teachers? Yes ____ No ____

Regarding the amount of information you received about colleges provided by teachers, how would you rate the level of support?	Extremely Bad	Very Bad	Moderately Bad	Okay	Moderately Good	Very Good	Extremely Good
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

What is your age? _____

Did you become a parent as a teenager? Yes ____ No ____

What was your age when you had your first child? _____

How many children do you have? 1 2 3 4 5 6 Other (please specify) _____

What is your marital status? Married _____ Single _____ Divorced _____ Separated _____

In a Committed Relationship _____

What is your current household income?

- ___ Less than \$10,000
- ___ \$10,000 to \$19,999
- ___ \$20,000 to \$29,999
- ___ \$30,000 to \$39,999
- ___ \$40,000 to \$49,999
- ___ \$50,000 to \$59,999
- ___ \$60,000 to \$69,999
- ___ \$70,000 to \$79,999
- ___ \$80,000 to \$89,999
- ___ \$90,000 to \$99,000
- ___ \$100,000 to \$149,000
- ___ \$150,000 or more

Have you ever attended College? Yes _____ No _____

If yes, were there any interruptions or breaks in your college attendance? Yes___ No_____

 If yes, did you graduate? Yes _____ No _____

 If yes, what degree did you achieve?

- Associates
- Bachelors
- Masters
- PhD

 If no, are you currently going to College? Yes ___ No_____

 If yes, what degree are you working toward?

- Associates
- Bachelors
- Masters
- PhD

 If yes, what is your current GPA _____

 Semesters of college completed? _____

Comments:

Appendix F

E-mail Request and Response for Permission to Use Academic Motivational Survey

----- Forwarded message -----

From: me <jakap12345@aol.com>

Date: Wed, May 15, 2013 at 5:18 AM

Subject: Request - Permission to use Academic Motivation Survey

To: vallerand.bob@gmail.com

Dear Dr. Robert J. Vallerand,

I am a doctoral candidate at Texas Woman's University. I wish to do a quantitative study to explore the factors that predict college attendance for African American females who parented as adolescents. I want to find out what motivated these mothers to attend college compared to other African American females who parented as adolescents but have not gone to college.

I see a dire need for better comprehensive health education programs and greater support for teen mothers.

Thank you for your time.

Respectfully,

Jacquelyn A. Cook-Kyle Ph.D. (Candidate)

Department of Family Sciences

Texas Woman's University

Denton, Texas

-----Original Message-----

From: Ariane St-Louis <stlouis.ariane@gmail.com>

To: jakap12345 <jakap12345@aol.com>

Sent: Wed, May 15, 2013 3:40 pm

Subject: Re: Request - Permission to use Academic Motivation Survey

Hi,

You can download the AMS from our web site:

http://www.er.uqam.ca/nobel/r26710/LRCS/echelles_en.htm

AMS

To calculate a person's score on the AMS, you need to find the mean response for each of the subscales. These means will vary between 1 and 7. You then insert these means in the following formula which will allow you to calculate a self-determination index:

$2((\text{know} + \text{acc} + \text{stim}/3)) + \text{iden} - ((\text{intro} + \text{reg}/2) + 2\text{amo}) = \text{self-determination index}$

know= intrinsic motivation to know

acc= intrinsic motivation to accomplishments

stim= intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation

iden= identification

intro= introjected regulation

reg= external regulation

amo= amotivation

This formula will give you scores ranging from -18 (very little self-determination) to +18 (extreme self-determination). Most of the people we have tested with this scale obtain scores around 10.

Highest level of self-determination: $2((7+7+7/3)) + 7 - ((1+1/2) + 2*1)$

So :

$2((7+7+7/3))+7-((1+1/2)+2(1)) = \text{would be the highest self-determined score} = 18$

$2((21/3))+7-((2/2)+2(1))$

$2((7))+7-((1)+(2))$

$2((7))+7-(3)$

$2((7))+7-(3)$

$14+7=18$

I would like to mention that this scale has not been normalised. This index is only used for research purposes. Nevertheless, we noticed that a high index is associated with positive consequences and, on the opposite, a low index is associated with negative consequences for the person.

I hope these few words will help you.

I wish you good luck in your research project.

2013/5/15 Bob Vallerand <vallerand.bob@gmail.com>

Appendix G

E-mail to Dr. Zimet and His Response: Request for Permission to Use MSPSS

E-mail request from JK to Dr. Zimet

-----Original Message-----

From: me <jakap12345@aol.com>

To: gzimet <gzimet@iupui.edu>

Sent: Sat, Sep 21, 2013 4:35 pm

Subject: Request to use Instrument - Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support

Dear Dr. Zimet,

I am a doctoral candidate in the proposal phase for my research at Texas Woman's University in Denton, Texas. As a critical part of my research, I would like your permission to use the Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support. I believe that your scale will provide highly significant insight into my study. I'm planning to conduct a quantitative study on African American teen mothers and the predictors of their college attendance. I want to know how they perceived social support and if it aided them in their quest to attend college compared to African American adolescents females who were parents and did not attend college.

I see a need for better comprehensive health education programs and greater support for teen mothers.

Thank you for your time and support.

Respectfully,

Jacquelyn A. Cook-Kyle Ph.D. (Candidate)

Texas Woman's University

Denton, Texas

Dr. Zimet's Response

-----Original Message-----

From: Zimet, Gregory D <gzimet@iu.edu>

To: me <jakap12345@aol.com>

Sent: Sun, Sep 22, 2013 10:11 am

Subject: RE: Request to use Instrument – Multi dimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support

Dear Jacquelyn,

You have my permission to use the MSPSS in your research. I have attached a copy of the scale and a document listing several articles that have reported on the psychometric properties of the MSPSS.

Good luck with your research.

Sincerely,
Greg Zimet

=====
Gregory D. Zimet, PhD
Professor of Pediatrics & Clinical Psychology
Section of Adolescent Medicine
Indiana University School of Medicine
Health Information & Translational Sciences
410 W. 10th Street, HS 1001
Indianapolis, IN 46202
USA
Phone: +1-317-274-8812
Fax: +1-317-274-0133
e-mail: gzimet@iu.edu
<http://pediatrics.iu.edu/center-hpv-research/about-us/>

APPENDIX H

Reminder Script

Reminder Script

Dear Organization Leaders,

My name is Jacquelyn A. Cook-Kyle Ph. D. candidate at Texas Woman's University in Denton. Texas. Thank you again for granting me permission to post a link to my survey on your website. I just wanted to remind you that I will be posting my survey on your website as of the tentative date, February 3, 2014. The Texas Women's University Institutional Review Board has approved my research. My survey will remain available 45 days from the date of posting. I will call you on Tuesday, Feb. 3, 2014.

You may contact me if you have any questions at (214) 478-3604 and at jakap12345@aol.com

Sincerely,

Jacquelyn A. Cook-Kyle

Appendix I
IRB Approval Letter



Institutional Review Board
Office of Research and Sponsored Programs
P.O. Box 425619, Denton, TX 76204-5619
940-898-3378 FAX 940-898-4416
e-mail: IRB@twu.edu

January 22, 2014

Ms. Jacquelyn A. Cook-Kyle
3215 Pleasant Drive
Dallas, TX 75227

Dear Ms. Cook-Kyle:

Re: Exploring Potential Predictors of College Attendance for African American Women Who Parented as Teens (Protocol #: 17548)

The above referenced study has been reviewed by the TWU Institutional Review Board (IRB) and was determined to be exempt from further review.

If applicable, agency approval letters must be submitted to the IRB upon receipt PRIOR to any data collection at that agency. Because a signed consent form is not required for exempt studies, the filing of signatures of participants with the TWU IRB is not necessary.

Any modifications to this study must be submitted for review to the IRB using the Modification Request Form. Additionally, the IRB must be notified immediately of any unanticipated incidents. If you have any questions, please contact the TWU IRB.

Sincerely,

Dr. David Nichols, Co-Chair
Institutional Review Board - Denton

cc. Dr. Karen Petty, Department of Family Sciences
Dr. Joyce Armstrong, Department of Family Sciences
Graduate School