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Parents' Perceptions of Teenage Pregnancy

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LOYOLA UNIVERSITY CHICAGO

PARENT'S PERCEPTIONS OF TEENAGE PREGNANCY

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to shed light on Latino/a parents' perceptions and attitudes about adolescent pregnancy. This study aims to reveal how parental perceptions and attitudes may impact parental communication with their children about teen pregnancy. Considering that parents play an important role in adolescent pregnancy prevention, this research study attempts to shed light on the nature of how parents perceive adolescent pregnancy and communication about teen pregnancy. The goal of this study was to answer the following two questions: 1. What are some of the variables that influence how Latino/a parents of high school students at an urban school perceive teen pregnancy? 2. How do perceptions of teen pregnancy influence how Latino/a/parents of high school students at an urban school communicate with their children about adolescent pregnancy?

Given that this study seeks to provide an understanding of parental perceptions which may influence teen pregnancy, qualitative methods with a phenomenological approach were used. Focus group discussions were conducted with Latino/a parents at a public high school in Chicago in order to obtain a contextual understanding of parents’ perceptions and attitudes toward teen pregnancy. A total of eight themes emerged from the data set. Four theoretical constructs were developed from the identified themes.
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter will state the purpose and research questions of the current study. The need for research related to adolescent pregnancy prevention in Latino/a communities will also be discussed. In addition, this research as it relates to the field of school psychology will be briefly described. Finally, a theoretical framework for this study will be provided.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to shed light on Latino/a parents' perceptions and attitudes about adolescent pregnancy. In addition, this study reveals how parental perceptions and attitudes may impact parental communication with their children about teen pregnancy.

This research study contributes to the vast body of literature related to teen pregnancy by exploring parents' perceptions. In particular, limited research has been done related to minority parents' perceptions of teen pregnancy and adolescent pregnancy prevention efforts (Eisenberg, Bearinger, Sieving, Swain, & Resnick, 2004). Although there have been numerous studies related to the impact of parent-child communication on pregnancy prevention, including parent communication research in Latino/a communities, there is a need to explore how minority parents perceive adolescent pregnancy and the attitudes they have toward adolescent pregnancy which may influence
their communication with their children about teen pregnancy.

Recent studies have looked into parent communication about sex, but these studies have focused more on investigating the content of conversations or on the perceptions parents’ have about how they communicate (Akers, Schwarz, Borrero & Corbie-Smith, 2010; Wilson, Dalberth, Koo, & Gard, 2010; Guilamo-Ramos, Dittus, Jaccard, Goldberg, Casillas & Bouris, 2006). There has not been any research conducted as it relates to parents’ perceptions of teenage pregnancy. One study has explored preteen parents’ perception about communication. In Parents’ Perspectives on Talking to Preteenage Children About Sex, the authors did a qualitative study of parents of preteens and explored their perspectives of communication about sex (Wilson, Dalberth, Koo, & Gard, 2010). In their study, the authors found key factors parents perceive as barriers to communication with their preteen children (Wilson et al., 2010). The authors make a call for further research needed in the field of parents’ perspectives, particularly as it relates to parents of teenagers beyond the age of 13. The authors also indicate further research is needed to explore differences in perspectives across different groups (Wilson et al., 2010). This current dissertation will attempt to address the gaps Wilson, Dalberth, Koo, & Gard (2010) have identified, specifically as it relates to the perceptions of urban Latino/a parents with children in a public high school and perceptions as antecedents to communication. Recommendations for further research in the field of adolescent pregnancy and parents’ perceptions of teen pregnancy will be addressed in the final chapter of this study.
Statement of the Problem

The U.S. Department of Health and Human Services Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) lists the reduction of pregnancies among adolescent females as a critical health objective for adolescents (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2000). The target goal of the CDC’s *Healthy People 2010* initiative was to reduce teen pregnancies to 43.0 per 1,000 by the year 2010, down from the baseline of 68.0 per 1,000 in 1996 (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2000). Although there were gains made toward the 2010 target, the U.S. has one of the highest pregnancy rates in comparison to other industrialized nations (Flanigan, 2001; Hoffman, 2006). Recent literature suggests after 15 years of steady decline, teen birth rates are now on the rise once again (Kost, Henshaw, & Carlin, 2010).

It is conservatively estimated that births to teen parents cost taxpayers $9.1 billion annually in health care, foster care, incarcerations of children of teen parents, public assistance, and includes the costs related to lower earnings of teen parents and their adult children (Hoffman, 2006). Although many disadvantages may exist before a teenage pregnancy occurs, factors such as school failure, single parenthood, and poverty are compounded and perpetuated in families with teenage parents. Recent research on children of teen parents found lower levels of basic school readiness skills in children of adolescent mothers (Terry-Humen, Manlove, & Moore, 2005; Troccoli, 2006). Research has also found children of teen parents have lower scores on cognitive tests and Latino and African American children of teen parents have lower vocabulary test scores (Levine, Pollack, & Comfort, 2001; Terry-Human et al., 2005). Although there may be
multiple reasons for this correlation, teen pregnancy often has negative consequences for teens and their children.

Significance of the Problem

According to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (Adolescent Reproductive Health: Teen Pregnancy, 2007), over the past decade, the U.S. as a whole has seen a significant decrease in teen pregnancy rates. This is consistent with findings from the Guttmacher Institute that the U.S. teen pregnancy rate has decreased 36% overall from 1990 to 2002 (Guttmacher Institute, 2006). Kost et al., (2010) findings indicate between 2005 and 2006, the rate of teen pregnancies increased by 3 percent. However, there is some hope the trends are starting to improve once again for all teens, given that between 2007 and 2008, the birth rate for all teens ages 15-19 decreased (Center for Disease Control and Prevention, 2010). For White and African American girls between the ages of 15 and 18, the birth rate decreased by 2% from 2007 to 2008, while it decreased 5% for Latina teens girls in the same age range (Center for Disease Control and Prevention, 2010).

Although there have been improvements in the prevention of teen pregnancies, there continues to be a disparity between the teen pregnancy rate of white America versus that of African Americans and Latinos (Adolescent Reproductive Health: Teen Pregnancy, 2007; Guttmacher Institute, 2006; Hamilton et al, 2006). Overall the pregnancy rate for teenage girls has declined. However, African Americans andLatinas have a pregnancy rate well above the national average. In 2005, Latina girls between the ages of 15 - 19 had a pregnancy rate of 125 per 1,000 and African American girls had a
rate of 123 per 1,000. In contrast, White teenage girls had a pregnancy rate of 43 per 1,000 (Kost, et al, 2010). This indicates Latina and African American girls are more than twice as likely to become pregnant than their White peers.

_School Psychology, Culture and Teen Pregnancy_

Parents play an important but often overlooked role in the prevention of teenage pregnancies. Although early research provided conflicting results in terms of parental impact on teen pregnancy, recent research studies have indicated parents have a significant influence over their child’s decision to have sex (Dittus, Jaccard & Gordon, 1999; Dittus, Miller, Kotchick & Forehand, 2004; Jaccard, Dodge & Dittus, 2002; Troccoli, 2006). The research overwhelmingly indicates parental communication with their children impacts the onset of sexual activity and pregnancy (Dittus, Jaccard & Gordon, 1999; Dittus, Miller, Kotchick & Forehand, 2004; Jaccard, Dodge & Dittus, 2002). In addition, several research studies have found the most effective programs and curriculum to prevent adolescent pregnancy and risky sexual behaviors are those which include a parental component (Kirby, 2001; Manlove, Franzetta, McKinney, Romano-Papillo & Terry-Humen, 2003; Solomon & Card, 2004).

Consulting with parents from diverse cultures about teen pregnancy prevention is aligned with the research literature in the field of school psychology. Schaughency & Ervin (2006) indicates “literature across the child-serving professions call for adoption of evidence-based interventions within a public health framework. To do so requires further consideration of the context and systems in which service delivery occurs” (p.163). This holds true when developing sound pregnancy prevention initiatives in diverse
populations. This current study contributes to the field of school psychology by shedding light on Latino/a parents’ perceptions of pregnancy.

Sheridan (2000) states each family is unique in terms of its ethnic heritage, level of acculturation, socioeconomic status, language practices, belief systems, religious and life-style orientation, number and ability levels of members, and involvement with extended family members. Given that there are many variables when consulting with parents from minority backgrounds, there is much work to be done in the field of multicultural consultation as it relates to teen pregnancy prevention. Current and historical literature in the field of school psychology views the school psychologists’ role as being “to understand and improve the realities of children, families, schools, and society” (Schaughency & Ervin, 2006). According to the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP), comprehensive sex education should include an approach which considers cultural implications in pregnancy prevention and recognizes the importance of parental involvement in such efforts (NASP Position Statement on Sexuality Education, 2003). School psychology researchers have long recognized the need for cultural competence in order to positively impact schools, students and their families, particularly as it relates to consultation with key stakeholders. For school psychologists who work with families and communities in the prevention of teen pregnancy, they must first understand the perceptions and attitudes parents have about teen pregnancy.

**Research Questions**

Considering that parents play an important role in adolescent pregnancy prevention, and considering the sharp contrasts in the decline of teen pregnancy rates
among Latino/as in comparison with other cultural groups, this research study sheds light on the nature of how parents perceive adolescent pregnancy and parental communication about teen pregnancy.

The goal of this study was to answer the following two questions:

1. What are some of the variables that influence how Latino/a parents of high school students at an urban school perceive teen pregnancy?
2. How do perceptions of teen pregnancy influence how Latino/a parents of high school students at an urban school communicate with their children about adolescent pregnancy?

**Conceptual Framework and Phenomenology**

The conceptual framework for this current study is described by Jaccard, Dodge, & Dittus (2002) in *Parent-adolescent Communication About Sex and Birth Control: A Conceptual Framework*. This conceptual framework draws from Bandura’s social learning theory, Frishbein and Ajzen’s theory of reasoned action and Triandis’s theory of subjective culture. Core variables in this two-part conceptual framework are illustrated in the following chapter. The first part of this framework is a model of immediate determinants of behavior, and the second part models the determinants of a person’s intention to perform a behavior (Jaccard et al., 2002). This framework was used to conceptualize the constructs that are under investigation in this current study: parents’ perceptions.

Given that the goal of this study is to provide a practical understanding of parental perceptions that may influence teen pregnancy, qualitative methods will be used. Specifically, a phenomenological approach will be used in the form of focus group
discussions in order to obtain a contextual understanding of parents’ perceptions and attitudes toward teen pregnancy. Further discussion on the conceptual framework and the qualitative methodological approach to this study will be addressed in subsequent chapters.

**Definition of Terms**

1. Teen pregnancy rate – pregnancies accounting for births, abortions and miscarriages per 1,000 teenage females ages 15-19 (The Guttmacher Institute, 2006).

2. Birth rate – live births as a result of a pregnancy per 1,000.


**Summary**

This chapter has stated the purpose of the current dissertation, which is to investigate Latino/a parents’ perceptions of teen pregnancy and communication with children related to pregnancy prevention. This chapter has also stated the research questions of the current study, how it relates to cultural differences, as well as the theoretical framework. Additionally, this chapter discussed research related to statistics on teen pregnancy and the outcomes of adolescent pregnancy. The need for more research related to minority settings and parents’ perceptions of teen pregnancy was explored. The following chapter will provide a review of the literature related teen pregnancy, teen pregnancy in Latino/a settings and links between parent-child
communication and adolescent pregnancy.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a literature review of teen pregnancy prevention and parent-adolescent communication, particularly in Latino/a communities. The chapter will begin by examining the impact of teen pregnancy and related prevention programs. A review of research on parental influence and parental communication is discussed. In addition, a review of research related to cross-cultural studies of Latino/a and African American adolescent pregnancy will be provided. This chapter will end with a detailed discussion regarding the theoretical focus of this current study. This chapter will discuss the need for qualitative methods in studying parental perceptions and attitudes towards adolescent pregnancy. This literature review will illustrate gaps in previous research that warrant the need for this present qualitative study as it pertains to antecedents to parental communication about teen pregnancy and its cross-cultural implications.

Impact of Teen Pregnancy

Teen pregnancy rates are directly impacted by particular social issues. These social issues can be grouped into five distinct categories that include: poverty, workforce development, out of wedlock births, positive child development and the role of the father in responsible child rearing (National Campaign to Prevent Teen Pregnancy, 2002). Teen
pregnancy rates have decreased. However, this should not be interpreted as an indicator that this problem has been resolved or its reduction can be sustained. The United States has the highest rates of teen pregnancy in the industrialized world with 40% of young girls becoming pregnant at least once before their 20th birthday (National Campaign to Prevent Teen Pregnancy, 2002). Seventy nine percent of teen births are out of wedlock, which greatly differs from thirty years ago when the vast majority of teen pregnancies were within a marriage. Recent studies reveal the overall reduction in teen pregnancy rates across the United States masks the dramatic increases in specific geographic areas and particular racial, ethnic and social-economic groups (National Campaign to Prevent Teen Pregnancy, 2002).

According to the National Campaign to Prevent Teen Pregnancy publication, Partners in Progress: The Education Community and Preventing Teen Pregnancy (2001b), community-based policies must address the social needs of young adolescents and provide them with the necessary support systems and resources. In this publication, the authors argue support systems should be in the form of outreach programs which provide positive reinforcement for young people who want to avoid the five distinct categories of social issues that can lead to teen pregnancy. The authors also state poverty reduction is essential in preventing teen pregnancy because it serves as a primary cause and subsequent consequence that sustain a cycle of welfare dependency (National Campaign to Prevent Teen Pregnancy, 2001b). Educational opportunities, workforce development programs and school systems with strong extracurricular activities can help teenagers offset the social conditions caused by systemic poverty in their communities.
Prevention programs should also focus on the well being and positive development of all young children to reduce the generational cycle of teen pregnancy. For example the daughters of teen parents are 22 percent more likely to become teen mothers themselves (National Campaign to Prevent Teen Pregnancy, 2001b). The implications of a generational cycle of teen pregnancy can increase the risk of relegating these children to a permanent economic and social underclass. Children of teen mothers perform significantly worse than those born to older parents. They are 50 percent more likely to repeat a grade and are less likely to complete high school than the children of older mothers. Children of teen parents have lower performance scores on standardized tests and are 13 percent more likely to end up in prison (National Campaign to Prevent Teen Pregnancy, 2002; Guttmacher Institute, 2006).

Another implication of teen pregnancy is the dysfunctional relationship that frequently occurs between the father and child. The long term effects are dramatic because children who live apart from their fathers are five times more likely to be poor than children with both parents at home. Over two decades of research has shown a strong relationship with both a mother and father is an important influence on whether young children themselves will become pregnant as teenagers (National Campaign to Prevent Teen Pregnancy, 2002; Guttmacher Institute, 2006).

**Teen Pregnancy Prevention Programs**

The most effective prevention programs are those grounded in solid theoretical models. Saudner (2005) and Kirby (2001) found in evaluating teen pregnancy prevention programs, those most effective had theoretical models that focused on four areas of
development, perceived control, attitudes/intentions and social learning. Educational development is one area that can have a dramatic effect on reducing teen pregnancy rates. There is a strong correlation between success in school and teen pregnancy. Educators, community based agencies and parents can develop and implement programs which can effectively assist teenagers in creating a positive environment which deters teen pregnancy. Some examples include setting high standards for all children and forging partnerships with organizations that encourage youth to participate in creating their own programs. This promotes a youth development model which engages teenagers to create a positive environment that can seek advice and information on various issues of sexuality (National Campaign to Prevent Teen Pregnancy, 2001b).

Pregnancy prevention policies must be flexible enough to acknowledge the need to eliminate or modify particular programs which are ineffective (National Campaign to Prevent Teen Pregnancy, 2001b). Kirby (2001) evaluated experimental or quasi-experimental adolescent prevention programs completed between 1980 and 2000. Kirby (2001) found the most effective pregnancy prevention programs focused on sexual and non-sexual risk factors had particular characteristics. These characteristics focused on reducing sexual behaviors reinforced through abstinence and condom use. Teachers were well trained and fully invested in the programs. These programs created a classroom environment where positive open communication was encouraged to address social pressures related to teenage sexual behavior. These theoretical approaches were also age and culturally appropriate and encouraged teen participation (Kirby, 2001). However, some studies indicated many abstinence-only programs showed no significant
improvements in adolescents’ decision-making. Some components showed significantly positive results for girls but not for boys (Manlove, Terry-Humen, Papillo, Franzetta, Williams & Ryan, 2002).

Until recently, most of the research related to teen pregnancy prevention focused on individual adolescent variables rather than on the context or environmental factors associated with teen pregnancy (Kirby, 2002; Kotchick, Shaffer, Forehand & Miller, 2001). In particular, Kotchick et al (2001) looked at how variables in the family, such as family structure, pay a role in teen sexual behavior. However, the Kotchick et al. research is limited in that the variables under study were related to family and social structure rather than parental attitudes and/or beliefs about adolescent sexual behavior (Kotchick et al., 2001).

Parental Influence and Parental Communication

There have been contradictory results as to the impact of parental communication on teen pregnancy (Jaccard & Dittus, 1996; Jaccard et al, 1998; Miller et al, 1999; Mueller & Powers, 1990). Early studies which found communication to have either no impact or negative impacts on adolescent sexual behaviors are limited in the sense that they typically relied only on adolescent self-reporting and/or looked at the amount and content of communication rather than the underlying parental perceptions and/or attitudes (Rosenthal, Feldman & Edwards, 1998; Jaccard and Dittus, 1991). For example, Rosenthal et al., (1998) described five categories of mother-child communication characteristics, including avoidant, opportunistic, reactive, child initiated and interactive. These descriptors are helpful in seeing different communication styles; however it
provided no insight into maternal attitudes about teen pregnancy prior to initiating communication with her child. Hence the need for this current research which explored parental attitudes and perceptions.

Early research suggests communication between parent and child must evolve over time because the adolescent period lasts over many years as the social abilities of the child develops and changes (Tanner, 1981). In addition, previous research has indicated parents are adolescents’ main source of information related to sexuality (Muller & Powers, 1990; Pick & Palos, 1995; Young et al, 1991). Teenagers obtain information on sexual behavior from various sources but often prefer parents as the primary educator (Handelsman, 1987). Early studies, however, reveal one third of adolescents indicated they have never discussed the issue of AIDS/HIV with their parents. The teenagers who had discussed AIDS/HIV seemed to have a level of miscommunication which had the parent focus on the medical consequences when the child was interested in the emotional and social consequences (Whalen, 1996). In addition, research has revealed a strong discrepancy between what parents perceived as communication about sexuality and the amount of communication adolescents actually report had taken place (Fox & Inazu, 1980; Jaccard & Dittus, 1993; Jaccard et al, 2002).

Prior studies have also suggested communication between parent and child should have a problem solving component. This allows families to communicate issues of sexual behavior through a set of rules and expectations which can resolve potential conflicts which may arise when a child becomes pregnant (Corcoran, 2001). The level of closeness between parent and child is also related to adolescent pregnancy. This, combined with
open and positive communication, increases the likelihood of abstinence, reduces the number of sexual partners and increases contraceptive use (Barnett, Papini & Gbur, 1991; Gupta, Weiss & Mane, 1996; Karofsky, Zeng & Kosovok, 2000; Miller 2001; Romer, 1999).

More recent research has found parents, in particular mothers, play an important role in preventing teen pregnancy if the adolescent perceives parental disapproval (Calhoun & Friel, 2001; Jaccard & Dittus, 1991.) This impact on adolescent sexual behavior, however, is regulated based on the quality of the parent-child relationship (Calhoun & Friel, 2001). Perceived maternal disapproval of sexual intercourse which includes a high level of connectedness and communication between mother and daughter can delay an adolescent’s first sexual experience (Blum, McNeely & Sieving, 2000). Other recent studies have found parents are able to provide more rational and reliable information on sexuality than their children and peers. Parents should be proactive in their communication on sexuality with their children regardless of the possible misinterpretations (Fitzharris & Werner-Wilson, 2004). Openness in communication on issues of adolescent sex in families can be construed as positive but its relevant meaning is determined by an individual family’s social and moral values and beliefs (Feldman, Kirkman & Rosenthal, 2005). In a study on parent-child communication, Eisenberg et al., (2006), conducted telephone surveys to study parent-child communication on various sex-related topics. The authors found parents tended to have sex-related communication with their child if the teen was romantically involved. The authors argue in delaying the communication until their teen is romantically involved, parents do not take advantage of
the early opportunity they have to influence their child’s behavior prior getting into a relationship (Eisenberg et al., 2006).

Today, most research indicates communication has some level of importance as a process that can indicate parental-child influences on the issues of sexuality (Feldman, Kirkman & Rosenthal, 2005). However, parents and their children may have a different interpretation on the amount and quality of communication which occurs on the issue of sexuality (Fitzharris & Werner-Wilson, 2004). Given these discrepancies on how parental communication influences teen sexual behavior, it is important to look at variables which may impact the type of communication that takes place. Differing immediate determinants of communication, that is to say perceptions and attitudes, will undoubtedly alter the content of the communication itself, which will further have an impact on how an adolescent responds (Jaccard et al., 2002).

In an experimental designed study which examined parental communication and influence, Lederman & Mian (2003) implemented a preteen pregnancy and sexually transmitted disease prevention curriculum. Results indicated communication between parent and child is dependent on the family’s value system and approach towards openly discussing issues of sexuality. Families with strong parental/child relationships based on trust, particularly mother/daughter, are more likely to choose abstinence, use contraceptive or limit sexual activity (Lederman & Mian, 2003). Successful teen pregnancy intervention programs cannot treat parent and child as two separate entities. Communication between some parents and children can be difficult on the issue of sexuality. However, teen pregnancy is ultimately a family issue which can only be
resolved based on their own specific value system and decision making process (Lederman & Mian, 2003). This current study has the potential to provide valuable information related to parent’s attitudes and perceptions about teen pregnancy. By looking at parents’ immediate determinants of communicative behavior related to teen pregnancy, we begin to understand how parental perceptions and attitudes impact adolescent sexual behaviors (Jaccard et al., 2002).

In terms of parents’ perceptions, Wilson, Dalberth, Koo, & Gard (2010) conducted 16 focus groups with 131 parents of preteenage (between the ages of 10 -12) children to examine their perspectives on the importance of sex-related communication with their preteen. After collecting all the combined focus group transcripts, four topics emerged from the data set: parents perceived sexual risk to their preteen; perceived benefits of talking about sex; perceived barriers in talking about sex; and factors which could facilitate talking about sex (Wilson, Dalberth, Koo, & Gard, 2010). The authors state further studies should gather research related to parental perspectives across different cultural groups. They also discuss the need for additional research on parents of teenaged youth (older than 12). Given that Wilson, Dalberth, Koo & Gard (2010) are suggesting additional research; this current dissertation addresses some of the suggestions provided by these authors.

_Latino/a Teen Pregnancy_

Latino/a teen pregnancy is affected by numerous social, cultural and economic factors which are primarily based on community and family. Low socio-economic status and lack of college preparedness in high school contributes to high teen pregnancy rates
for Latino adolescents. Latino/as have the highest dropout rate amongst all groups of high school students and lowest level of college enrollment. Lack of access to adequate health care prevents many Latino/a adolescents from getting into teen pregnancy prevention programs (Castro, 1999). Programs are needed to promote family relationships and communication on the issues of teen sexuality. Providing birth control as an option is crucial for Latino/a teenagers who may have been discouraged or forbidden to do so because of religious or family cultural reasons (Castro, 1999).

Sex education and teen pregnancy programs taught and implemented in high schools require some level of parental involvement. Wong & Hughes (2006) studied ethnic differences in parental involvement through parent and teacher questionnaires. The authors found Black parents had frequently more communications with their school staff on these and other issues than their Latino/a counterparts. Black parents’ involvement with their school tended to stem from a concern or distrust with a particular program or curriculum. The authors also found Latino/a parents tended to give more deference to the authority of the local school staff and did not get directly involved with school activities. However, language also plays a factor in this level of involvement. When English is the first language of a Latino/a parent, the level of school participation increases significantly (Wong & Hughes, 2006).

Some findings have indicated communication between mother and daughter on issues of sexual behavior differs between Black and Latino/a families (O’Sullivan, Meyer-Bahlburg & Watkins 2001). In a sample of 72 African American and Latina mothers and 72 daughters between the ages of 6-9 and 10-13, the participants took part of
focus group sessions about parent-child sex communication (O’Sullivan, Meyer-Bahlburg & Watkins 2001). Mothers of both groups initiated communication of sexual behavior with their daughters when they reached puberty. Mothers of both groups also communicated the dire consequences related to teen pregnancy and their sexual activity. The striking difference the authors found was Black mothers tended to focus on preventing pregnancy while Latina mothers tended to emphasize avoiding sexual contact altogether (O’Sullivan, Meyer-Bahlburg & Watkins 2001). However, both groups still tended to emphasize physical aspects of sexual activity and not the emotional and psychological ramifications. This study suggested young Black and Latina girls would be more candid about their sexuality if they consulted with a trusted older woman other than their mother (O’Sullivan, Meyer-Bahlburg & Watkins 2001). O’Sullivan, Meyer-Bahlburg & Watkins (2001) provide useful information about parent-child timing and content of sex communication, but this current dissertation study provides insight into Latino/a parents’ perception of teenage pregnancy prior to communication taking place.

More recent studies have also looked at the content and process of communication about sex in Latino families. Guilamo-Ramos, Dittus, Jaccard, Goldberg, Casillas, & Bouris (2006) conducted focus group interviews in New York City with 63 Latina mothers and their respective middle-school aged child (6th – 8th grade). The authors were interested in exploring the nature of Latino/a parent-child communication about sex (Guilamo-Ramos, Dittus, Jaccard, Goldberg, Casillas, & Bouris, 2006). The authors found the environment in which the children were being raised played a role in the mother-daughter conversations. The authors also found Latina mothers are more open to
discussing sex than previous literature has indicated (Guilamo-Ramos, et al., 2006). Similar to other studies, the authors were able to provide more insight related to the content and process of Latino mother-daughter communication about sex (Guilamo-Ramos et al., 2006). However, research is still needed to explore the antecedents to communication about sex. The antecedents to communication are an important aspect as it relates to Latino parents and this current dissertation will attempt to address this gap in the literature (Guilamo-Ramos, et al., 2006; Jaccard et al, 2002).

There are some studies related to communication about sex in African American families. In a study using focus group interviews to examine the sexual attitudes of African American adult women, the findings revealed Black women indicated a lack of substantive information on sexual education from their parents (Rouse-Arnett, & Long, 2006). The authors of the study suggested future research should relate to racial and cultural differences on attitudes toward sex (Rouse-Arnett, & Long, 2006). Although this current dissertation will not research differences on attitudes toward sex, it may shed light on the matter through looking at attitudes toward teen pregnancy that Latino/a parents have. Even with these perceived problems of a lack of sex education, Black pregnancy rates have declined significantly more than any other group (Martyn, Hutchinson, & Martin, 2001).

Akers, Schwarz, Borrero, & Corbie-Smith (2010) conducted a study related to African American parents’ and adolescent’s perspectives on communication about family planning. The authors investigated communication about sexual health topics through focus groups with African American parents and their adolescents, 15-17 years of age, in
Pennsylvania. Their study revealed several insightful themes as it relates to African American parents’ communication about sexual health and family planning. In particular, their study revealed parents had limited knowledge on contraceptives and parents help males get condoms more than females getting birth control (Akers, Schwarz, Borrero, & Corbie-Smith, 2010). In addition, of special interest as it relates to this current dissertation is the finding parents had negative attitudes about terminating a pregnancy (Akers et al., 2010). Although the authors did not expand on the topic or probe for parents perspectives toward teen pregnancy, this study comes close to examining the constructs under investigation in this current dissertation.

More important than what the research current shows us about Latino/a teen pregnancy is what the research has not been able to show us. Similar to research in general about parent communication and teen pregnancy, the research on Latino/as focuses on either the perception of communication that has taken place, or the content and process of the communication. There is a research gap as it relates to Latino/a parents’ perceptions of teenage pregnancy as antecedents to communication. This current study, through the use of focus group discussions, gives voice to those perceptions and attitudes, as well as to compare any cultural nuances which may emerge in the discussions. Once those perceptions and attitudes are revealed, appropriate adjustments and modifications can be made to prevention efforts targeting these respective populations.

*Theoretical Focus of this Current Study*

This literature review illustrates the development of adolescent pregnancy
prevention research necessitates a closer look at the antecedents to parental communication with their child about teen pregnancy. Given that much attention is paid to the content and context of parent-teen communication, it follows research should also explore the antecedents to the behavioral intention of such communication, what Jaccard et al., (2002) describes as the immediate determinants of a behavior.

In 1991, the National Institute of Mental Health hosted a week-long workshop with leading behavior theorists in an attempt to develop a common framework incorporated all the dominate theories of behavior change (Fishebein et al., 2001; Jaccard et al., 2002). Noted theorists, including, among others, Bandura, Fishbein, Triandis, and Becker participated in the NIMH sponsored workshop and developed a common conceptual framework which identifies a selected group of variables which influence behaviors (Fishebein et al., 2001; Jaccard et al., 2002). Previous behavioral models attempted to explain and predict behaviors with a number of variables, but the NIMH workshop brought about an integrated model of all variables in the leading theories, including Bandura’s social learning theory, Frishbein and Ajzen’s theory of reasoned action and Triandis’s theory of subjective culture (Fishebein et al., 2001; Jaccard et al., 2002).

The framework developed in the NIMH workshop is described by Jaccard et al., (2002) in *Parent-adolescent communication about sex and birth control: A conceptual framework*. This framework, developed by leading theorists at the NIMH workshop and described by Jaccard et al., (2002), will be the conceptual framework for this current dissertation. Other researchers have used this conceptual framework to study parent-child
communication about sex, communication about sexual risk behaviors, and the content and process about sex communication (Jerman & Constantine, 2010; Guilamo, et al, 2006; Guilamo-Ramos, Jaccard, Dittus & Bouris, 2006).

Jaccard et al. describes core variables in a two-part conceptual framework which can be used to analyze parent-adolescent communication about various topics related to sex, including teen pregnancy. The first part of this framework illustrates immediate determinants of behavior (Figure 1), and the second part (Figure 2) illustrates the determinants of a person’s intention and willingness to perform a behavior (Jaccard et al., 2002).

Figure 1. Immediate Determinates of Behavior

- Intention or decision to perform behavior
- Knowledge and skills for behavioral performance
- Environmental constraints
- Salience of behavior
- Habit and automatic processes
Jaccard, et al. encourages the use of their two-part conceptual framework because of its multiple layers of behavioral variables. Variables included in the Immediate Determinates of Behavior are intention, knowledge, environmental constraints, the relevance of the behavior, and the automaticity of the behavior (Jaccard et al., 2002). According to Jaccard, et al., these variables take on multifaceted interactions and become more complex when considering the Immediate Determinants of Behavioral Intentions, the second part of the framework. The determinants of a person’s desire and intent to carry out a behavior has six factors – including their attitude about a behavior, the social norms associated with the behavior, the beliefs about the behavior, the individual’s self concept in relation to the behavior, the affective reaction of the behavior, and the...
individual’s self efficacy in performing the behavior (Jaccard et al., 2002). This aspect of communicative behavior, the immediate antecedents of a decision to communicate with a child about teen pregnancy, is of central importance to this present study. In particular, parental attitudes and perceptions are the key concepts under investigation in this current study. By exploring Latino parents’ perceptions of teen pregnancy, this present study contributes to the body of knowledge which currently exists in the field, but has limited information on parental determinants of communicative behavior. If parents do not have the immediate determinants of behavioral intentions to carry out communication related to teen pregnancy with their child, the result will be either no communication about the topic or unclear messages to their child about pregnancy. Immediate determinants to communication with a child about teen pregnancy may even provide a context for parents to engage in conversations which do not necessarily discourage their child from becoming pregnant. For example, given that teen parents often have parents themselves which became pregnant during adolescence, their self-concept as a teen parent may prevent them from communicating with their child in a negative manner about adolescent pregnancy. Similarly, parents may have positive emotions related to their experience as a teen parent which prevent them from communication with their child in a way that discourages teen pregnancy.

The conceptual framework described by Jaccard et al. is the focus of this current study. This conceptual framework has been useful in the expansion of other modified theoretical frameworks used to create programs related to the prevention of sexually risky behaviors and include a parent component (Dittus, Miller, Kotchick & Forehand, 2004;
Jaccard et al., 2002). Each of the variables in the immediate determinants of behaviors intentions plays a critical role in how and why parents communicate with their child about adolescent pregnancy. The need to explore parents’ perceptions of teen pregnancy will shed light on parents’ intentions to engage in communication with their child. Parents’ attitudes about teen pregnancy, the social norms they perceive related to teen pregnancy, their beliefs and expectancies of such conversations, their self-concept and how it relates to adolescent pregnancy, as well as parental emotions and self-efficacy in carrying out communicative behaviors with their child all contribute to how the communication impacts actual teen pregnancy prevention.

This present study explores parents’ perceptions of teen pregnancy in relation to Jaccard et al., (2002) conceptual framework of immediate determinants of behavioral intentions. As described above, previous research has explored the content and process of parental communication, but there is a need to study what happens before this communication even takes place. Indeed, what are some of the attitudes and perceptions which parents carry with them related to adolescent pregnancy before they have the intention to communicate with their child on the subject? As discussed previously, similar studies have looked at how Latino/a families communicate about sex, but the focus was on the content and timing of the communication, rather than the antecedents to communication or parents perceptions of teen pregnancy (Dorsey, Miller & Kotchek, 1999; O’Sullivan, Meyer-Bahlburg, & Watkins, 2001). This present research explores Latino/a immediate determinants of behavioral intentions, specifically parents’ perceptions and attitudes.
Summary

This chapter has provided a discussion regarding the theoretical focus of the current study and the need to explore antecedents (perceptions and attitudes) to parental communication about adolescent pregnancy. Additionally, the need for qualitative methods was discussed. There was a discussion regarding research related to impact of teen pregnancy, as well as a review of the research related to pregnancy prevention programs. A literature review regarding the impact of parental communication as it relates to Latino/a parents illustrates the limited information we have related to the antecedents of communication and the need for this present study.
CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter will discuss the design, participants, setting, instrumentation, procedures and data analysis of the current study. This chapter will provide a rationale for the design of the current study and a description of the public high school setting in which the research was conducted. This chapter will also provide a detailed description of the development of the focus group questions. In addition, details regarding the translation of the focus group protocol will be provided. Finally, this chapter will discuss the data analysis procedures used to interpret the collected data.

Design

This current research study does not aim to test a hypothesis. Rather, the goal of this study is to give voice to Latino/a parents’ perceptions and attitudes toward adolescent pregnancy so that “structures and patterns relevant to the phenomenon under study” can come to light (Walker & Koroloff, 2007, p.445). A phenomenological approach, in the form of focus group discussions, is a fitting qualitative research method that allows this study to explore parental perceptions in a community which currently has a high rate of adolescent pregnancy in comparison with other communities. The goal of this research study was to explore the perceptions and attitudes of parents toward teen pregnancy. The use of focus groups as a research methodology has many benefits (Krueger, 1998;
Umana-Taylor & Bamaca, 2004). Focus groups typically allow the topic in question to be explored in more depth than quantitative methods (Krueger, 1998). In addition to the focus group format enabling a researcher to better understand people’s perceptions, feelings and thoughts about an issue, focus groups also identify trends and patterns in those perceptions (Krueger & Casey, 2000). This current study seeks to explore the nature of parents’ perceptions of teen pregnancy, and the use of a focus group format allowed the researcher to create an environment where parent participants shared their thoughts and perspectives.

Umana-Taylor & Bamaca (2004) argue focus groups are especially useful when working with Latino/a families. Focus groups can provide a nonthreatening setting where participants feel secure in sharing and where “respondents feel that they are the experts and that the researcher seeks to learn from them” (Umana-Taylor & Bamaca, 2004, p. 261). Krueger (1998) has also highlighted the fact that focus groups establish trust, something needed when conducting research with underrepresented populations. Given that this current study researched Latino/a parents, the use of focus groups was a fitting methodology which shed light on their perceptions of teen pregnancy, something previous research has not been able to do.

Qualitative procedures have been extremely beneficial when exploring the lives of young mothers (Edin & Kefalas, 2005). In Promises I Can Keep: Why Poor Woman Put Motherhood Before Marriage, the authors provide a unique point of view, that of unwedded, low income single mothers (Edin & Kefalas, 2005). Eden & Kefalas (2005) conducted interviews of 162 young mothers in Philadelphia and New Jersey to gain a
better understanding as to why they do not delay childbearing until after they are married. The information provided through the qualitative narratives has been exceptionally informative, particularly as it relates to participants’ values placed on childrearing, in comparison to their views of marriage (Edin & Kefalas, 2005). The dominant thought expressed in the media that poor unwedded mothers have some intrinsically negative quality or mindset can now be challenged with the themes which emerged from this qualitative study. The qualitative methods used to study young mothers’ perspectives in Edin & Kefalas (2005) underscore the usefulness of qualitative techniques as a productive, beneficial and useful method of gathering new information related to participants’ perceptions.

**Setting**

This research study was conducted at the School of Social Justice High School in Chicago’s west side. At the time of this study, the school had a total of 358 students. This high school is located in an urban setting within a Latino/a local community. The population is somewhat racially mixed, with 85% Latino and 15% African American, according to the 2011 Illinois School Report Card. There is a low-income rate of 97% and a limited-English proficiency rate of 9.4% at the high school where this study was conducted (2011 Illinois School Report Card). The school is on a campus of four additional small high schools that shares only certain areas and services within the larger campus. One of the services that the schools share is a common medical clinic which provides services to students and their families, including medical services for teen parents.
Recruitment of Participants

Participants for this study were parents with students enrolled in the School of Social Justice High School in Chicago, Illinois at the time of the focus group discussions. Parents were first recruited at the Spring, 2011 report card pick-up night. The researcher had a table located near the entrance of the school event so parents could see the recruitment table and voluntarily stop to obtain information about the study. At the recruitment table, the primary researcher provided parents with information about the research, goals of the research, methods of the research study, dates and times for the focus groups, as well as information on informed consent. Parents were told as a sign of appreciation for their voluntary participation in the focus group, the primary researcher would provide snacks and refreshments in the form of chips, cookies and juice. Parents were also told if they voluntarily agree to be part of the upcoming focus groups, they could select one of the dates in which to participate in the focus group and were asked to provide their contact information for the primary researcher to make a follow-up phone call to them as a reminder of the date and time for the focus group discussion. The attached Appendix A is the recruitment letter given to interested parents. An informed consent form was provided for the participants at the beginning of each focus group session. Please see Appendix C for the informed consent form.

Less than the targeted number of participants volunteered to take part after the first recruitment attempt, so three subsequent recruitment dates took place, two in the summer of 2011 and one in the fall of 2011, where the same recruitment procedures described above were followed.
For confidentiality purposes, all material related to this research, including parental contact information, the focus group discussion audio tape recording, transcriptions and translations of the discussions, as well as notes from each focus group session, were kept in a locked file cabinet located at the primary researcher’s home. This locked file cabinet was inaccessible to any individual other than the primary researcher. All related computer files were stored in a password protected computer. All related materials were destroyed after completion of this dissertation.

Participants

This study involved three focus groups, with a total of nine participants. There were four participants in the first focus group, three in the second focus group, and two participants in the third discussion. Although every effort was made to recruit both fathers and mothers in the focus groups, all of the participants were mothers. Six of the participants were Spanish dominant and three of the participants were English dominant. The three native English speakers indicated they were bilingual and indicated they had native-like proficiency in Spanish. Two focus groups were conducted in Spanish with minimum translation needed, and the third focus group was conducted in English. The mothers that participated had varying number and ages of children. Please see Table 1 for a description of the participants.

Focus Groups

Procedures described by Krueger & Casey (2000) and Auerbach and Silverstein (2003) were used for planning, recruiting, moderating and analyzing the focus group discussions. Permission was granted from School of Social Justice High School’s
principal to recruit and conduct the focus groups for this current study. For this study, parents were recruited to participate in a focus group discussion at a parent school event. Those parents which agreed at the time of recruitment to participate in the research study were provided with time and date options for participation in the focus groups. They received a follow-up telephone call to remind them of the time and date of the focus group discussions. Careful attention was placed on the cultural implications of conducting focus groups in diverse settings (Umana-Taylor, & Bamba, 2004). As a gesture of hospitality, participants were provided with snacks and refreshments (Umana-Taylor, & Bamba, 2004).

Each focus group session had a script, as recommended by Krueger & Casey (2000). Appendix B provides a copy of the exact script and focus group question used for each of the three focus group sessions. The script included a brief welcome, a general overview of the topic to be discussed, a description of the topic, guidelines and ground rules for participation, an introductory question, a transition question, and a closing question (Krueger & Casey, 2000). Participants were be assigned a number to protect confidentiality. Focus group questions asked information related to parents’ perceptions of teenage pregnancy, parents’ perceptions of pregnancy prevention, and parents’ perception of communication with their children regarding pregnancy. Audio recording of the focus group discussions were transcribed and translated. Following the transcription, emerging themes from the discussions were described and analyzed using methods described by Auerbach & Silverstein (2003), in a process described later in this chapter.
In the summer of 2005, the Cook County Department of Public Health was in the process of implementing a teen pregnancy prevention program at Morton East High School in Cicero, IL. At that same time, the primary researcher of this dissertation was in the initial stages of developing questions related to parents’ perceptions of adolescent pregnancy. The goals of the pregnancy prevention program were to increase sexual literacy, develop skills, and build self-efficacy and social support networks of both youth and parents, while the goal of the primary researcher was to develop a survey related to parents’ perceptions of teen pregnancy as part of a dissertation. As part of the implementation process, key staff collaborated in the development of questions for parent focus groups with the intention of tailoring the program in a culturally appropriate and acceptable manner. The set of focus group questions went through several revisions, based on the input of all the key professionals collaborating on the process. At that time, two focus groups were conducted with parents and the focus group questions were revised to address issues that arose during the discussions. The focus group questions developed at that time have been modified for use in this current study. Please see Appendix A for the focus group script and questions.

Krueger & Casey (2000) indicate focus group questions should yield as much useful information as possible. Questions should be open-ended rather than close-ended and seek information about the attributes and influences of the phenomenon under study (Krueger & Casey, 2000). Focus group scripts should include an opening question, an introductory question, a transition question, a key question and ending question (Krueger
Given that some of the participants will be Spanish speakers, the focus group questions will be translated in order to maximize their involvement in the discussions (Umana-Taylor, & Bamaca, 2004). There are several challenges a researcher faces when the need for translation arises. In an attempt to circumvent the difficulties with translations, many researchers have excluded non-English speaking populations from their research (Carroll, 2001; Hill & Moreno, 2001; Hunt & Bhopah, 2003). At a minimum, researchers should attempt to use translating techniques in order to provide more precise research findings by including as much diversity as possible in their sample population. Given that the vast majority of the participants in the Latino/a focus groups were either be native Spanish speakers or first generation English speakers with varying degrees of bilingualism, coupled with the fact that the primary research was simultaneously translated the conversations as needed, both Spanish speaking and English speaking participants were in the same Latino/a focus group sessions. Table 1 lists a description of the focus group participant language characteristics, as well as the ages of the participants’ children.
Table 1. Focus Group Participant Characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Focus Group and Participant Number</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Native Language</th>
<th>Number of Children</th>
<th>Age of Children</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group 1 Participant 1</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 1 Participant 2</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16, 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 1 Participant 3</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>17, 16, 10, 7, 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 1 Participant 4</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20, 18, 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 2 Participant 5</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>22, 20, 18, 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 2 Participant 6</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20, 19, 18, 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 2 Participant 7</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>21, 16, 13, 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 3 Participant 8</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15, 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 3 Participant 9</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20, 14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Translation of the first set of focus group questions was developed in collaboration with professionals from the school-based medical clinic at Morton East High School. The focus groups questions revised for this study used double translations, also called back-translation, to translate the questions. This approach requires two or more translators to independently translate the instrument (McGorry, 2000; Carroll, 2001). The first translator used the original focus group questions and translated them into the target language, Spanish. The second translator used the already translated focus group questions and, in turn, translated it back to the original language. These two versions of the same set of questions were then compared and subsequently translated.
further for more accuracy. In terms of the content of each question, there were no inconstancies noted between the two versions. Minor changes were needed to the original translated set of focus group questions, primarily related to grammatical errors.

**Data Analysis**

Krueger and Casey (2005) offer several techniques which can be used to analyze the results of the focus group questions. During the focus groups discussion, there was a tape recording of the conversation. The moderator took notes during the focus group discussion related to the participants’ seating, gender, native language and overall disposition (Krueger, 1998). The moderator also took notes on first interpretations immediately after each focus group (Krueger & Casey, 2000). The tape recorded focus group discussion were transcribed and translated by the primary researcher.

Subsequently, the transcribed recordings were categorized by emerging themes (Auerbauch & Silverstein, 2003; Krueger, 1998). The words used by the participants, any triggering stimulus sparked by a response from a participant, and any “big ideas” that emerged from the discussions were analyzed and compared (Auerbauch & Silverstein, 2003; Krueger & Casey, 2000). The frequency and intensity of participants’ statements, as well as any internal inconsistencies, were analyzed (Kruger & Casey, 2000).

Data sets were coded by using techniques described by Auerbauch & Silverstein (2003). Auerbauch & Silverstein (2003) indicate five key steps are needed in coding data sets. These steps include: 1. Documenting relevant text; 2. Identifying repeating ideas; 3. Identification of themes; 4. Emergence of theoretical constructs, and 5. Developing theoretical narratives (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003). In step 1 (documenting relevant
text), the researcher read through each focus group discussion transcript in order to locate any relevant text related to the research questions.

Step 2 (identifying repeating ideas) required the identification of similar relevant text by two or more of the focus group participants. This procedure required sorting and grouping the entire set of transcriptions, as well as grouping repeating relevant text until the entire set of transcriptions could provide no more additional relevant texts. Each group of repeating ideas was given a descriptor of the combined text. Upon completing the identification of repeating ideas, in step 3 (identification of themes), a master list was created that lists all of the repeating ideas. This master list identified common themes which emerged from repeating ideas in step 2. Step 4 (emergence of theoretical constructs), involved organizing groups of themes by a thorough comparison of each of the themes identified in step 3. Each of the themes related to one another were combined to create a theoretical construct. In step 5 (developing theoretical narratives), the previous steps 1-4 were used to bring coherence to the entire process of data analysis. In this final step, actual quotes from the transcriptions were used to bring to life the participants subjective experiences (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003).

Upon completing the final steps in coding and developing theoretical narratives, the data sets of Latino/a parents were compared to the conceptual framework of this study (Jaccard et al., 2002). The transcriptions of each set of focus group sessions were analyzed to determine if any of the discussions shed light on parents’ immediate determinants of behavioral intentions to carry out communication with their child about teen pregnancy. The theoretical narratives were used to see if there was any indication of
parents’ perceptions which may impact the type and content of communication they have with their teen. The transcriptions of the discussions, how parents experienced teen pregnancy in their youth, what they feel the advantages and disadvantages are in teen pregnancy, why parents communicate with their child about teen pregnancy, as well as what factors parents feel influence teens to become pregnant, were all evaluated in conjunction with the conceptual framework of this study.

*Researcher Bias*

It is critical for qualitative researchers to be aware of the biases they bring to the table. In terms of researcher bias in this current study, there were indeed some background assumptions that I had prior to this research. Having worked with teen parents in the past, I expected to hear stories or perspectives related to how some parents encourage a pregnancy at an early age. I also anticipated hearing about issues of abuse and domestic violence as it relates to teen pregnancy. These prior background assumptions were ones that I was aware of and made a point not to lead the participants in the direction of those topics. Had I lead the participants to those topics, rather than waiting for participant perceptions to emerge, it would have altered the results.

Additionally, the use of an auditor to help in double checking the data is useful in making sense of the coding and results of the principal investigator. However, there were unsuccessful attempts at recruiting an auditor for this study. As a result, this current study did not incorporate an auditor or second reader, which is a limitation to this study. Future research that is similar in nature should address this issue by having a second reader as an auditor for the data.
Summary

This chapter discussed the design, participant recruitment, setting, instrumentation, procedures and data analysis of the current study. This chapter also gave an overview of the qualitative methodological design of the current study and a description of the setting in which the research was conducted. This chapter also provided information on the development of the survey and the translation of the instrument, as well as a description of the focus group question development.
CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

The overall purpose of this study was to shed light on the nature of how Latino/a parents whose children attend an urban public school perceive adolescent pregnancy and communication about teen pregnancy. The research questions addressed were the following:

1. What are some of the variables that influence how Latino/a parents of high school students at an urban school perceive teen pregnancy?

2. How do perceptions of teen pregnancy influence how Latino/a parents of high school students at an urban school communicate with their children about adolescent pregnancy?

The following chapter will provide the results of the focus group discussions as it relates to the research questions and as those findings relate to the theoretical framework presented in Figure 2 Immediate Determinants of Behavioral Intentions. Qualitative analyses methods described by Auerbach and Silverstein (2003) were used to identify repeating ideas found in the raw text, as well as to identify themes and develop theoretical constructs. Repeating ideas and themes were categorized and organized according to the two research questions under study. A figure for each question is presented in this chapter (Figure 3 and Figure 4). Each repeating idea, theme and theoretical construct is presented in this chapter, followed by selected theoretical
narratives. Theoretical narratives were used to provide a context for the theoretical constructs. The subsequent chapter five will elaborate on the theoretical constructs in relation to the theoretical framework presented in chapter two, as well as provide a discussion of the limitations of this study and recommendations for further study.

A total of twelve repeating ideas, four themes and two theoretical constructs emerged that related to the first research question. For the second research question, a total of nine repeating ideas, four themes and two theoretical constructs emerged. Figure 3 and Figure 4 list all of the theoretical constructs, themes and repeating ideas that came about in the focus group discussions. The following sections describe the data that led to the emergence of the models depicted in these figures.
Figure 3. Theoretical Constructs, Themes, and Repeating Ideas for Research Question 1

What are some of the variables that influence how Latino/a parents of high school students at an urban school perceive teen pregnancy?

I. Teen pregnancy has negative implications
   A. Limits in Life
      1. “Stuck”
      2. Limits access to education
      3. Economic difficulties
      4. Forced to grow up too fast
      5. Grandparents raise grandchildren
   B. Social Isolation
      1. Peer avoidance of teen parent
      2. Bad influence
      3. Shame and gossip

II. Desire for autonomy and admiration
   A. “To get out of the house”
      1. Not happy at home
      2. “Playing house”
   B. Admiration
      1. “Dare devil”
      2. Strength/resilience

Note: The title following the Roman numerals represent the theoretical constructs. Themes are the titles next to the capital letters. Repeating ideas are numbered under the listed themes.
Research Question One Themes

The first research question under study was: What are some of the variables that influence how Latino/a parents of high school students at an urban school perceive teen pregnancy? Participants were asked the following group of questions during the focus group to answer the first research question: (1) When you were a young adult, did you know of any other teens that were pregnant or parents? What were your thoughts at that time about that? How have your thoughts changed or stayed the same?, (2) How do you feel about teen pregnancy? What do you think about teens having children?, (3) What are the advantages and disadvantages of teen pregnancy?, (4) Why do you think teens become pregnant? What factors may influence why teens become pregnant? What factors may influence why teens do not become pregnant?

Question 1 - Theme 1: Limits in Life

All of the participants in each focus group expressed that teen pregnancy entails limits in life in general. These limits are in educational attainment, economics, and being forced to grow up to fast, among other repeating ideas. Interestingly enough, each of the focus groups had at least one participant that was a teen parent herself. For many participants, they were speaking from first-hand experience of the difficulties they encountered as a teen parent. There was also one participant who was a grandparent of a teen which she had custody of and was now raising both her teen grandson and his infant son. Thus, she spoke of her past and current situation as a teen parent years ago, now raising her son who is himself a teen parent.
“Stuck”

The repeating idea of being “stuck” was expressed by all the participants. They expressed the concern that a teen’s life stagnates when they become pregnant. Participants indicated that when a teen becomes pregnant, the teen life is essentially over and they have to take an adult role. The first focus group participants all agreed with the following sentiment:

I think that it is not a good thing because they get stuck in life. They can no longer do what they would have been able to do. (2)

Similarly, the notion that teen parents are stuck in life also came up in the second and third focus groups. For example, Participant #6 said:

I think it is a mistake on their part, right. Because it is part of their life that gets stuck a bit. If they had plans to continue studying, well it won’t be the same. They have to dedicate time to study, but can’t because of the child. (6)

Added Participant #8:

Getting pregnant not only will make her stuck in life, but also him, stuck. In other words, we have to force them to see things. (8)

Limits to education

Participants indicated that having a child at a young age is a barrier to finishing school. Parents expressed the need for continuing an education, but that having a child makes it harder, if not impossible. Each group repeated the idea that young parents have to abandon their education in order to get a job. In the following quote, one parent talked about her own struggles with not being able to complete her schooling:

I couldn’t study. I had to dedicate my life to my child…I couldn’t move ahead. I had to dedicate my life to the kids and I couldn’t finish my education. (3)
Another participant in that same group related her experience of telling her daughter about not being able to finish school in the following quote:

I tell her if you are going to school and you end up pregnant, it’s all over for what you wanted to do in life, think about it. (2)

Subsequent focus group participants also expressed the loss of an education due to an early pregnancy:

They lose so much. They lose their education because they had a family early in life. And that’s what I told my boy, and now he says, ‘Grandma, why didn’t I listen to you, you knew what you were talking about.’ (7)

Added Participant #9:

Obviously, you want to prevent it from happening because it just makes things harder, harder for people to go to school and go to college. (9)

Economic difficulties

Economic difficulties refers to the repeated theme of poverty, low paying jobs and the difficulty youth have in obtaining a sustainable income. Participants expressed that the need for financial stability trumps continuing an education. Coupled with that is the regret some participants expressed in not being able to finish their own education because they had to get a job. Participants talked about the reality that young people do not earn enough money, as illustrated in the following quotes:

It’s even harder now because jobs do not pay much. Even if you are working, you are paying this bill and that bill. And when you are young, they give you like only four hours of work. (4)

A participant from the second group noted:

It impacts everyone in the family, because a 16 year old boy is not going to earn enough to support a family, times are hard. (6)
Perhaps the one quote that encapsulates what participants were expressing about economic difficulties is from the third focus group:

> It about economics…when you got parents that are poor, you know, you just got more problems. You have more personal problems, more money problems; you have less time to really be there for your kids.” (8)

_Forced to grow up too fast_

The repeated idea of being forced to grow up too fast refers to having more responsibilities as a result of a teen pregnancy. The participants repeatedly expressed a loss of youth associated with a teen pregnancy, as well as having to become more responsible in a short amount of time. Participants also expressed no longer being able to enjoy youthful activities when a teen pregnancy occurs. This idea was expressed by a participant from the first focus group as she spoke about her teen parent grandson:

> I see him playing in basketball. He is still like a boy. He is a boy living the life, an adult life. And it hurts as a parent to see them now suffering. (4)

Similarly, Participant #9 expressed growing up too fast as a disadvantage:

> I know the struggles, it’s not something that I like to see…that can be a disadvantage, not having your youth, I mean, you have to grow up quickly.” (9)

Participant #8 added:

> I think the biggest disadvantage it that they have to grow up really fast, they may not finish school because they have to work, they have to manage a lot of things. (8)

_Grandparents raising grandchildren_

Grandparents raising grandchildren was a repeated theme in each focus group. Participants expressed concern that it is now often the grandparent who has to raise children. Participants also said that when they communicate with their child about teen
pregnancy, they warn them that they will not take responsibility for their grandchild, even if they would in reality. Participants saw it as a challenge and struggle for grandparents to be raising grandchildren, after having already raised their own children, as expressed in the following selected quotes:

We are still struggling, now you see the majority of grandparents are the ones taking care of the grandchildren. (4)

Similarly, Participant #7 shared the notion of grandparents taking responsibility for the grandchild:

Now the young girls, they have not lived anything. They have their baby and they leave them to be cared for by their mother. So they go out to party with friends, they want to keep going out. Even if you tell them you are not going to take care of the baby, they just leave the baby with you and leave. And well the grandmother no longer has any choice but to take care of the child. It’s like they don’t care about their child at that age, because they want to do things with friends. (7)

Participant #9 indicated:

One disadvantage, the kids, they might be raised by grandparents and that’s never a good sign. (8)

**Question 1 - Theme 2: Social Isolation**

Social isolation refers to teen parents as being avoided by peers, seen as a bad influence and generally gossiped about. Participants recalled how teen parents were treated when they were young and how youth are discouraged from hanging around teen parents for fear that they may end up pregnant as well. Shame was associated with a teen pregnancy.

Peer avoidance of teen parent
Peer avoidance of teen parents refers to the repeated idea of adolescent parents being avoided. Participants also expressed the notion that a teen mother was a trouble maker or wild-child. One parent recalled how not only did other students withdraw from her, but she withdrew herself from others also.

I would avoid her. She was a trouble maker and was with a lot of guys. When she came up pregnant, I would avoid her. I would tell myself that if she talked so much to guys, and she was always around guys, she was bad. (1)

One participant spoke of the peer avoidance as it related to her life as a teen parent:

I felt awkward…kids kind of withdrew from me because of it, I guess it was kind of weird thing at the time…I felt like everyone was talking about me, so maybe I kind of withdrew myself from people. (9)

**Bad Influence**

Participants indicated that teen parents were viewed as bad influences. They indicated that they avoided teen parents because of fear that they may become like the teen parent. Participants agreed with the following statements:

It was hard for the person, who was pregnant, and more so if you wanted to hang out with them, you could not hang out with them because they may give you the wrong idea and you end up pregnant too. (5)

Similarly, Participant #6 added:

They were seen as bad influences, they saw her like one of those people who liked the dark life.” (6)

**Shame and gossip**

Shame and gossip was discussed in each of the groups. Parents indicated that there was substantial gossip when a teen pregnancy occurred and that it was considered a big deal. The gossip was associated with shaming the teen parent, as well as fear of
being shamed. Participant #1 recalled what people would say about a teen mother behind her back:

   People said she would go to the discos, she would be making trouble at night, and then she ended up pregnant and then she was all scared. (1)

Similarly, Participant #5 indicated that teen mothers were gossiped about:

   It was a big deal. Well back then it was like ‘Oh my God, this girl is pregnant’ and what will the people say. (5)

Participant #8 also discussed gossip:

   It seemed that people were talking about her behind her back, I mean, I never really took part in any of those conversations. (8)

   The desire for autonomy was seen by participants as a reason for why teens become pregnant. Parents expressed that teens want to leave their home and view a pregnancy as a way to escape their home life, either because they are unhappy or want to start a family with a partner. Parents indicated that teen parents are admired to some extent because they live a unique life and have overcome obstacles.

**Question 1 - Theme 3: “To get out of the house”**

   Getting out of the house and obtaining freedom by getting pregnant was a theme that emerged in this study. Although it is expected that teens want more freedom, this theme relates specifically to teens being seen as wanting the liberty that their parents refuse to give them and they see getting pregnant as a way to leave the home. This theme also includes the desire to leave home to have an independent life with a partner and being away from the control they feel at home.

*Not happy at home*
Not being happy at home was a repeated idea that parents pointed to as a reason why teens become pregnant. They indicated a longing for love and affection that teens may not feel at home. Participants also stated that teens may be looking to leave home and become pregnant in order to do so. Participant #2 described the following sentiment:

They are looking for love outside of the home because they don’t get the same love, not even from their mother and father…and where does that send the kids? To the streets. (2)

Similar perceptions were expressed by Participant #6:

It’s the love they are looking for in whatever friend, the love they don’t have at home, and they are attracted to the caring that they feel and it makes them fall into the temptation. (6)

Participant #9 indicated:

They are not happy at home, they have a bad home life…that was kind of the reason why I wanted to have a baby…to get out of the house. (9)

**Playing house**

Wanting to play house was a repeated idea that refers to teens mistakenly thinking that life will be good if they were to have a child at a young age and the notion that teens think life would be fine as a teen parent. Participants discussed talking with their children about the reality of life not being easy as a teen parent, the loss of youth and more responsibilities.

That is what I see now, that these girls think that the boy is going to stay with them but the boys today are not like they were before…and I see now that what they are looking for is their freedom to be together, to do what they want and keep living together fine. (4)

Participant #5 comically mocked teen parents:
When she ended up pregnant, she said, ‘Oh, we are soul mates and we are going to get married.’ They had no idea. (5)

Participant #9 had a hint of sarcasm as she stated:

They think ‘oh if I get pregnant, I am going to live my happy little family, and we’ll live happily ever after. (9)

**Question 1 - Theme 4: Admiration**

Unlike the previous theme of desire for autonomy, where participants indicated that teen parents have an unrealistic view of getting out of the house or playing house, parents also expressed admiration that may follow a teen parent. This admiration may come from the view of a teen parent as having dared to do something different, as well as a teen parent having strength in overcoming and through life experience.

“Dare devil”

Being a dare devil refers to the repeated idea of teen parents as “a big deal.” Parents indicated that teen parents are sometimes viewed as popular because they broke the mold, so to say. The thought of teen mothers as brave enough to do things that others didn’t do was expressed by some participants. One participant stated that the teen parent she knew of was an idol to many of her peers. The participants indicated those were the thoughts of their peers back when they were young themselves and no longer as adults.

Participant #1 recalled a teen parent she knew of:

They would say that she dared to do many things, and she was different… because she wanted to show that she could do things…like be stronger than the rest. (1)

Participant #2 also indicated a similar view of a teen parent, as she talked about why the teen parent was admired:
She was a dare devil, that she dared to do many things. Things that other people would not dare to do. And for some people, she was like their idol. (2)

Participant #7 indicated that not only were teen parents admired, they were also popular:

I did see a lot of girls with children before the age of 15, but in reality, it’s like they were popular because of it, and they thought they were popular by having done that. (7)

When asked if they still viewed the teen parent the same now as adults, parents indicated they know the realities of teen pregnancy and do not currently view teen pregnancy with admiration.

Strength/resilience

The idea of the teen mom as having strength and resilience was expressed in each focus group. The notion of the teen parent as overcoming obstacles as a sign of strength was shared by some participants. One participant shared the view of a teen parent as having the strength to be different, as indicated in the following statement:

She was very adventurous, very liberal, very strong. It’s like, the more you have lived and experience, the more you know. (2)

Participant #5 indicated:

It’s good to help out, but only a little, so that they earn it and that they way will start to feel and accept the responsibility of taking care of the girl and taking care of the baby. And they overcome the obstacles because like they say, the one that wins in the long run is the baby. (5)

Participant #8 talked about a teen parent she met in college and the strength the teen parent had:

I think obviously there were struggles, but she had such strong perseverance and motivation, that it didn’t hold her back. But for a lot of young people who are just not sure, I think it’s kind of an excuse to not really do anything. (8)
Research Question Two Themes

The second research question under study was: How do perceptions of teen pregnancy influence how Latino/parents of high school students at an urban school communicate with their children about adolescent pregnancy? To answer the second research question, participants were given three scenarios and asked the following group of questions: (1) You have an adolescent daughter. One day she brings a friend over and you become aware that this friend is pregnant. What is your opinion about that? Why do you think that teenage became pregnant (what factors lead to it)? What would you say to your daughter about that and why?, (2) Suppose you have a teenage son. You find out that your son is having unprotected sex. What is your opinion about that? What would you say to your son about that and why?, (3) Suppose your teenage child asks you about how to prevent a pregnancy or STD, what would your response be if you believed he/she may already be sexually active? What would your response be if you believe he/she was not sexually active?
I. Differences in communication
   A. Generational differences
      1. Taboo, lack of communication
      2. Lack of knowledge
   B. Cultural differences
      1. Cultural differences in US and Mexico
      2. Different levels of strictness

II. Communicate Prevention
   A. Consequences
      1. Responsibilities
      2. Social-emotional implications
   B. Prevention
      1. Sexually transmitted diseases
      2. Encourage use of condoms
      3. Easy access to condoms

Note: The title following the Roman numerals represent the theoretical constructs. Themes are the titles next to the capital letters. Repeating ideas are numbered under the listed themes.
Question 2 - Theme 1: Generational differences

Generational differences were seen as a barrier to communication. Participants indicated that they had limited experience as adolescents when it came to communication with their own parents. It was believed that the taboo status of talking about sexuality and the general lack of knowledge that their own parents had were reasons why they did not communicate about sex. Participants indicated that this generation and modern times require that they do not follow the same step as their parents when it comes to communication with their own children.

Taboo, lack of communication

Taboo and lack of communication is a repeating theme that participants expressed as having experienced with their parents. Each participant in each focus group indicated that her parents did not talk about issues of sex or sexuality, including menstruation for some, because it was considered taboo. Parents recognized the need to have communication with their children, but indicated their own parents did not communicate with them. Participants saw this lack of communication as a negative thing in both their lives and experiences. The following selections are representative of the repeating idea of lack of communication:

I was 14 year old when I got my period and my mom never said ‘look, this is going to happen.’ In order for her to know if I got my period, she didn’t ask me, rather she said ‘I’m taking you to the doctor.’…because she was embarrassed, she preferred to take me to the doctor rather than ask me.’ (2)

Similarly, Participant #7 indicated:
No, my mom never talked about it. She was embarrassed. People were more reserved back then, so now as a mother, I do talk to my children about it. (7)

Participant #9 had a similar experience:

My mom never talked to us about even getting our periods, let alone having sex. (9)

*Lack of knowledge*

Lack of knowledge on how to communicate, as well as lack of content knowledge was expressed by participants. Participants indicated that living in rural areas where knowledge about sexuality was not common impacted how their parents communicated with them.

There was no communication with parents, in reality, because we were not taught, our parents they wouldn’t talk to us. For the same reason, they didn’t know how. (3)

Participant #7 stated:

I got married when I was 14 years old. There was no communication with my mother. She didn’t know how to communicate. She didn’t talk to me, she never wanted to talk about those things, and I think it was a big error on her part because I got married so young and for the same reason, divorced. (7)

Similarly, Participant #6 shared:

They don’t know how to communicate because it’s not the same as before, there weren’t so many things like there is now as before, living on a ranch. (6)

Participants also cited parents not knowing what their child is exposed to or what their child is doing as a lack of knowledge. Participant #8 talked of this lack of knowledge as part of a cultural gap:

As it is when you are from the same culture it is hard to understand teenagers, much less when you don’t know how to communicate as well in your own
language, or you not understanding where they come from because of how you grew up, so it’s just a gap. (8)

**Question 2 - Theme 2: Cultural differences**

Cultural differences include societal differences and levels of strictness. Parents saw the level of education that children receive about teen pregnancy and safe sex, as well as what they are exposed to, as different then when they were young and in Mexico. Parents had a higher level of strictness before, whereas now, youth want their freedom. Participants saw this as a negative thing that could lead to teen pregnancy.

*Cultural differences in US and Mexico*

Cultural differences between the US and Mexico was a repeated theme that expressed the difficulties between parents born in Mexico and their American raised children. The differences in societal norms, as well as in schooling and what children are exposed to were discussed.

One factor may be the cultural gap between parents and kids a lot of times, parents who come from Mexico and they come with this idea of like, it’s a double edge sword because a lot of kids’ parents might have been married early and had kids young….parents having that generation gap, cultural gap with kids raised here,…that conflict of coming from Mexico, a certain way of how you do things versus here in Chicago. It’s that cultural gap that can create some miscommunication. (8)

Parents in the first group talked about the difference in how Latinos view virginity as important. In contrast, Whites teach prevention from early on. Participant #1 stated the following:

For Latinos, we are very critical, we judge can criticize, we point. And for Whites, they are teaching prevention from kindergarten. Like, the aspect of virginity is not as important. And for Latinos it is very valuable. (1)
Older participants also talked about how when they were young and living in Mexico, it was common for girls to get married and have children at a young age, especially in rural areas, and the difference now.

Before, if the boy got a girl pregnant, right away the first thing they wanted to do was get married. Now they don’t even think about that. (4)

Similarly, Participant #7 stated:

Back then it was not uncommon to see young girls pregnant, that was how it was done. And today, people have more expectations for young people, more goals to continue school. (7)

Different levels of strictness

Different level of strictness was a repeated idea that children of today have more freedom and parents are less strict with them than in the past or in Mexico.

I see it differently than how life is today. Before, everyone was very strict, and now maybe it’s the new thing, people see it as very natural. (1)

Participant #3 added:

I think it is because they have too much freedom in the home here, parents don’t know what their children are doing. And before, parents were stricter before. It wasn’t the same. (3)

Those differences in the level of strictness can lead to discord in the home and a teen’s desire to leave home to have the freedom they seek, as discussed by the following participants’ statements:

They want to experiment. They have too much freedom here, not like when I was young…now we can’t keep even keep them in the house because they rebel. (6)

Communicating Prevention

The theoretical construct of communication prevention encompasses the repeating
ideas that participants talk to their children about the consequences of having unprotected sex and of being a teen parent. Participants noted that even though they did not have a model of parental communication about sex, they viewed it as important to have communication with their children. Some participants indicate that they communicate prevention first in the form of abstinence, but also communicate the importance of condoms.

**Question 2 - Theme 3: Consequences**

Some participants communicate consequences to their child when talking about teen pregnancy. They indicated that they talk about the additional responsibilities, as well as the social-emotional impact that having sex and/or a child at a young age can cause.

**Responsibilities**

The repeated idea of more responsibilities as a point to make when communicating prevention of a teen pregnancy was shared in each focus group. Participants stated that they discourage a teen pregnancy by letting their child know of the heavy burden it will be on them and the entire family. Parents also talked to their kids about the responsibility they must have to protect themselves and think about the consequences. Participant #4 indicated that she talks to her children about the consequences in terms of more responsibilities:

> I tell them she’s going to see later that she is the one that has to take responsibility, of her own body, of going to the doctor, then when the baby comes, to go to all the appointments, all the sleepless night she will pass with the baby. (4)

Participant #6 indicated the following:
I tell her that she will be the one who will have to take care of the baby, she will be on her own and that’s what I always remind her of. (6)

Similarly, Participant #8 indicated that they communicate the different consequences that can come about after a teen pregnancy.

I talk to him about the consequences, is this something that you are ready to do, think this through, what is going to happen, play out the different scenarios, because any one of these could be the consequences. (8)

**Social–emotional implications**

Participants repeated the idea of communication about the social-emotional implications of being in a serious relationship and the different possible outcomes. Parents indicated that some teen parents are devastated after a relationship does not work and the child then has to be shared. Participants also discussed the maturity level that may be lacking and the skills to engage in family planning. This notion of social-emotional implications was expressed by Participant #4:

I’ll ask them if they are in love and talk to them about that. Maybe later what happens if she gets remarried and has kids with somebody else, then the baby would no longer be with him. (4)

Similarly, Participant #3 reiterated the emotional difficulty after a breakup:

She is going to have to make it on her own, because he is no longer going to be there for her. And that is so sad to see that a girl messes up in her life and also messes up in her home…even if she cries and screams, the situation will remain the same. (3)

The lack of maturity was discussed, as evident in the following selections:

It’s better to tell them to not have sex, but if they are mature enough, and they already have knowledge of what real love is, not if they are not going to have sex just to have it, if the boy doesn’t know really who he wants to be with…tell them it’s better to have sex with someone that they really love. (5)
Participant #8 talked about the lack of maturity to think about consequences:

I think part of it is their maturity in their relationship, you know, they are like, for girls it may be their first time in a relationship, it be their second relationship, but they are just immature when it comes to being in a relationship at that level where you can talk about many things, you can plan things. They just don’t have the maturity to think about the consequences. (8)

**Question 2 - Theme 4: Prevention**

Participants first discourage their child from having sex, but also encourage them to use protection if they will have sex. Participants saw it as an uncomfortable reality that children need to hear about safe sex practices. The risk of a sexually transmitted disease was of importance to all the participants. The ease of access of condoms was seen as a positive thing.

*Sexually transmitted disease also risk*

Each participant in the focus group repeated the idea that a sexually transmitted Disease (STD) is a risk teens face if they do not use protection. Participants indicated that they talk to their child about the risk of an STD and the ways to prevent it. Participants also expressed the notion that getting an STD could be a consequence to unprotected sex, a worse consequence than pregnancy.

My mom didn’t talk to me about it, she would tell me to take care of myself and to not do it because it was bad. But that is different from what you say today, ‘take care of yourself because you can get a disease.’ Before it was bad because it was a sin. (1)

Participant #4 added:

Because getting pregnant is not the only thing that can happen, worse is to get a sexually transmitted disease. (4)

Participants recalled the conversations they had with sons about STDs:
I tell him to use a condom to avoid a pregnancy. I think it is their responsibility, of the boys, that they should have condoms in their wallets. I tell him one, to not get the girl pregnant, but two, to not get and STD. (5)

Similarly, Participant #9 stated:

When I had a conversation with my son it wasn’t even so much about the pregnancy, it was more about diseases.” (9)

Encourage use of condoms

The encouragement of the use of condoms was stated in each of the focus groups, by all the participants. They indicated they communicate with their child about using condoms if they intend to have sex. Participants stated they first discourage their child from having sex, but indicated that realistically it is also necessary to communicate about safe sex practices.

We should tell them the best thing is to not do it, no sex is the best thing, but if they are going to, please use protection. (1)

Participants also talked about how parents need to be realistic when it comes to pregnancy prevention and understand that although not having sex would be better, the reality is that they probably will.

They did a chastity letter in school, but let’s be realistic…it is 2011 and we need to be realistic about what our kids are doing. (7)

Similarly, Participant #8 stated:

I would want her to feel comfortable to come to me saying she wants to take the steps and ultimately at some point you have to just know they are going to make that decision whether you consent or not. I still wouldn’t encourage it, I would talk to her about the consequences, but if that is something that she is going to do, I would want to make sure that she’s protected. (8)

Easy access to condoms
Easy access to condoms was a repeated idea shared among all the participants. They indicated that schools not only teach about how to use condoms, but they are also provided. Access to condoms in health fairs and community agencies was also pointed out. Parents stated that their teens have condoms in their drawer or pockets and condoms are readily available for free.

I would start finding condoms in his drawer around the age of 14 and I would not take them away. I would leave them and to this day he has not gotten anyone pregnant. (3)

Participant #9 stated:

I get condoms from work for free, I give them to him and to this day I can look in his pocket and he keeps them in his pocket. (9)

Some participants indicated confusion as to why teens do not use condoms when they are so easy to access and they have been taught about safe sex in schools for years.

This is what I don’t understand. There are so many places that give out free bags of condoms. And they are in drawers, without being used. One day I was washing clothes and saw some and he said, ‘It’s from a health fair and they give those away, I don’t need them.’ And look, he got someone pregnant. (5)

Summary

This chapter provided the results of the three focus group discussions related to Latina parents’ perceptions of teen pregnancy. Qualitative analyses methods described by Auerbach and Silverstein (2003) were used to identify repeating ideas, themes and to develop theoretical constructs. These were summarized and arranged according to the research questions for this study in Figures 3 and 4. Following the summary figures, theoretical narratives for each repeating idea were provided. In general, the Latina parents who participated in this study perceive negative thoughts about teen pregnancy as
it relates to limits in life and social isolation. These parents also shared the perceptions of autonomy and admiration as it relates to teen pregnancy. Focus groups also suggest that participants have cultural and generational differences in communication with their teen about teen pregnancy. Finally, parents indicated that they communicate about prevention with their teen.
CHAPTER FIVE
DISCUSSION

This chapter will provide a summary of the current study. A summary of the theoretical constructs will be provided. The research findings and how they relate to the theoretical framework will also be discussed. Following a description of the limitations of the study, recommendations for further research will be made.

Summary of Research Findings

The purpose of this study was shed light on the following two questions: 1. What are some of the variables that influence how Latina parents of high school students at an urban school perceive teen pregnancy? 2. How do perceptions of teen pregnancy influence how Latina parents of high school students at an urban school communicate with their children about adolescent pregnancy? This study aimed to provide an understanding of parental perceptions of teen pregnancy and communication with their child about teen pregnancy in relation to Jaccard et al.’s (2002) conceptual framework of immediate determinants of behavioral intentions, as discussed in the literature review.

Past research explored the content and process of parental communication, but there was a gap in the literature as it related to pre-communicative behavior (Akers, Schwarz, Borrero & Corbie-Smith, 2010; Wilson, Dalberth, Koo, & Gard, 2010; Guilamo-Ramos, Dittus, Jaccard, Goldberg, Casillas & Bouris, 2006). Similar studies
have looked at how Latino/a families communicate about sex, but the focus was on the content and timing of the communication, rather than the antecedents to communication or parents perceptions. (Dorsey, Miller & Kotchek, 1999; O’Sullivan, Meyer-Bahlburg, & Watkins, 2001). This present research explored Latino/a parents’ immediate determinants of behavioral intentions by looking specifically at parents’ perceptions and attitudes. Shedding light on Latino/a parents’ perceptions of teen pregnancy makes a needed contribution to the literature in the field teen pregnancy which has limited information on Latino/a parental determinants of communicative behavior.

Discussion of Findings and Implications

It appears that overall, the Latino/a parents in this study have both negative and positive perceptions about teen pregnancy, although some of the participants’ positive perceptions were described as having been thoughts when they were younger and not current thoughts. Each focus group also identified generational and cultural differences in communication and the need to communicate prevention to their children.

Jaccard, et al.’s (2002) two-part conceptual framework includes Immediate Determinates of Behavior, identified as intention, knowledge, environmental constraints, the relevance of the behavior, and the automaticity of the behavior (Jaccard et al., 2002). The Immediate Determinants of Behavioral Intentions, the second part of the framework, refers to a person’s desire and intent to carry out a behavior and has six factors – attitude about a behavior, the social norms associated with the behavior, the beliefs about the behavior, the individual’s self concept in relation to the behavior, the affective reaction of
the behavior, and the individual’s self efficacy in performing the behavior (Jaccard et al., 2002). Parental attitudes and perceptions were the key concepts under investigation in this current study.

The repeating ideas and emerging themes in this study speak to Jaccard’s et al., (2002) theoretical framework. The theoretical construct of teen pregnancy having negative implications reflects the participants’ beliefs and expectations that teen parents have limits in life, yet perceive them as having admiration or seeking a level of autonomy. If adult parents are able to recall the admiration that teen parents had, the question follows: do current adolescents perceive their teen parent peers with admiration? If so, parent participants may have to counteract the admiration their children may feel toward adolescent pregnancy. It appears that participant’ beliefs and expectancies (immediate determinants of behavioral intentions) have changed over time, as they indicated that now as adults they no longer admire teen parents. However, youth of today do not have the age or wisdom to see teen pregnancy for what it really is.

The social isolation that parents perceive of teen pregnancy, the shame and gossip associated with it, are the social norms that Latino/a participants have prior to communicating with their children. Hence, the communication that takes place incorporates parents telling their children about the consequences of a teen pregnancy. Parents indicated talking to their children about the consequences, yet some of those consequences, such as having to be more responsible and getting a job, may be the type of autonomy that adolescents seek. Thus, by telling a teen that having a child will force them to grow up faster, a parent may unwittingly be encouraging the pregnancy rather
than discourage it. This notion connects to Jaccard’s et al., (2002) model in terms of having the knowledge and skills for the behavioral intention of communicating prevention with their child. The intention may be there to communicate prevention, but the youth may be hearing autonomy.

The generational and cultural differences many Latino/a parents encounter when communicating about teen pregnancy speaks to the self-efficacy immediate determinate of behavioral intention. Parents repeatedly stated that they did not have the role model for communication about sex, and the lack of a role model had a negative impact on them. Without that model, parents may not have the knowledge and skills to communicate with their own children about teen pregnancy. This speaks to a possible lack in knowledge and skills for behavioral performance, an immediate determinate of communicative behavior. Previous studies on African American women have also found that the lack of parental communication about sex had a negative impact on the lives of the participants (O’Sullivan, Meyer-Bahlburg & Watkins 2001). It is reasonable to think that any adult who has not had a role model for communicating with their child about sex will be at a disadvantage in comparison to a parent who has had a solid model and experience with this type of parent-child communication.

Parents in this study had the general perception of a need to communicate prevention by talking about consequences and social-emotional implications of a teen pregnancy. They also reiterated in each focus group the need for communication about prevention with condoms. Although they reported that in the past and in their native country these topics were taboo, the current social norms in which they find themselves
appears to impact their behavior in communicating with their own children about these topics. In the past in Mexico, participants indicated that it was more common to see a teenage girl married and pregnant. According the participants, it was more uncommon to see a young girl finish high school and go to college. Parent participants in this study indicated that children of today have more educational and employment goals, whereas in the past teens would have a family relatively quickly. If a parent has the expectancy that communicating prevention with their child may enable them to continue their education, as the current social norms indicate, it is more likely that this immediate determinant of behavioral intention will actually lead to the communication taking place.

Each of the emerging themes from the focus groups can be identified by at least one of the Jaccard’s et al., (2002) immediate determinates of behavioral intentions. The perceptions of Latina parents in this study appear to indeed have an impact on how and what they communicate to their children about teen pregnancy. It is safe to say that the Latina parents who participated in this study have the similar attitudes and perceptions about teen pregnancy as other populations in terms of the negative implications, yet also may have unique characteristics as it relates to the cultural differences. Some of the cultural differences include differences in the level of strictness, the language barrier between parent and child, as well as the comfort level that exists in communicating about sexuality.

In comparison to other recent studies, this study is similar in the attitudes and perceptions that parents have in seeing a need to communicate about sex with their child. In particular, the parents in this study indicated the need to encourage condom use,
something that is not uncommon in other cultural groups (Akers, Schwarz, Borrero, & Corbie-Smith, 2010). This finding is different from previous literature that indicates Latino/a parents tend to emphasize avoiding sexual contact in their communication with teens (O’Sullivan, Meyers-Bahlburg & Watkins, 2001). Current findings in this study are consistent with more recent research findings that indicate Latina mothers are more open to talking about sexuality than before (Guilamo-Ramos, et al., 2006). This may be a result of less stigmatization associated with talking about sex in general.

Parents indicated that they think it is necessary to have programs in the school to teach prevention and safe sex. However, differences may remain in the way Mexican parents have experienced teen pregnancy in terms of the perceived relaxed level of strictness in the US. This difference, perhaps a conflict, in how parents view too much freedom versus how their children want to experience freedom may make it more difficult for parents to communicate their thoughts about teen pregnancy. Latina parents may be missing out on an opportunity to talk about complex issues related to sexuality and risky behaviors if they focus their discussions on strict narrow views of what their teen can and cannot do.

Limitations of the Study

The total number of participants for this study was nine. Although the discussions were lively and lengthy, the low number of participants is a limitation of this study. Several attempts were made to recruit more participants but were unsuccessful.

The fact that no males were in this study is a limitation because fathers play an important role in teen pregnancy prevention and they may have different perceptions
about the subject. It is unknown if Latino fathers of teenagers would have had the same or similar responses as the mothers in this study. This is certainly a limitation in the sense that we currently do not have research that can give a voice to Latino dads about their perceptions of teenage pregnancy. It is reasonable to think that Latino dads may communicate something other than condom use to teenage daughters, something that would be interesting for further research.

An additional limitation is the fact that only one culture was under study, which is Latinas, rather than a more mixed population which could have provided more information about how parents of teenagers from other cultures view teen pregnancy. Similarly, another limitation of this current study is the fact that parents were not asked their religion, educational background or any questions about their social-economic status, so this study cannot identify any similarities differences among those groups.

Recommendations for Further Research

Latino/a parental perceptions about teen pregnancy are multifaceted and complex. Given that there were no fathers in this present study, future research on Latino father’s perceptions about teen pregnancy would be beneficial. In particular, it would be useful to research what role gender, of both parent and child, has on how fathers communicate with their child about sex and pregnancy. The field would also benefit from research comparing Latino fathers’ communication with that of other ethnic and cultural groups. In addition, it would be useful for future research to shed light how different types of father parental involvement may impact parent-child communication about sex.

Honing in on individual perceptions, in particular on parents’ self-efficacy in
communication, is something that future research should address. The field would benefit from additional research that compares the differences in content and outcomes of parents who had a role model for communication about sexuality versus those parents who had no model. Perhaps further research in this area would help target interventions and parent programs that teach them the skills they need to communicate with their child. It should be noted that after each focus group, the participants indicated they enjoyed the discussion and thought more conversations such as theses were needed in the school. Future research that measures the outcomes of school-based parental support systems on teen pregnancy prevention is also needed.

The field of pregnancy prevention would also benefit from finding ways to study how to combat the barriers of generational and cultural differences in parent-child communication. Future research is needed to find out how parents incorporate societal norm differences between themselves and their American-raised children in their communication with their child. While it may be true that other cultural groups experience generational differences in parent-child communication about sex, future research should attempt to identify how different levels of acculturation impact immigrant families’ communication, on top of generational differences.

The recommendations should also incorporate research of parents from different cultural backgrounds. Not only is research needed in terms of cross-cultural comparisons, but also within group class and educational differences. These differences among and within groups could shed more light on what parents from different backgrounds communicate with their child and what perceptions they hold about teen
pregnancy that impacts communication. Given that children of teen parents are more likely to become a teen parent themselves, have less education and higher poverty rates, future research should examine how educational attainment, poverty and social economic status impacts adolescent pregnancy (National Campaign to Prevent Teen Pregnancy, 2002; Guttmacher Institute, 2006).

Finally, more research on how social isolation impacts and affects teen parents would be beneficial. Teen parents should be getting more support rather than the isolation and shame that participants in this study perceived. If it is true that teen parents from other backgrounds experience similar social isolation, as may be the case, then it would follow that research on the effects of this social isolation needs to take place. Isolating an adolescent parent may indeed only help to perpetuate the cycle of teen pregnancy. Participants in this research study not only identified social isolation, but also strength in teen parents. Participants described teen parents as being stuck, yet also spoke about teen parents overcoming obstacles. Future research should attempt to identify what factors lead to different educational attainment levels and socio-economic outcomes among teen parents.

Summary

This research study attempted to provide an understanding of parental perceptions which may influence teen pregnancy. Focus group discussions were conducted with Latina parents at a public high school in Chicago in order to obtain a contextual understanding of parents’ perceptions and attitudes toward teen pregnancy. Findings revealed that in general, participants perceived negative implications as it relates to teen
pregnancy. In addition, participants indicated a desire for autonomy as a possible reason for teen pregnancy. Participants also perceived a level of admiration that may exist for teen parents. Participants perceived generational and cultural differences in communication, as well as a need to communicate prevention with their child.

Future research that incorporates fathers is recommended. In general, future research that incorporates the study of gender issues in teen pregnancy is needed. Future research that investigates generational and cultural differences in parent-child communication is also needed. In addition, the field would benefit from future research on the role educational attainment and socio-economic status plays in teen pregnancy prevention.
APPENDIX A

RECRUITMENT LETTER
Dear Parent and/or Guardian,

I think parent’s opinions are very important and that is why I would like to invite you to be part of my focus group discussions about teen pregnancy. If you would like to share your thoughts, opinions, and feelings about teenage pregnancy, you are a perfect candidate for the focus group discussions.

A focus group is basically a small group of people who come together and speak openly and freely about a topic, teen pregnancy in this case. I am asking for your participation in one of the focus group discussions that I will be conducting so that I can learn more about how parents perceive teen pregnancy. I am doing research about parents’ perceptions of teen pregnancy as part of the requirements for my dissertation at Loyola University of Chicago.

The focus group discussion will last about an hour to an hour and a half, during a weekday evening and will take place at Social Justice High School. If you chose to participate, there will be snacks and refreshments for your enjoyment during the focus group discussion. If you chose to be in one of the focus group discussions, your name will not be shared and anything said will be confidential.

If you would like to be in one of the focus groups, please sign up for a date to participate today by indicating your preferred date and by leaving your contact information with me at the recruitment table.

If you have any questions or concerns, you may call me at 773-242-0890 or email me at mnava@luc.edu.

Sincerely,

Mayra Nava, M.Ed.
APPENDIX B

FOCUS GROUP SCRIPT
Overview and Welcome:

Good afternoon. My name is Mayra Nava and thank you for coming. A focus group is a relaxed discussion in which we ask questions and you provide the answer. It is a way for us to listen to you and learn from you. Please take a moment to read the informed consent form with me, after which you can ask any questions. I will then ask for your verbal consent to participate and we will begin the focus group session.

We are here today to talk about your thoughts on teen pregnancy. The purpose is to get your perceptions on this issue, especially because there is not much information about how parents think and feel about teen pregnancy.

I am not here to share information, or to give you my opinions. Your perceptions are what matter. There are no right, wrong, desirable or undesirable answers. You can disagree with each other, and you can change your mind. I would like you to feel comfortable saying what you really think and how you really feel.

_________will be taking notes and tape recording the discussion so that I do not miss anything you have to say. I want all of you to understand that everything said here today is confidential. No one will know who said what. I want this to be a group discussion, so feel free to respond to me and to other members in the group without waiting to be called on. However, I would appreciate it if only one person did talk at a time. The discussion will last approximately one hour. There is a lot I want to discuss, so at times I may move us along a bit.

Opening:
Tell us how many children you have and the ages of your children.

Introductory:
1. When you were a young adult, did you know of any other teens that were pregnant or parents? What were your thoughts at that time about that? How have your thoughts changed or stayed the same?

2. How do you feel about teen pregnancy? What do you think about teens having children?

3. What are the advantages and disadvantages of teen pregnancy?

4. Why do you think teens become pregnant? What factors may influence why teens become pregnant? What factors may influence why teens do not become pregnant?
I will provide a scenario and you tell me what your feelings and opinions are in the following scenario:

5. You have an adolescent daughter. One day she brings a friend over and you become aware that this friend is pregnant. What is your opinion about that?

Why do you think that teenage became pregnant (what factors lead to it)?

What would you say to your daughter about that and why?

6. Suppose you have a teenage son. You find out that your son is having unprotected sex. What is your opinion about that?

What would you say to your son about that and why?

7. Do you believe that teen pregnancy is a problem in your community?

8. In comparison with other communities (Latino, White, African-American, etc.), are there any similarities or differences when it comes to teen pregnancy? Why do you think there is or is not?

9. Suppose your teenage child asks you about how to prevent a pregnancy or STD, what would your response be if you believed he/she may already be sexually active? What would your response be if you believe he/she was not sexually active?

Final:

There were many different opinions about teen pregnancy, and I thank each of you for sharing your thoughts.

Do you have any additional thoughts, questions or comments?

Have we missed anything?

Closure:

Thank you for coming this evening. Your time is greatly appreciated and your comments have been helpful to us.
APPENDIX C

INFORMED CONSENT
My name is Mayra Nava and I am a bilingual school psychologist and special education teacher. I am completing my PhD program in school psychology at Loyola University Chicago. The purpose of my study is to investigate parent’s perceptions of teen pregnancy. This study is being conducted as part of my dissertation requirements and the results will be shared with my dissertation committee.

The expected time for the focus group will take no longer than an hour and a half of your time. To protect your confidentiality, you will be assigned a number to use during the focus group session. The focus group sessions will be tape recorded and later transcribed. The information obtained from the focus groups will be coded to protect your confidentiality. Data obtained from this focus group will be kept at the researcher’s home under lock and key, as well as on a password-protected computer. All data will be destroyed upon completion of this study. There is one possible foreseeable risk involved with this research, that is, a feeling discomfort with the topic. There are no known benefits to research participants who chose to participate in this study. You are free to not respond to any of the questions and/or withdraw from the focus group session at any time without penalty. As a token of appreciation, there will be snacks and refreshments during the focus group discussion for your enjoyment.

Should you have any questions about your rights as a participant, you may contact Loyola’s Office of Research Services at (773) 508-2689. If you have any questions or concerns, you may call me at 773-242-0890 or email me at mnava@luc.edu.

_________________________________________  __________________________
Researcher’s Signature             Date
APPENDIX D

SPANISH RECRUITMENT LETTER
Estimado Padre y/o Guarda,

Pienso que las opiniones del los padres son muy importantes y por eso quisiera invitarle a que sea parte de mis discusiones o pláticas de grupo sobre el embarazo de adolescentes. Si usted quisiera compartir sus pensamientos y opiniones sobre el embarazo adolescentes, usted es un candidato perfecto a las discusiones/pláticas de grupo.

Una discusión o plática de grupo es básicamente un pequeño grupo de personas que se juntan y hablan abiertamente y libremente sobre un asunto, embarazo adolescentes en este caso. Estoy pidiendo su participación en una de las discusiones/pláticas de grupo que conduciré de modo que pueda aprender más sobre cómo los padres perciben el embarazo de adolescentes. Estoy haciendo la investigación acerca de las opiniones de padres sobre el embarazo de adolescentes como parte de los requisitos para mi disertación en la Universidad de Chicago de Loyola.

La discusión/plática del grupo durará alrededor de una hora y media, durante una tarde entre semana y se llevará a cabo en la Secundaria de la Justicia Social. Si usted gusta participar, habrá bocadillos y refrescos para su disfrute durante la discusión del grupo. Si usted elige estar en una de las discusiones/pláticas del grupo, su nombre no será compartido y cualquier cosa dicho será confidencial.

Si usted quisiera estar en uno de los grupos de plática, inscríbase por una fecha para participar hoy día, indicando su fecha preferida y dejando su información de contacto conmigo en la mesa del reclutamiento.

Si tiene cualquier pregunta, puede llamarme al 773-242-0890 o por correo electrónico al mnava@luc.edu.

Sinceramente,

Mayra Nava, M.Ed.
APPENDIX E

SPANISH FOCUS GROUP SCRIPT
Buenas tardes. Mi nombre es Mayra Nava y gracias por venir. Una plática de grupo de enfoque es una discusión relajada en la cual se hace preguntas y usted proporcionará la respuesta. Es una manera de escuchar y aprender de ti. Por favor tome un momento para leer el formulario de consentimiento informado conmigo, después me puede hacer cualquier pregunta. Luego le pedirá su consentimiento verbal para participar y vamos a comenzar la plática de grupo de enfoque.

Estamos aquí hoy día para hablar acerca de sus pensamientos sobre el embarazo adolescente. El objetivo es conseguir su percepción sobre este asunto, especialmente porque no hay mucha información acerca de cómo los padres piensan y sienten sobre el embarazo adolescente.

No estoy aquí para compartir información, o para darle mis opiniones. Sus percepciones son lo que importa. No hay respuesta correcta o incorrecta, deseable o indeseable. Usted puede estar en desacuerdo, y usted puede cambiar de opinión. Me gustaría que usted se sienta cómodo diciendo lo que realmente piensas y cómo te sientes realmente.

Tomare notas y habrá una grabación de la discusión para que no se pierde todo lo que dicen. Quiero que todos entiendan que todo lo dicho hoy aquí es confidencial. Nadie sabrá quién dijo qué. Quiero que sea una discusión de grupo, así que siéntete libre de responderme y a otros miembros del grupo sin tener que esperar a ser llamado. Sin embargo, le agradecería que sólo una persona hable a la vez. La plática durara aproximadamente una hora. Hay muchas cosas que quiero discutir, por lo que a veces empujaré la plática un poco.

Opening:
Díganos cuántos hijos tiene y la edad de sus hijos.

Introductory:

1. ¿Cuándo usted era un joven, usted sabía de otras adolescentes que eran embarazadas o que eran padres? ¿Cuáles eran sus pensamientos en aquel tiempo sobre eso? ¿Cómo han cambiado o han permanecido iguales sus pensamientos?

2. ¿Que siente sobre el embarazo de adolescentes? ¿Qué piensa sobre los adolescentes que tienen niños?
3. ¿Cuáles son las ventajas y las desventajas del embarazo adolescente?

4. ¿Por qué piensa que adolescentes queda embarazados? ¿Qué factores pueden influenciar por qué los adolescentes se embaracen? ¿Qué factores pueden influenciar por qué los adolescentes no se quedan embarazados?

*Le voy a dar un escenario y usted me dice cuáles son sus sentimientos y opiniones del escenario:*

5. Usted tiene una hija adolescente. Un día ella trae a una amiga y usted es entera que la amiga está embarazada. ¿Cuál es su opinión sobre eso? ¿Por qué usted piensa que esa adolescente se quedo embarazada (cuales son los factores)? ¿Qué le diría a su hija sobre eso y por qué?

6. Suponga que usted tiene un hijo adolescente. Usted descubre que su hijo está teniendo relaciones sexuales sin protección. ¿Cuál es su opinión sobre eso? ¿Qué le diría a su hijo sobre eso y por qué?

7. ¿Usted cree que el embarazo adolescente es un problema en su comunidad?

8. ¿En comparación con otras comunidades (Latinos, blancos, Afro-Americanos, etc.), hay semejanzas o diferencias en cuanto al embarazo de adolescentes? ¿Por qué usted que sí o no hay diferencias?

9. ¿Suponga que su niño adolescente le pregunta sobre cómo prevenir un embarazo o un infección transmitida por relaciones sexuales (STD), cuál sería su respuesta si usted cree que él puede ya estar teniendo relaciones sexuales? ¿Cuál sería su respuesta si usted cree que él no ha tenido relaciones?

*Final:*

Hubo muchas diversas opiniones sobre embarazo adolescente, y agradezco a cada uno de ustedes por compartir sus pensamientos. ¿Usted tiene preguntas o comentarios adicionales? ¿Hemos faltado cualquier cosa?

*Closing: Gracias por venir esta tarde. Agradezco su tiempo y sus comentarios.*
APPENDIX F

SPANISH INFORMED CONSENT
Mi nombre es Mayra Nava y yo soy una psicóloga escolar y maestra de educación especial. Estoy terminando mi doctorado en psicología escolar en la Universidad Loyola de Chicago. El propósito de mi estudio es investigar las percepciones de los padres de embarazos entre los adolescentes. Este estudio se lleva a cabo como parte de los requisitos de mi tesis y los resultados serán compartidos con mi comité de tesis.

La plática del grupo de enfoque no tomará más de una hora y media de su tiempo. Para proteger su confidencialidad, se le asignará un número para su uso durante el período de sesiones de grupos de enfoque. Las pláticas de enfoque serán grabadas y posteriormente transcrita. La información obtenida de la plática de enfoque se codificará para proteger su confidencialidad. Los datos obtenidos de este grupo de enfoque se mantendrán en la casa del investigador bajo llave, así como en un equipo protegido con contraseña.

Todos los datos se destruirán al término el estudio. Hay un posible riesgo en esta investigación, es decir, un sentimiento de incomodidad con el tema. No se conoce ningún beneficio para los participantes en la investigación para los participantes de este estudio. Usted es libre de no responder a ninguna de las preguntas y / o retirarse de la plática de grupo en cualquier momento sin penalización. Como muestra de agradecimiento, habrá bocadillos y refrescos durante la plática del grupo para su disfrute.

Si tiene alguna pregunta sobre sus derechos como participante, se puede comunicar con la Oficina de Investigaciones en Loyola al (773) 508-2689. Si tiene
cualquier pregunta o comentario, me puede llamar al 773-242-0890 o correo electrónico al mnava@luc.edu. Gracias de nuevo por su ayuda. Esta hoja es para sus archivos.

________________________________
Firma de Investigador

___________________________
Fecha
REFERENCES


VITA

Mayra Nava was born and raised in Chicago, IL. She obtained a Bachelor of Arts degree in 1996 with a major in English from the University of Illinois at Chicago (UIC). She continued on to graduate school and in 1999 she obtained a Master of Education degree in Special Education from UIC. Mayra then furthered her studies and earned a Master of Education in Educational Psychology in 2004 from Loyola University of Chicago.

Mayra continued her graduate studies in education by pursing a doctorate. While completing a doctoral program in School Psychology at Loyola University Chicago, she concurrently completed the Preparing Future Faculty Program at Northwestern University. As a doctoral student, she was awarded the Diversifying Future Faculty award. Mayra was a Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. Scholar for the U.S. Department of Education in the summer of 2004.

Mayra has worked in the public school system for over ten years, as both a teacher and school psychologist. She is currently working at Kenwood Academy in Chicago. Her research interests include practitioner research, positive behavior interventions and response to interventions.