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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FACTORS WHICH INFLUENCE ADOLESCENT SEXUAL DECISIONS, LOCUS OF CONTROL, AND SELECTED

PERSONALITY DIMENSIONS

Ъу

Mary Sonnenshein-Schneider

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School of Loyola University of Chicago in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

May

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

From conception to death, sexuality is an essential element in human development. Within the developmental span, sexuality achieves peak importance during puberty when the adolescent faces the task of coping with dramatic physical and psychological changes. Responsibility for coping with one's changing sexuality rests with each individual. In turn each individual is influenced by the adoption or rejection of both personal influences and societal influences. Sexual decision-making involves the consolidation of those factors which are most influential in the choice of sexual behavior. Today there is a waning influence of external societal and religious pressures on sexual behavior. This is accompanied by the liberalization of sexual attitudes and values. Hence the adolescent is now faced with a greater responsibility for and control over his own sexual decisionmaking. Given this increased responsibility it would seem that an individual's locus of control would be an important element in the consolidation of factors which influence his sexual decisions.

Background of the Problem

Sexual issues play a pertinent role in the socialization history of each individual (Freud, 1953; Kohlberg, 1966; Mischel, 1966) achieving critical importance during the adolescent period. Social, psychological and psychoanalytic theories alike stress the

importance of sexuality in that the adolescent must cope with his budding sexuality within the societal <u>milieu</u> of increased sexual liberality. Although the question of evolution versus revolution still exists, research supports the existence of a sexual revolution which has brought about changes in both attitude and behavior a revolution which encourages tolerance for the sexual behavior of others as well as an increase in the frequency of sexual expression within and without the context of a meaningful relationship (Bell & Chaskes, 1970; Christensen & Carpenter, 1962; Christensen & Gregg, 1970; Hunt, 1974; Juhasz, 1976; Kaats & Davis, 1970; Kinsey, 1948; Reiss, 1967; Zelnick & Kantner, 1972).

Modern adolescents experience the waning influence of such powerful external influences on sexual behavior as family and church (Juhasz, 1975). At the same time consequential external pressures on sexual behavior, such as fear of pregnancy, have been significantly reduced by advances in contraceptive technology and the legalization of abortion.

The adolescent, in the process of identity formation, is faced with dual sexual decision-making tasks involving the synthesis of his own personal sexual values and the adoption of a personal form of sexual expression. Sexual decision-making then involves a process of internal synthesis which is actualized in the chosen behavior. Employing an aposteriori approach, one can examine the behavior and determine whether the antecedent sexual decision-making mechanism is adequate or faulty. The alarming rate of teenage pregnancy and the epidemic incidence of venereal disease call into question the adequacy of

current sexual decision-making skills. Such behavior has resulted in the growing outcry for adequate sex education programs (Juhasz, 1976). The original subject matter advocated for sex education programs centered on biological and technical information, however, current literature focuses on the overriding need for the addition of value clarification and moral reasoning as an aid in the formation of an underlying value structure for sexual behavior (Pietrofesa, 1976). It is this very value structure that requires investigation.

Optimal sexual decision-making consists of three basic dimensions: cognitive influences, socialization influences, and situationspecific influences. Cognitive influences on sexual decision-making involve such issues as sexual knowledge and information seeking (Jensen, 1976; Juhasz, 1969), ability to clearly think through behavioral alternatives (Campbell, Townes & Beach, 1976), ability to order a hierarchy of values (Campbell, Townes & Beach, 1976), awareness of control over behavioral consequences (Camieleri, 1976), and adequate planning (Diamond, 1973). Socialization variables involve the synthesis of socio-cultural value systems, the incorporation of values from the individual's sexual socialization process (Spanier, 1977), familial and parental values (Lane, 1976; Reiss, 1968; Libby & Carlson, 1973) and peer value systems (Solomon, 1961; Reiss, 1968). Situationspecific factors involve situational variables which affect the physical and social setting of a specific sexual decision such as autonomy of lifespace, marital status, pregnancy status and availability of contraceptive devices and abortion (Reiss, 1968; Edwards, 1976; Byrne, 1977; Nutt, 1974). Hence sexual behavior is the result of influences

on sexual decision-making which involve cognitive influences, socialization influences and the influences of specific situations.

Sexual decision-making can only occur within a situational context and hence to investigate current underlying value structures of sexual decision-making a contextual model has been chosen. Most current models deal with a single specific sexual decision such as family planning (Beach, Campbell, & Martin, 1976). However the model chosen for this investigation involves the six basic sexual decisions.

The Juhasz model presents a systematic approach to the discussion and analysis of sexual decision-making (Juhasz, 1975). Juhasz has proposed the Chain of Sexual Decision-making as a model which exhibits the flow of sexual decisions from the primary decision to engage or not to engage in sexual intercourse. Each stage of the model (Figure One, p. 5) calls for a decision, the consequences of which automatically require that subsequent decisions be made. Hence confrontation of the intial question to have or not to have sexual intercourse leads to the question to have children or not to have children? Confrontation of this issue leads to the question of the use or nonuse of birth control. If birth control is not employed and pregnancy occurs, the individual is confronted with the issue of keeping the child or giving it up for adoption. Regardless of one's choice on this issue the decision to marry or to remain single must be made. This chain embodies the core considerations which logically underlie the decision-making process it serves as a basis for the study and investigation of the parameters involved in each of the sexual decisions which faces an individual. The Juhasz model has been chosen as the

A MODEL FOR SEXUAL DECISION-MAKING

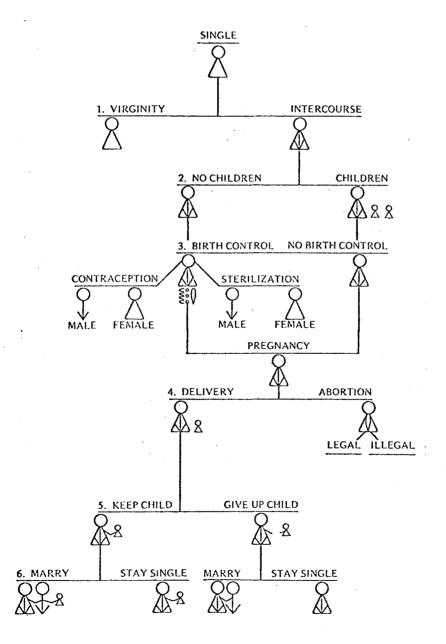


Figure One

basis for the present investigation of factors influencing adolescent sexual decision-making.

Sexual decision-making has at its foundation the issue of responsibility and control. The baseline characteristic of sexual decision-making is control, that is, the determination and actualization of one's own sexual behavior. It is through control that the individual selects, values and channels sexual information actualizing it in sexual behavior within a sexual situation. Control functions as the basic mechanism underlying behavior. Mahoney and Thoreson (1972) have stated that "one measure of a civilized society is the degree to which its inhabitants control and direct their sexual behavior without external coercion. Control and direction are not automatic but must be learned." (p. 10).

Issues of control or abdication of control are pertinent at each stage of the sexual decision-making model. The decision to engage in sexual intercourse can be self-determined within the dyad or it may be the result of romantic infatuation, 'loss of control', or peer pressure (Kantner & Zelnick, 1973). Westoff and Westoff (1968) address the issue of inadequate control in the decision to bear a child. They state that 'most planning failures are due to negligence and a tendency to take chances rather than in a method itself (p. 291). Diamond, Steinhoff, Palmore & Smith's (1973) research on birth control and abortion highlights the abdication of control regarding sexual decision-making. While coitus was anticipated by a majority of women and pregnancy was not desired, two-thirds of the women did not employ a contraceptive method. In response to the apparent lack of control,

Ansley Coale calls for a "calculus of conscious choice" (Coale, 1973) regarding fertility planning. Echoing Coale's position, Campbell, Townes, and Beach (1975) in their preliminary paper on counseling for childbearing state that "we are well aware that many do not approach childbearing in a considerate manner and that often births result from a failure to decide" (p. 2). Individuals tend to employ one of two stances: one either fails to choose to assume responsibility for one's sexual behavior and "the result is indecision, a decision based on vagaries of the moment or no decision at all and childbearing by default" (Campbell et al., 1975, p. 2). The other stance is to choose behavior in a rational manner according to a cost analysis model those "alternatives that offer...the maximum possible perceived benefit" (p. 3). Hence, Campbell et al. view choice in two dimensions: the first dimension is that of control. It is the choice of self-determination based on the subject's maximum benefit from the decision. The second dimension is that of non-determination or the abdication of control over decisions.

Cost benefit theory is reiterated in Luker's work on the theory of contraceptive risk-taking in which an unwanted pregnancy may be the consequence of rational decision-making assuming the availability and ease of abortion (Luker, 1975). According to Luker's research, abortion may be employed as a rational backup method of birth control. However, in the case of most pregnant adolescents, the literature has demonstrated that seeking an abortion is often an ex post facto decision to contracept rather than a weighed rational choice. That is, abortion becomes a forced decision after the fact not to have a child

(Hatcher, 1973).

For the adolescent, the choice to keep a child or give it up for adoption is usually a choice made primarily by the female adolescents' parents since they generally assume financial responsibility for the baby. The choice to keep the child may be tied to the decision to marry or remain single (Juhasz, 1975). If the couple marries for the sake of the child, the marriage is chosen on the basis of external pressures and usually, for adolescents, results in divorce.

The decision to marry or remain single in itself may be a rational choice based on rational decision-making or it may be due to various external pressures such as fear of loneliness, desire for intercourse or romantic infatuation.

The Statement of the Problem

Within each of the basic sexual decisions the adolescent, who is undergoing identity consolidation, is pressured either to assume responsibility for his sexual decision-making or to abdicate that responsibility. Assuming personal responsibility for decision making can be defined as the adoption of an internal locus of control. An individual with an internal locus of control is an individual who perceives events as contingent on his own behavior, while an individual possessing an external locus of control perceives events as contingent upon luck, fate, chance, or the control of powerful others (Rotter, 1966, p. 1).

Since sexual decision-making rests on the individual's value structure and the individual's perceived control over decisions, it is

of value to explore the relationship between the value structures which are basic to adolescent sexual decision-making and internal-external locus of control. The problems that remain for investigation are what factors or value structures are basic to adolescent sexual decisionmaking; what personality variables are associated with these value structures; and how are these value structures associated with internal and external locus of control and selected demographic variables.

Locus of control is significantly related to a variety of cognitive variables which are desirable for optimal decision-making. The literature supports a positive profile of decision-making for those individuals possessing an internal locus of control. Internals seek and apply more information and tend to be more considerate and deliberate in their decisions (Davis and Phares, 1967). Locus of Control is related to many of the same socialization variables as is decisionmaking. Family values exert a tremendous influence on the development of internality and externality with warm encouraging parents raising independent internally controlled children (Chance, 1965). Regarding the aspect of situational variables internals maintain the ability to function independently of the external pressures of the moment retaining their basic value system against large odds (Frank & Fionda, 1968).

Very little research has been conducted on the relationship of Locus of Control and sexual decision-making. However, internally controlled individuals display a finer decision-making mechanism. Dion and Dion (1973) related internality to a lack of belief in romantic love. Segal (1973) demonstrated that internality was associated with greater independence in the decision to carry a pregnancy.

The literature supports the contention that individuals who score low on the Internal-External Locus of Control continuum (that is, more internal individuals) possess those characteristics that are optimal for rational decision-making. Individuals who employ internal locus of control engage in behavior indicative of optimal decisionmaking while individuals who employ an external locus of control do not engage in behavior indicative of optimal decision-

This investigation will seek to discover those factors or value structures employed in the sexual decision-making of individuals possessing internal and external locus of control. This information would appear to be of value in the development of sex education programs for adolescents.

In the present investigation, the sexual decision-making factors will be derived from the <u>Juhasz Sexual Decision-Making Questionnaire</u> (1976), locus of control will be assessed by the <u>Internal-External Locus</u> <u>of Control Scale</u> (Rotter, 1966) and basic personality factors will be determined utilizing the <u>Junior-Senior High School Personality Ques-</u> <u>tionnaire</u> (Cattell, 1969). An attempt will be made to disclose the value factors which influence adolescent sexual decision-making and to determine the personality factors and locus of control orientation associated with each of these factors.

Purpose of the Research

The purpose of the study is to investigate those value factors reported by adolescents as most influential in their sexual decisionmaking and to discern the relationship of these factors with internal-

external locus of control, basic personality variables, and selected demographic variables.

Hypotheses of The Study

The following hypotheses were formulated to be tested in this study. They focus on the relationship between factors which influence adolescent sexual decision-making and locus of control, basic personality variables, and the following selected demographic variables: social class, religiosity, intelligence, grade level, sex and race.

1. Within the adolescent population of the study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and locus of control.

2. Within the adolescent population of the study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and personality.

3. Within the adolescent population of the study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and social class.

4. Within the adolescent population of the study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and degree of religiosity.

5. Within the adolescent population of the study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and intelligence.

6. Within the adolescent population of the study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual

decision-making and age.

7. Within the adolescent population of the study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and sex.

8. Within the adolescent population of the study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and race.

Limitations

It is important to note that the study under investigation is limited in two ways. Generalizability of the results is limited to a Catholic urban population since the study's sample is predominantly Catholic and resides in the metropolitan Chicago area. In addition, due to the fact that participation in the study was voluntary as well as based on parental permission and since the subject of sexuality may have disturbed conservative elements within this population, the sample may be slightly more liberal regarding sexuality.

Significance of The Study

There is no question that the epidemic incidence of teenage pregnancy, abortion, and venereal disease calls into question the sexual decision-making mechanism of adolescents.

Many studies have been designed to investigate the incidence of adolescent premarital sexual behavior (Verner, 1974), contraceptive use (Cahn, 1974), pregnancy, abortion (Hatcher, 1973; Kane & Lachenbruch, 1973), venereal disease (Arafat & Allen, 1977) and marriage (Moore, 1976). In addition, a few studies have begun to investigate the relationship between sexual behavior and control over the decision-making process (Westoff & Westoff, 1968; Diamond et al., 1973; Campbell et al., 1975; Luker, 1975). However, these studies have not dealt with an adolescent population and have merely concentrated on one specific sexual decision. The present study will involve a large adolescent population assessing reported influences on sexual decision-making regarding the six basic sexual decisions as presented in the Juhasz model (Juhasz, 1975).

The significance of the study is that it will unveil basic value structures involved in adolescent sexual decision-making and draw clear relationships between these value structures, locus of control, basic personality variables, and selected demographic variables. The research will provide a framework for the comparison of optimal decisionmakers with non-optimal decision-makers on value structure variables. Hopefully, such a discrimination will aid in the development of sex education programs involving value clarification.

Method of Procedure and Overview

Chapter II contains four major divisions. The first reviews the literature concerning the theoretical perspectives of adolescent sexuality. The second section discusses decision-making and its cognitive, socialization and situational dimensions. The third section provides the theoretical basis for and description of the Juhasz Sexual Decision-making Model which was adopted as the basis for the present investigation. The fourth and final section reviews the

literature related to sexual decision-making and the variables hypothesized in this study--that is, the relationship between sexual decision-making and internal-external control; basic personality variables; social class; religiosity; intelligence; age; sex and race.

Chapter III consists of a description of the research methodology and research design. It discusses the statistical hypotheses, the selection, construction, and adaption of the instruments employed, the selection of the sample, the procedure and data collection and finally the statistical procedure.

In Chapter IV the data is presented and analyzed employing the calculated factor scores of each individual in relation to personality variables, locus of control and selected demographic variables.

Chapter V will include an interpretation and discussion of the results of the data.

Chapter VI is a brief summary of the study. It describes the conclusions and recommendations drawn from the study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The review of the literature is designed to provide an examination of four areas pertinent to the nature of the present investiga-The theoretical perspective of adolescent sexuality will be tion. examined first in an attempt to establish adolescence as a critical period in the clarification of sexual identity and in sexual decisionmaking. A discussion of the nature of the decision-making process will follow. Sexual decision-making will be discussed in terms of its cognitive, socialization, and situational components. The third section of the review will focus on the Juhasz Sexual Decision-Making Model which has been adopted for the purposes of the present investigation. The theoretical basis of the model and its dimensions will be discussed. The final section of the review will investigate the relationship between sexual decision-making and the following variables which have been hypothesized within this research: internal-external locus of control, basic personality variables, social class, religiosity, intelligence, age, sex, and race.

Theoretical Perspectives of Adolescent Sexuality

Sexual development is one facet of the entire process of human development. It is the result of the interaction of various

biological, psychological and socio-cultural forces (Offer and Simon, The adolescent is faced with the task of identity formation 1976). (Erikson, 1968). Social, psychosocial and psychoanalytic theories alike stress the importance of sexuality in the identity formation The Eriksonian identity crisis involves the resolution of process. adolescent conflicts including the resolution of a sexual identity and the adoption of an appropriate sex role (Erikson, 1968). Havighurst's developmental tasks call for the adolescent's acceptance of his own body, the development of an appropriate sex role, preparation for marriage and a family and the fostering of new relationships with members of both sexes (Havighurst, 1952). Freud views the adolescent conflict as a regression to the genital stage oedipal conflicts which are resolved via peer interaction and the growing flexibility of the superego (Freud, 1953).

During adolescence biological, psychological, and sociocultural referents intensify the struggles involved in sexual development. Puberty is the catalyst for hormonal changes as well as for the development of secondary sex characteristics. For the male, this change usually introduces a pattern of frequent masturbation and a commitment to an independent sexuality minus emotional commitment. For the female, puberty with the onset of the menses is primarily negative. There is little genital exploration or masturbation. For females, sexuality is seen as relationship oriented (Offer and Simon, 1976).

Adolescent sexual behavior--necking, petting, and most especially intercourse is both pleasurable and at the same time fraught

with guilt and anxiety. It takes the adolescent many years to work through issues regarding sexuality. Later adolescence usually means greater autonomy for the individual. The adolescent is eligible for a drivers' license, is legally able to terminate schooling and coitus becomes legal. At this point heterosexuality for both genders looms in importance. During this period dating and social status become important issues. Males continue their pattern of frequent masturbation and their commitment to socio-sexuality begins to grow. For males, peer group judgment remains a major source of ego support and sexuality often serves a masculinity-confirming role. During this period most adolescents experience genital involvement with increasing numbers experiencing coitus. However, coitus with the initial partner usually occurs one to three times, and not within the context of an intimate relationship.

During this period, the male adolescent is given greater license and encouragement regarding sexual behavior by both parents and peers. Females on the otherhand are valued for their attractiveness, but generally not for their sexual behavior. Traditionally this has fostered a dilemma for the female in terms of the adoption of an internal and external sexuality. At the end of late adolescence, that is approximately age eighteen, the adolescent is approaching the years of expected heterosexuality. One's sexual status becomes the public concern of family and friends. Romantic relationships are expected. Hence the possiblity for an enduring sexual relationship is sanctioned within the social context. Females become willing to exchange sexual favors for greater commitment on the part

of the male. Males then, experience difficulty meshing intimacy with eroticism especially in regard to the women who are the objects of their romantic love. Women during this period are usually freer to enjoy their sexuality. Psychological issues for adolescents then involve coping with a changing body image (Havighurst, 1952) and dealing with sexual anxiety and guilt (Offer and Simon, 1976).

Both socio-cultural issues and the existing cultural <u>milieu</u> influence the attitudes developed in the process of sexual socialization (Spanier, 1975). Psychological and socio-cultural issues are rooted in the family. They involve the inculcation of behavior models and values. Infancy, early childhood, and late childhood are the foundation years for sexual behavior. At these stages the child is primarily a learner, absorbing information. Money and Ehrhardt (1972) confirm the importance of the parental role in establishing the gender identity of the child by the age of two and one-half. During these fundamental stages in sexualization, the child discovers biological differences, adopting familial attitudes regarding these discoveries (Offer and Simon, 1976). In addition the child models after familial sex roles, formulating basic opposite and same sex relationship styles (Mischel, 1966).

Since the role of the family is paramount in the sexualization process it behooves us to briefly concentrate on the problems which surround the modern family. The very concept of family is in flux. In 1976, the divorce rate exceeded 500 per 1,000 marriages--an increase of 7.1 from 1975--an all time high. The incidence of single parent families is increasing. Children of the divorced often receive

less support, nurturance and guidance due to the parents' preoccupation with their own problems. In addition, children may serve as pawns in a parental hate relationship (Henning and Oldham, 1977). At the baseline, divorce splits the family and removes at least one sex role model. In addition it leaves the child with deep emotional statements regarding the sexual relationship and male-female interac-Increased mobility has contributed to the dissolution of the tion. extended family, leaving relatives (possible role models) scattered about various sections of the nation or world. In addition woman's liberation has encouraged and legislated for the increased participation of women in activities outside the home. In essence, the family unit is experiencing great flux involving its very definition. The adolescent's identity formation task increases; he must sort through many more issues, emotions and varied models which currently influence his sexual socialization.

Thus, the adolescent is faced with the dual sexual decisionmaking tasks involving the synthesis of personal sexuality as well as the adoption of a personal form of sexual behavior. All this occurs within the cultural context of increased sexual liberality and the reduced influence of such traditional external inhibitors as the church and the family (Juhasz, 1975).

Decision-Making

In his book <u>Training for Decisions</u>, John Adair (1971) defines decision-making as the "mental process of weighing both sides--or all angles--of a question, controversy, or cause." (p. 50). A

decision is ultimately actualized in behavior. There are three basic components to the decision-making process. The first is a cognitive component. The cognitive component consists of two mental processes: analysis and synthesis. Analysis involves a mental dissection of all of the facets involved in the decision in an effort to uncover their underlying phenomena. The second process, synthesis, is the complement of analysis where one puts together parts or elements to make a gestalt. Hence, material dissected in the analytical process is reshuffled and integrated to form a whole or entire idea. The second component of decision-making involves the valuing process, that is thinking out alternatives in relation to one's values or standards. The final component involves situational variables, since the behavioral aim is limited by specific situational variables. In addition specific situations limit the number of alternatives open to the decision-maker. These are the components of decision-making which are necessary in adolescent decision-making.

The literature supports the existence of three basic components or characteristics which are required for adolescent sexual decisionmaking. These characteristics focus on three basic dimensions: cognitive influences, socialization influences and situation-specific influences.

Cognitive Influences on Sexual Decision-Making

Cognitive influences on sexual decision-making encompass the analytic and synthetic aspects of sexual decision-making. These include such issues as information seeking and basic sexual knowledge.

The literature within this area stresses the importance of sexual knowledge--biological knowledge (Goldstein, 1976), and coital and contraceptive knowledge (Juhasz, 1969). In general the literature support the contention that adolescents by and large lack adequate sexual information, that females are slightly more knowledgeable than males, and that whites are more knowledgeable than blacks (Delcampo, Sporakowski and Delcampo, 1976). In addition, the major sources of sex information for adolescents are: friends, school, books and magazines--in that order (Miller, 1973).

Analytic competence includes the ability to clearly think through behavioral alternatives. The research supports the contention that adolescents lack competence in this area. This lack may be due to the developmental nature of the adolescent period itself. Piaget would assert that formal operational thought would be a prerequisite for the formation of hypothetical thought patterns. In other words the adolescent must be capable of formal thought before he can hope to speculate on the alternatives that may ensue should he choose to engage in various sexual behavioral alternatives. The adolescent may not choose to contracept because he cannot hypothesize possible pregnancy, childbearing etc... (Cobliner, 1974). As Miller (1973) noted control over the use of contraception is dependent on the extent that its psychological and behavioral antecedents are consciously incorporated by the ego and related to the ego's goal-directed control. Perhaps the most insightful explanation of the adolescent's resistence toward the cognitive sexual dimension rests in Elkind's description of adolescent ego-centrism (Elkind, 1967). Adolescent egocentrism

consists of the adolescents belief in (1) the imaginary audience and (2) the personal fable.

A belief in an imaginary audience merely means that for the adolescent all eyes are on him; that others are as preoccupied with him as he is with himself. Relating this to sexuality the adolescent would tend to assume that his every sexual act and choice would be scrutinized by his immediate world. The adolescent is generally unwilling to openly <u>choose</u> a "permissive" attitude toward sexuality and hence adopts a "no stance" position toward sexuality. This aspect of adolescent thought is heavily tied to the socialization variables involved in sexuality. Parents exert a tremendous influence on the young adolescent for parental values most often play the role of "the audience" in the adolescent belief in an imaginary audience. The perceived and genuine parental values are projected on the entire relevant world and becomes the adolescents' audience.

In addition, the adolescent holds a personal fable about his value. According to Elkind (1967) this belief entails the adolescent's feeling of personal uniqueness and value. This specialness results in the belief that one is immune from the pain, crises and life consequences which may affect other mortals. Hence, the adolescent may truly believe that pregnancy <u>could</u> not happen to him or her (Cvetkovich, Grote, Bjorseth, Sarkissian, 1975).

In summary, the first dimension of adolescent sexual decisionmaking apparently involves cognitive issues such as sexual knowledge and information seeking and the ability to analyze and synthesize sexual alternatives. As has been established, the cognitive dimension may be rendered less effective by the very egocentric nature of adolescent thought.

Socialization Influences on Sexual Decision-Making

The second dimension of adolescent sexual decision making involves socializational influences. Socialization variables involve the synthesis of the sociocultural value system, the incorporation of values from the individual's sexual socialization process (Spanier, 1977), familial and parental values (Lane, 1976; Reiss, 1968) and peer value systems (Reiss, 1968). In this dimension, values loom in importance; values which occur in a milieu--a society, a culture, a group, a neighborhood. Parental values attribute the most influence in early childhood. During late childhood peers begin to gain importance as the primary group of influence (Bowerman & Kinch, 1959). Glass (1972) found that the standards of close friends were reported as closest to subjects' standards and parental standards less close than peer group standards. Mirande (1968) found college students' behavior conformed to the expectations of their peers. Females tended to conform to a greater degree than males. Vandiver (1972) and Kaats and Davis (1970) reaffirm the importance of the peer group.

The influence of the peer group tends to grow from early childhood to its peak in college years (Reiss, 1967). Reiss found that 83% of the individuals in his sample viewed themselves as less strict than their parents, 77% felt their standards were similar to their peers' and 89% felt their standards were similar to their very close friends' (Reiss, 1967). Spanier (1975) asserts the females hold family values in more reverence, while males are more affected by peer influence. Spanier feels that early parental influence regarding sexuality develops values but may encourage later guilt feelings, especially for females. Parental attitudes have been demonstrated to be a significant factor in the female's contraceptive choice and continued use of contraception (Graves, 1973).

Parental influences are significant for the young adolescent; however, for the older adolescent the partner's influence or the influence of the relationship becomes paramount. The influence of a partner may significantly alter the outcome of a sexual decision.

Kirkendall (1967) discusses the paucity of communication in intimate relationships. Such a lack of communication can affect sexual decision-making. Either one must assume or guess the partner's needs and feelings or ignore them in his decision-making. Libby and Carlson (1973) discuss the dynamics of decisions in the dyad. They discuss a variable which is most dynamic in the alteration of decision strategies--the principle of least interest. The principle of least interest states that "that person is able to dictate the conditions of association whose interest in the continuation of the affairs is the least" (Libby, 1973, p. 372). In other words the values, needs, and desires of the party most interested in the welfare of the relationship are suppressed and must defer to the values, needs and desires of the party who is least interested in the relationship. In a truly intimate relationship decisions are consensual with minimum devaluation of the values, needs and desires of both parties. Hence, in a consensual decision-making atmosphere optimal decisions

for the dyad can be realized.

Kantner and Zelnick (1973) found that the nature of adolescents' sexual activities are very sporadic and episodic due to a lack of stability within the dyad relationship. Reiss (1975) found that a general acceptance of one's own sexuality, self assurance, and a committed relationship are positive influences on contraceptive behavior.

Sorensen (1973) found that adolescents who employ birth control are more likely to be free of parental influence. As one male announced, "sex is my own business and not that of my parents."

Cohn (1977) discovered that the older the adolescent the less likely she desired to share issues regarding contraception with parents; however, the more likely she was to involve her partner. This was especially true of adolescents visiting planned parenthood for a "crisis" reason, namely, suspected pregnancy. However, 35% of the adolescents in Cohn's study reported that they did not discuss their need for contraception with their partner. The adolescent's inability to cope with birth control decisions may be due to his (her) inability to make even a tentative commitment to a sexual life especially without the protection of a stable sexual relationship. As Wagner's (1971) work suggests many female adolescents do not want to view themselves as "that kind of girl." Sorensen's (1973) research highlights this position. As one of the adolescents in his study put it:

Pills? That's what I should have taken; but I didn't want to take them because that's like coming right out and admitting, "I AM FUCKING," you know. I didn't want to admit that to myself.... I was trying hard to think I wasn't fucking that the thought I might get pregnant never entered my mind (p. 324).

Hence, the suppression or the inability to come to terms with the reality of the relationship can result in an abdication of control. Guilt over sexual activity can interfere with the choice to employ contraception (Pannor, 1970). If the adolescent becomes pregnant a relationship may be forced or "pretended" for the sake of the child. This often results in marriages which later dissolve.

Parents, peers, and partners do seem to exert an influence on adolescent's sexual decision-making. Within the adolescent's socialization process, the nature of the individual exerting influence as well as the degree of influence accepted is a function of the adolescent's changing primary relationships. For the early adolescent that relationship is with parents, the middle adolescent shifts primary relationship to the peer group, and in late adolescence the primary relationship is with the partner. Hence, parental, peer, and partner values do exert an influence on adolescent sexual decision-making.

Situational Influences on Sexual Decision-Making

The final dimension or characteristic of adolescent sexual decision-making is its situational nature. Situation-specific factors involve the individuals' specific situation and the recognized options open to the individual within that specific situation. The variables refer to the physical and social setting of a specific sexual decision such as marital status, autonomy of lifespace, finances, pregnancy status, availability of contraception and abortion.

In an effort to conceptualize the situation aspect in terms of adolescent sexual decision-making, the Juhasz Model of Sexual Decision-

Making has been chosen. The decisions set forth in the model will be employed in this study as the parameters of interest, on which examination of the situational factors will be based.

The Juhasz Sexual Decision-Making

Model: Theoretical Basis and Description

The purpose of a decision-making model is to "clarify relationships among numerous interacting factors" and facilitate optimal outcome (Greenwood, 1969, p. 533). It is a "search for optimal policy" (Kaufmann, 68, p. 100). The decision-making process involves understanding a specific situation and considering many of the variables affecting the situation (Greenwood, 1969). It aids analysis by providing a limited framework which minimizes time and effort while arriving at the "best" solution.

A decision-making model must be constructed to meet specific criteria: it must be relevant to the situation at hand; it must consider the phenomological viewpoints of the participants; it must consider broad environmental factors which the participant may or may not comprehend and it must provide expression for the participants' norms and values (Greenwood, 1969).

The utility aspect of a decision-making model focuses on the issue of outcome and evaluation. It is the ordering of alternatives. "Outcome consists of all the consequences of a given decision that concerns the person making the decision" (Cronbach, 1965). Outcome rests on the evaluation of the process. The individual's desires and aspirations form the "yardstick" used to measure the satisfaction of the decision itself (Hodson, 1974, p. 6). These aspirations and desires arise out of the individual's value system. Value systems vary from one individual to another. What looms in importance for one person may be valueless to another (Cronbach, 1965).

Values are applied to the decision options under consideration and possible outcomes are evaluated on an ordinal scale. Hence, the decision-maker must order outcomes in terms of a personal value function. The value function results in the probability outcomes of each possible option involved in the decision. "We can determine the expected payoff from an individual in a particular category by weighing the value of each outcome by its probability (Cronbach, 1965). The decision process becomes a strategy function, a set of "conditional probabilities." Given specific information about the individual and the situation, decision probabilities can be assessed. Probabilities become more reliable as the "number of events considered are increased" (Greenwood, 1969, p. 69).

The unique feature of a decision theory or utility theory is that "it specifies evaluations by means of a payoff matrix or by conversion of the criterion to utility units" (Cronbach, 1965, p. 121). The decision-maker need only compare the result of the most valued decision with its alternatives to find his decision rule. Thus in sequential decisions "each decision is associated with a certain probability distribution of expected consequences. Of two decisions, that one preferable for which the total distribution is preferable" (Cronbach, 1965, p. 130).

Maximization is the decision principle: "maximize the average gain" or "minimize the average loss" (Cronbach, 1965, p. 9). Such as evaluation is aligned with motivation theorists who assent to the pleasure principle, reinforcement, tension reduction, and restoration of equilibration in asserting that man's behavior is guided by an attempt to maximize pleasure and minimize pain (Vroom, 1960).

Greenwood (1969) describes two basic types of decision-making models: closed and open. The closed system focuses on a limited number of variables. Each action is viewed as leading to a set of consequences and takes the course of action associated with the best set of consequences. The rational individual considers the consequences and takes the course of action associated with the best set of consequences. An open decision model "is continually influenced by its total environment...a more realistic view of the decision maker is emphasized" (Greenwood, 1969, p. 76). He is viewed as possessing a complexity of values, roles, cultures, personality variables and motivations. The open system allows for the fact that "an individual cannot weigh all the alternatives" (Greenwood, 1969, p. 77). The open model differs from the closed in its consideration of individual aspirations rather than specific goals; the relationships between alternatives and outcomes are not always clearly defined; less than all the alternatives are considered and finally the individual finds a solution which may not be maximum, but which does "satisfy an aspiration level" (Greenwood, 1969, p. 77). In effect, the open model theory is much more realistic, especially for application in the helping professions. The open model "brings to

bear the totality of forces--external and internal to the decision-influencing a decision" (Greenwood, 1969, p. 8).

The Juhasz model for sexual decision-making (see Figure 1, p. 5) is an open model. Each decision, when resolved, results in a probability distribution of subsequent consequences. It is designed to replace the irrational chance probability approach where control and responsibility are abdicated. Chance models of behavior probability rely on constructs of luck or chance and the philosophy that "fate had preordained what would happen...that powerful others control one or that one simply could not predict the effects of this behavior because the world is too complex and confusing" (Rotter, 1971, p. 42). Since the model is open, it allows for a great diversity of variables. The variables are differentially effective at each stage of the model. The model dissects sexual behavior into chronologically sequential units capable of examination. It is a decision tree (Greenwood, 1969) of invariant sequences. The model requires that value functions be employed for the resolution of each stage of the model. These value functions stem from the value hierarchy present in the individual and allows the individual to resolve conflict at each stage of the model by introducing value functions which result in an ordering of solution probabilities. An ordinal solution scale results.

These are the six basic questions and the choice or results that lead from each one to the next: (1) Intercourse or no intercourse?--(2) Children or no children?--(A decision about the use of birth control is relevant for those who plan a family as well as for those who do not want children); (3) Birth control or no birth control? (if pregnancy results); (4) Delivery or abortion? (if delivery is chosen); (5) Keep the child or give it up? (either case); (6) Remain single or marry? (whether or not a child is involved, couples may consider the possibility of marriage).

Question six could have been the first link in the chain. For adolescents today, the first question is most often to have intercourse or not. (Juhasz, 1975, p. 44).

In facing the decision "To have intercourse or not to have intercourse an individual would construct a value hierarchy (love, religiosity, personal belief system...etc.) On the basis of the hierarchy, value functions would be assigned to the possible outcomes. On the basis of this specific situation and these specific variables an ordinal scale of outcomes would result.

An individual's value constructs can be investigated by employing an inferential approach which uses the model in an inverse fashion. It is an "aposteriori interpretation of the values which are consistent with the action" (Cronbach, 1965, p. 127). By examining an individual's choices one can decipher a pattern of decision-making influences reflective of a particular type of value system.

In summary, the Juhasz model provides a situational framework for the analysis of cognitive influences and value structures which affect adolescent decision-making. The Juhasz model has been chosen as the basis for this investigation of the factors which influence adolescent sexual decision-making.

The final section remaining for review concerns the relationship between adolescent sexual decision-making and the hypothesized variables of interest within the present study.

Sexual Decision-Making

and its Relationship to

Hypothesized Variables

This section of the review is designed to investigate the established relationships between sexual decision making and the variables pertinent to the present investigation. These variables include the concept of control, selected personality variables, social class, religiosity, intelligence, age, sex, and race.

Sexual Decision-making and Control

The issue of control is paramount to sexual decision-making. Mahoney and Thoresen (1972) stated that control over sexual behavior is the basic determinant of a civilized society--a reiteration of Freud's point in <u>Civilization and its Discontents</u> (1953). Through control an individual selects, values and channels sexual information actualizing it within a specific situation. The issues of sexual control or abdication of that control are applicable at each stage of sexual decision-making.

Adolescent premarital sexual intercourse is increasing due to the lack of external pressure from family and church, as well as the reduced fear of pregnancy resulting from the availability of contraception and abortion. In addition adolescent relationships are more autonomous (Arafat & Yorburg, 1973) and less chaperoned. However, the reduction of external control has not resulted in an increase in internal control over sexual behavior and its consequences. Control

over sexual behavior is accepted or abdicated depending on the situational contingencies impinging on the adolescent. Issues regarding the assumption of control over sexual behavior or abdication of control are pertinent at each stage of the Juhasz sexual decision-making model. The decision to engage in sexual intercourse may be a consensual decision within the dyad, the result of partner coercion, "romantic love," or peer pressure. Westoff and Westoff (1968) point to the paucity of rational choice regarding pregnancy, highlighting the tendency of individuals to take chances or simply behave negligently regarding birth control. Diamond et al. (1973) illustrate this negligence dramatically in their findings: while coitus was anticipated by the majority of the women in this study and pregnancy was not desired, only two-thirds of the women chose to practice any form of contraception. Campbell et al. (1975) simply state that many births "result from a failure to decide" (p. 2).

Bauman (1976) studied the contraceptive behavior of a random sample of college students and found that while 50% of the nonvirgins had access to contraception only one-third of this group employed contraceptives all the time. The reasons most often given for non-use were: intercourse was not anticipated (38%); intercourse occurred only during safe periods (22%); intercourse should be spontaneous (33%); and it was too embarrassing to get any contraception (16%). Hence guilt seems to encourage the abdication of control regarding the decision to contracept.

Regarding the issue of abortion, while Luker's research supports the contention that abortion may be a rational backup

method of birth control based on weighed rational choices, the literature of adolescent abortions does not support this contention. In 1975 approximately one-third of the women seeking abortions were in their teens. Among teenagers receiving abortions in 1975, 50% were 18 or 19 years old, while only 5% were 14 or younger (Center for Disease Control, 1977). Older teenagers may be choosing abortion rationally; however, for the younger adolescent abortion is most often a forced choice or an ex post facto decision to contracept rather than a weighed rational choice, (Hatcher, 1973). For the adolescent, the choice to keep a child or give it up for adoption is basically a parental decision, since the adolescents' parents usually assume the financial burden of the child. In addition if the adolescent marries for the sake of the child, marriage again becomes a forced choice and usually results in a later divorce.

Teenage marriages are twice as likely to end in divorce as marriages that occur in the twenties. (Glick & Norton, 1977). Wagner, Perthou, Fugita and Pion (1969) report that one of every six women gives birth within eight months of her first marriage. Tillack, Tyler, Pacquette, and Jones (1972) discovered that 73% of 16 year olds in one county who married in 1968 were pregnant. Cvetkovich et al. (1975) assert that premarital pregnancy is the major reason for adolescent marriages. The lack of emotional maturity and the inability to accept the long range commitments of marriage and parenthood result in an early dissolution of the marriage. This explains the 50% divorce rate of adolescent marriages within their first four years (Seminens, 1970).

Without the issue of pregnancy, marriage, like the decision to engage in sexual intercourse, may be due either to various external pressures, such as romantic love, fear of loneliness or partner coersion or it may be due to rational consensual choices.

The issue of control over sexual decisions then can be viewed in two dimensions: the first dimension is that of internal control which is a determination based on the individual's perceived maximum benefit from the decision. The second dimension is that of abdication of control or the acceptance of an external control or determinant of one's choice. The adolescent must either assume control or abdicate personal responsibility for choice. In terms of Social Psychology, the assumption of personal responsibility for decisionmaking is defined as internal control, while the abdication of such responsibility is defined as an external locus of control. Since sexual decision-making rests on the individual's basic value of structure as determined by cognitive, socialization and situational influences as well as perceived control it would be of value to briefly explore the relationship between Locus of Control and cognitive, socialization and situational influences.

The Concept of Locus of Control: Rotter's Social Learning theory (Rotter, 1954; 1955; 1960) forms the theoretical foundation for the internal-external locus of control dimensions. The definition that formed the basis of the early work on the I-E scale and still defines the I-E dimensions is as follows:

When reinforcement is perceived by the subject as following some action of his own but not being entirely contingent upon his action, then, in our culture, it is typically perceived as the

result of luck, chance, fate, as under the control of powerful others or as unpredictable because of the great complexity of forces surrounding him...we have labeled this a belief in external control. If a person perceives that the event is contingent upon his own relatively permanent characteristics, we have termed this belief in internal control. (Rotter, 1966, p. 1)

Experiments involving skill and chance have confirmed this theory (Cohen, 1960; Goodnow, 1955; Liverant, 1960; Phares, 1962; Wyckoff, 1955).

Locus of Control and Cognitive Variables: Locus of Control is significantly related to a variety of cognitive variables with internals displaying those characteristics most desirable for optimal decision making. Internals ask more questions and make better use of their information than do externals (Davis and Phares, 1967). Internals are more likely to attend to clues which help them resolve uncertainties (Lefcourt and Wine, 1969). They are quicker to respond to changing environmental conditions and less easily duped (Lefcourt, Gronnerud, and Mc Donald, 1973). Seeman and Evans (1962) found that internal patients had more knowledge about their diseases than did externals. Wolk and DuCette (1974) discovered that internals did consistently better than externals in both intentional and incidental learning measures.

When the task was perceived as skill demanding, internals displayed a stronger belief in their own decision-making powers and spent more time deliberating about their decisions than did externals (Rotter and Mulry, 1965). Internals also tended to follow through on decisions. Internals who read the Surgeon General's report on cigarette smoking chose to stop smoking (Platt, 1969).

As the difficulty of the decision increased, Julian and Katz (1968) found that internals required more time than externals to make decisions. Hence, internals considered more dimensions and variables before arriving at a decision.

Locus of Control and Socialization Variables: The familial environment provides the basis for the development of early socialization. The family exerts tremendous influence on the development of an individual's locus of control. Chance (1965) found that internal males had mothers who expected early independence and trained these behaviors in their boys. Internality is associated with maternal warmth, and a pattern of parental approval. For females, parental rejection is related to high externality and a child's belief in internal control of reinforcements is related to the degree to which the parents are protective, nurturant, approving and nonrejecting (Kathowsky, Crandall and Good, 1967). Davis and Phares (1969) found that internals experienced a parental push toward independent behavior during later childhood.

Regarding the aspect of external influence on decision-making behavior and locus of control, the literature supports the autonomy of the internal. In Asch-like conformity tasks, internals trusted their own judgments while externals displayed more confidence in the con-. sensual judgment of others (Crowne and Severant, 1963). Brondo and MacDonald (1971) found that externals were more compliant than internals regardless of the style of influence. Gore (1962) found that internals resisted influence on their responses to test questions. Strickland (1970) revealed that internals were less amenable to conditioning experiments. Lefcourt (1967) discovered that internals were unresponsive to attempts at external manipulation. In addition, externals have shown a greater tendency to conform to influence (Odel1, 1959).

Locus of Control and Situational Variables: Locus of Control has been related to behavior in uncomfortable situations. Johnson et al. (1968) discovered that internals are more willing to tolerate pain for doing what they construe to be proper behavior. In addition, internals are more likely to help others even when penalized for doing so. Johnson, Ackerman, Frank and Fionda (1968) assert that internals display a greater resistance to temptation and less acknowledgement of guilt.

Shifts toward internality have been observed due to situational intervention or alteration. The longer one holds an administrative position, the more internally one scores on the I-E scales (Harvey, 1971). Reimanis (1971) contrived to alter perceived control changing externals to internals via educational programs; however, these gains dissipated over time. DeCharmes (1972) employed an extensive training program to affect changes in subjects' perceptions from pawn to originator of personal causation. Longitudinal follow-up studies have reported the enduring results of the training. Therapy groups and group awareness sessions have initiated shifts toward greater internality (Foulds, 1972; Dua, 1970).

Locus of Control and Sexual Decision-making: The literature supports a dearth of information on Locus of Control and sexual behavior. Dion and Dion (1973) correlated locus of control and belief in romantic love. They found that fewer internals reported romantic attachment. Internals found love less mysterious. Segal (1973) related premarital pregnancy and locus of control and found that white middle-class nonpregnant girls tended to score internally while the pregnant subjects tended to score externally. Black lowerclass pregnant girls tended toward internality and nonpregnant girls tended toward externality. The review of the literature supports the contention that individuals who score low on the Internal-External Locus of Control continuum (that is, more internal individuals) possess those characteristics that are optimal of good decision-making. The problem that arises then for investigation is: what influences on sexual decision-making arise for adolescents and more specifically, how are influences on adolescent sexual decision-making associated with locus of control?

The following section will consider the relationship between sexual decision-making and personality variables.

Sexual Decision-making and Personality

Some of the most basic research that has been conducted on sexual behavior has had to do with the relationship of sexual behavior to personality variables. This has been especially true in the areas of premarital intercourse, teenage pregnancy and abortion. There is a substantial American tradition associating premarital sexual permissiveness with deviance and teenage premarital pregnancy with low ego control and impulsivity. Abortion has been associated with both positive and negative psychological profiles as has the decision to

bear and keep a child.

Premarital sexual intercourse has been largely related to guilt feelings for adolescents. This is primarily due to our culture's religious taboos regarding sexuality--especially sexuality outside of the marital relationship. In addition cultural pressures contribute to guilt and self-esteem issues. Perlman (1974) relates self-esteem with permissiveness and found self-esteem directly related to one's acceptance of the behavior prescribed in the community or culture in which one lives. Hence to feel worthwhile, the individual must seek a compromise between his courtship activity and his milieu.

Bakikian and Goldman (1971) assert that pregnant teenagers tend to lack ego and super-ego structures. Young (1954) has asserted that the teenager may have an unconscious desire for pregnancy either to gratify their own needs or push themselves or their parents. Pregnant teenagers do tend to display low self-esteem, lack adequate father figures and display deep feelings of inadequacy and depression (Juhasz, 1974). In contrast, female college students who employ birth control show a greater degree of internalization and less dogmatism (Lundy, 1972).

In the Kane and Lachenbruch (1973) research on pregnant teenagers who chose either to deliver the child or abort, both groups tended toward acting out behavior. They tended to be both rebellious and antisocial, leaving home early and discontinuing school at an early age. Teenagers choosing to deliver were either too sensitive or too insensitive, in addition they rated themselves as more impulsive, dominant and apt to externalize aggressive feelings. These

girls tended to be more anxious and neurotic than girls who chose abortion. Aborters tended to display more guilt and fear of discovery regarding coital behavior. In general, adolescents who chose to deliver tended to be more disturbed and less reality oriented and future oriented than did those adolescents who chose abortion. Hatcher's (1973) work would support these contentions.

Many women who choose to deliver their child do not really want the child--the child is viewed as undesirable (Moore, 1976). Such illegitimate children are three times as likely to be abused as Gelles states "the unwanted child can become the received of parents' aggression...because the unwanted child is, in fact, a source of stress for the family. The abusive parent <u>is not</u> lashing out at a projected source of his troubles, he is beating a concrete source of family stress" (Gelles, 1973).

In general, the literature regarding the relationship between mental health and abortion is in a relative state of flux. Abortion has been viewed as both psychologically harmful and psychologically healthy. A clear pattern regarding mental health and abortion is only beginning to emerge. There is significant debate as to the degree of psychological turmoil induced by abortion. Researchers assert that abortion causes severe mental and physical trauma, guilt, selfreproach, sexual neurosis (Muller, 1966) as well as long term delayed trauma during menopause (Janscon, 1965). In addition unmarried women seem to have more psychological difficulty with abortion than do married women. Gladstone (Calderone, 1958) notes that frustration, hostility, and guilt are the three basic psychological reactions to

abortion. Payne et al. (1976) noted anxiety, anger, depression, guilt and shame in preabortion patients. In addition they noted that the levels of each affect dropped significantly after the abortion. The literature concerning psychological motivations for pregnancy theorizes that abortion patients have excessive masochistic and aggressive tendencies (Senturia & Roehman, 1967 in Martin, 1973).

Patt, Rappoport and Barglow (1969) report in their four year follow-up of aborters, that most women enjoy psychological improvement following abortion. They found that dependence decreased as did masochistic tendencies. In addition their trust in significant others increased. Jansson (1965) views the issues of post abortion psychological stress as simply a continuation and perhaps enhancement of psychological problems present before the abortion. Jacobsson et al. (1976) report that aborters display greater stress patterns, often growing up in broken homes and often regarding their childhood as inadequate. Repeat aborters also tended to come from broken homes with a history of alcoholism in their families. Aarons in his work with teenagers has found abortion to be the least psychologically damaging alternative to pregnancy. Aarons (1967) feels that for a teenager "to be forced to assume responsibility for which one is not prepared will reinforce if not precipitate the outbreak of neurosis" (p. 748). Lee sums up the status of the research on abortion when she states, "For some women, the whole experience is a nightmare of guilt, anxiety, and suffering. Others go through it with little difficulty and no physical ill effects" (1969, p. 40).

The decision to marry is often chosen especially by whites to

legitimize a pregnancy. Such a decision is often a reaction to a perceived lack of options (abortion and/or adoption) and to the feeling of dependency (Moore, 1976).

Issues of personality traits and sexual decisions tend to be crisis oriented, that is, questions of psychological adjustment are researched in regard to issues such as the loss of virginity, unwed pregnancy and abortion. In contrast to the crisis perspective, this study purports to examine the psychological traits associated with adolescent sexual decision-making without the context of a psychological crisis situation. The subjects in this study, have not been drawn from a population seeking sexual crisis help. This study will attempt to draw a relationship between adolescent sexual decisionmaking and personality traits in a normal adolescent population.

Sexual Decision-Making and Social Class

The relationship between adolescent sexual decision-making and social class is complicated by the increased sexual liberality within our society. Traditionally the literature has substantiated a positive relationship between lower social status and sexual permissiveness (Bell & Chaskes, 1970). Vener et al. (1972) found a negative relationship between father's social class and having had premarital sexual intercourse. In addition Bergen (1972) found a positive relationship between urban residential background and having had premarital sexual intercourse.

Premarital sexual intercourse, teenage pregnancy, illegitimacy, abortion, and early forced marriages have traditionally been associated

with the lower social classes. The lower social classes are said to be more pleasure oriented--more concerned with immediate gratification. This is especially true of the lower class male (Rosenberg & Bensman, 1968). The lower class male tends to be more peer group oriented, with sexual behavior, chiefly intercourse, serving to enhance his status within the peer group. In addition lower social class relationships tend to be less equalitarian: as Rosenberg and Bensman put it "the female is a necessary but unequal partner" (1968, p. 125).

Elias and Gebhard found that three times as many blue-collar boys attempted premarital intercourse than did white collar boys. In addition they note that lower class parents are less likely than upper-class parents to provide their children with sexual information. Hence lower social class adolescents tend to be information poor regarding sexual knowledge as well as contraceptive knowledge (Rosenberg and Bensman, 1968). In general, the pregnant teenager tends to come from a lower socio-economic level (Juhasz, 1974).

There is a significant relationship between poverty and out of wedlock pregnancy for the teenager. In fact these two situations tend to produce an interaction effect: with lower socio-economic levels tending toward premarital pregnancy and premarital pregnancy insuring greater financial strain. As Nettleton and Cline (1975) note the unmarried white mother tends to be extremely poor. Combs (1970) found a negative association between premarital pregnancy and socioeconomic class. Pregnancy reduced the mother's working ability putting an additional strain on an already strained economic situation. In addition a pregnant teenager usually lacked male financial

support. Moore (1976) reported that many pregnant women resort to welfare. In 1973, she notes that 32% of AFDC children were illegitimate. In addition, Moore notes that HEW estimates that of the children not legitimatized via marriage or adopted, 80 percent end up on welfare. Senator Kennedy (1975) stated that 60 percent of unmarried mothers are on welfare.

Johnson (1974) asserts that adolescent pregnancy is on the rise for adolescents in lower socio-economic classes. Rosen, Martindale, and Grisdela (1976) support this contention. Most of the pregnant adolescents in their study came from blue collar families. In this study more black than white girls planned to keep their child and remain single. Black girls generally tend not to want to marry their babies' fathers, while white girls are more inclined toward marriage (Babikian & Goldman, 1971).

Jacobson (1976) reported that aborters tended to have an unfavorable economic status and tended to be alone. Women with low socio-economic status showed the highest levels of pre and post abortion depression (Payne et al., 1976). Kane and Lachenbruch (1973) found that 71% of adolescent aborter's parents tended to have white collar jobs while 24% had blue collar jobs. There is less of a tendency for lower socio-economic groups to abort or employ marriage as a resolution to adolescent pregnancy. This is particularly true of blacks. Lower socio-economic groups tend to employ pregnancy as a source of gratification and self-esteem.

Sorensen's (1975) work did not confirm the traditional picture of lower economic status and sexual involvement. Rather Sorensen found

a positive relationship between social class and premarital sexual behavior, that is, as income level increased so did the degree of participation in premarital sexual behavior. If this is the case, then why are pre-maritally pregnant teenagers over-represented in lower socio-economic classes? The answer to that question may be two-fold. First, the frequency of premarital teenage pregnancy has increased in all socio-economic categories (Zelnik & Kantner, 1977). This is due to a general increase in teenage sexual activity. The second variable may be the future-oriented achievement-oriented value structure of the upper socio-economic classes.

Upward mobility may be the important issue here. Individuals who are future oriented and hold specific life goals may be more protective of those goals and hence employ contraception and abortion as self-protective mechanisms. Upwardly mobile black parents tended to approve of family and clearly rejected illegitimacy (Johnson, 1974). In addition Smith (1973) reported that upper social class black parents had a higher degree of conjugal role relationships and tended to plan their lives and family size while lower class black parents indicated a desire to plan, but lacked the knowledge, stamina and resources to follow through on planning.

Goldsmith, Gabrielson, Gabrielson, Mathews and Potts (1972) found that individuals with future oriented goals tend to contracept. Goldsmith et al. found that "Greater scholastic and vocational interests of the contraceptive group confirms our impression that girls in this group are more apt to plan their lives and were more achievement criented than girls in the pregnancy group" (p. 33).

Reiss (1975) found that upwardly mobile young women interested in educational advancement made the best use of contraceptive methods. Delcampo and Sporakowski (1976) found that knowledge about contraception increased with increased socio-economic status. In addition Lundy (1972) found that unmarried female college students who employed contraception tended to be significantly more internalized or selfregulated and less rigidly dogmatic than non-users of contraceptives. Moore (1976) reported that higher female earnings were associated with lower fertility rates among whites.

The aspiration-achievement issues as it relates to class structure has been analyzed in relation to the decision to marry. Nye and Berardo's (1973) model of age at marriage contains the **b**asic thesis that marriage is related to various socio-economic antecedents. Bartz and Nye (1970) have delineated two basic propositions of **t**he model:

- the lower the social class, the more likely early marriage will occur.
- 2. the earlier the marriage, the more likely the lower social class placement of the couple (p. 266).

Nye and Berardo (1973) add two more propositions to the model:

- 3. the lower the social class, the lower the aspirations and achievements.
- 4. the lower the aspirations and achievements, the more likely early marriage will occur (pp. 239-240).

Early marriage, then, according to this model, is dependent upon socioeconomic status which is related to level of aspiration. Early marriages result from lower levels of aspiration and lower socioeconomic status. However, recent research conducted by Call and Otto

(1977) on male adolescents shows a much more complex picture. The findings of their study based on 17-year-old males who were followed over a 15 year period assert that age at marriage has a negative influence on income. In this study, the relationship between socioeconomic status and age at marriage was inconsistent. They conclude that age at marriage is not a useful predictive concept of socioeconomic status.

Socio-economic status does seem to be related to premarital sexual behavior, but the trend does seem to be moving toward an equalization between the classes regarding sexual activity. However, lower class individuals tend to employ less contraception, abort less and more often keep their babies. White girls tend to employ marriage as a solution to pregnancy more often than do black girls. The relationship between marriage and social class cannot be clearly delineated.

The focus of the present study as it relates to socioeconomic status is to ascertain whether specific relationships exist between the value structures involved in adolescent sexual decisionmaking and social class.

Sexual Decision-Making and Religiosity

Religiosity has traditionally been associated with low premarital sexual permissiveness outside of the marital dyad. There has been substantial debate over how one measures religiosity, whether it be church affiliation, church attendance or self-perceived degree of religiosity. Sorensen (1976) reported that religious affiliation by

itself was a poor predictive variable of sexual behavior. Reiss (1967) used frequency of church attendance as a measure of religiosity noting a negative relationship between religiosity and premarital sexual permissiveness. Ruppel (1970) Heltsley, and Broderick (1969) employed multi-dimensional religiosity scales and found that religiosity and permissiveness were negatively related for whites but not for blacks with equally significant negative relationships for both males and They concluded that religiosity will lower the level of prefemales. marital sexual permissiveness of a group only if the religion preaches abstinence. This may be generalizable to other areas of sexual behavior such as abortion. Thomas (1973) found that the more regularly the individual attended church, the less sexually permissive was the individual. Hobart (1974) found weekly church attendance to be more predictive of chaste men than chaste women. Infrequent church attendance was more predictive of female permissiveness than male permis-Staples' (1971) research supported an inverse relationship siveness. between religiosity and permissiveness for whites, but not for blacks and for females, but not for males. Davidson (1972) found a negative relationship between religious orthodoxy and participation in premarital intercourse among females. Holmes (1972) found Catholic college students more in favor of the double standard and generally less liberal than secular college students. Arafat and Yorburg (1973) found Protestant females to be more likely to have had premarital intercourse than Jewish females or Catholic females. The literature generally supports a negative relationship between church affiliation and having had premarital sexual intercourse (Bergen,

1972). In addition, Mosher and Cross (1971) have found a negative relationship between sex guilt and having had premarital intercourse. Curran (1975) found that the more sexually experienced individuals in his study tended to be significantly less religious.

Regarding the issue of the use of contraceptives, Thomas (1973) found no relationship between religiosity and birth control use, while Diamond (1973) found that 72% of the pregnant Catholic women gave their religious belief against birth control as their basic reason for not employing contraception. In addition, Catholics in this study chose abortion less frequently than did Protestants and Buddhists.

Abortion is an issue which has been condemned by many religious denominations. In particular, the Catholic religion has waged the prolife crusade against abortion legislation. Hence, it would be expected that Catholics would have the most difficulty with a decision to abort. Payne et al. (1976) found that Catholics experienced more guilt and shame regarding abortion than did Protestants and Protestants more than Jews.

In another substantial study, the relationship between religiosity and abortion indicated that for women deciding to abort, religion was not influential in their decision. Rosen, Martindale, and Grisdale (1976) reported a 28% Catholic representation in the abortion category with 85% of the aborters reporting no religious influence on their decision. Sixty-nine percent of the women in this study who decided to bear the child reported no religious influence on their decision. Regarding the decision to keep a child

when single, three-quarter said their religious beliefs were not influential. However, in the decision to release the child for adoption, or keep the child, 51% of the pro-adoption women stated that they were greatly affected by their religious beliefs in making this Martin (1973) found no correlation between degree of decision. religious training and post abortion adjustment. In her study however, the eight most devout girls did have difficult adjustments to the abortion. In addition, Martin found that in many cases her subjects altered their religious and moral beliefs following abortion toward a more liberal belief -- perhaps out of cognitive dissonance. Jacobsen et al. (1976) found aborters reported that they were not a religious group and repeat aborters reported the least degree of religious involvement. It may be that individuals who choose abortion as an alternative to pregnancy resolve the abortion-religion incompatibility by divorcing themselves from religion.

Regarding the decision to marry, religious denomination may play a general role with individuals seeking to marry within the same denomination. This has been traditionally the case for Catholics and Jews, and less so for Protestants. However, increased religious ecumenism as well as the mobility of modern society has resulted in the rise of inter-denominational marriages. Degree of religiosity; however, may be quite another matter. Reiss (1967) noted the female role as the harbinger of traditional cultural and religious values within the home. In general he noted that females tended to be more religious than males. Hence it would seem that within the marital dyad less religious males would tend to marry more religious females.

The focus of the present study regarding basically Catholic students is to investigate the manner in which religiosity is related to adolescent sexual decision-making. The question to be investigated is how adolescent sexual decision-making values are associated with religiosity. In addition, what role does religiosity play in the adolescent sexual decision-making process?

Sexual Decision-Making and Intelligence

The relationship between sexual decision-making and intelligence is a function of cognitive complexity and the ability to intellectually hypothesize the consequences of potential behavior. As Cvetkovich et al. (1975) assert, the early adolescent displays egocentric modes of thought which directly inhibit his ability to comprehend the consequences of sexual activity. In addition adolescent egocentricity tends to make the adolescent feel immune from life's disasters--a pregnancy <u>could not</u> result from his sexual activity--such things do not happen to him.

The relationship between intelligence and adolescent sexual decision-making has chiefly been investigated in terms of educational involvement. Higher educational levels have been associated with greater degrees of sexual and contraceptive knowledge (Reiss, 1967).

Kinsey, Pomeroy and Martin (Juhasz, 1973) assert that a higher educational level is associated with a desire to preserve virginity until marriage and hence a greater adoption of petting to replace coitus. Lower educational levels do not hold these values. Either they hold virginity as a value and avoid heavy petting to orgasm as

well or they engage in sexual behavior, but <u>without</u> the orientation of a relationship.

Miller and Simon (1975) found that males and females regardless of age were about twice as likely to have coitus if they were not college bound. In addition they note that adolescents who aspire toward a college education tend to postpone coitus.

Pauker (1969) in his study found pregnant teenagers tended to be less bright than non-pregnant teenagers. Menken (1972) found that pregnant teenagers usually terminated education early with hardly onethird completing high school. Moore (1976) asserts that pregnancy is by far the most frequent single reason for female school dropouts. In addition many of the males involved in a premarital pregnancy do not complete their high school education. Jansson (1965) notes that large numbers of aborters had a history of poor academic achievement and tend to repeat classes. Sandweiss (PETA, 1970) reports that many of these girls do not do well in school. However, there is evidence to support the relationship between the decision to abort and the desire to continue educational aspirations (Luker, 1975). In addition, Martin found no significant relationship between intellectual ability and abortion adjustment. However, individuals seeking to keep a child usually terminated their educational involvement (Martin, 1973).

Regarding the decision to marry, individuals who continue intellectual pursuits tend to postpone marriage until a later date. Individuals who terminate their education at an earlier date tend to marry at an earlier age (Call and Otto, 1977).

The present study seeks to clarify the relationship between

intelligence, as defined by a standardized measure of IQ, and adolescent sexual decision-making. The study attempts to investigate the relationship between those factors which influence sexual decision-making and intelligence in an effort to discover the areas in which intelligence may play a role in the decision-making process.

Sexual Decision-Making and Age

The relationship between sexual decision-making and age is quite pertinent to the view of adolescence as a developmental stage. In general parental influence is greater for younger adolescents than for older adolescents (Reiss, 1967). Unfortunately as Cahn's (1977) research illustrates this parental influence can take a negative turn when the issue is sexuality. As Cahn illustrated there is a direct relationship between age and the adolescent's ability to turn to parents. Less than one-third of the parents were aware of their child's need for any birth control information. This lack of involvement or communication was most often due to the adolescent's expectations of a negative parental reaction.

In terms of a crisis age group within adolescence Cahn (1977) asserts that "if there is any group that, more than any other, needs support for family planning decisions it is teenagers 15 years of age and younger...fully one-quarter have no one to discuss the matter with at all" (p. 215). It is indeed this very age group which today experiments increasingly with sexuality while being totally incapable of either understanding or dealing with the consequences of such activity. Zelnik and Kantner (1976) found that teenagers tended to

experience sex earlier (an average of four months earlier) than in the previous decade. In addition they found that premarital sexual intercourse was on the upswing compared to studies conducted in 1971. Of the women age, 15 to 19, 55% had experienced intercourse compared with 47% in 1971. The greatest increase was among the seventeen year olds--27% admitted to sex in 1971 compared with 41% in 1976.

Reiss (1967) suggests that age at which dating begins is a factor which increases premarital sexual permissiveness. Bell and Chaskes (1970) reported that girls who began dating early had higher rates of premarital coitus. Delcampo and Sporakowski (1976) found that students who dated at an early age were more sexually permissive, but less knowledgeable regarding contraception.

Naturally, sexual activity tends to increase as a function of age. Sorensen (1976) found a positive relationship between increasing age and the proportion of highly sexually active individuals in his study. As students grow older the more likely they are to engage in sexual behavior.

Perhaps the most troubling aspect of the "sexual revolution" or increase in sexual behavior is the teenager's apparent lack of concern with the consequences of sexual behavior--namely pregnancy. Zelnik and Kantner (1976) found that 37% of their sexually experienced teen population had not used birth control during their last sexual experience and 25% said they had never used birth control. They did find, however, that the use of birth control tended to increase as a function of age. Zelnik and Kantner (1977) have found that pregnant teenagers are tending to terminate their pregnancies by aborting.

Out-of-wedlock births have been decreasing at a substantial rate due to the availability of abortion. HEW (1977) reports that among teenagers receiving abortions in 1975, 50 percent were 18 or 19 years old and 5 percent were 14 years old or younger. Jacobsson (1976) reported that the aborters in his study tended to be under twenty. Niswander and Patterson (1967) noted a high rate of psychological stress regarding abortion for young women under twenty. This stress did tend to dissipate with time. Payne et al. (1976) found that younger women manifested more depression and guilt regarding abortion than did older women.

Perhaps the most impressive research centering on age differences, adolescence, and sexual behavior has been conducted by Hatcher (1973) who suggests a developmental determinant to adolescent pregnancy and abortion. She views adolescence in terms of three age periods--early, middle and late adolescence. Each stage involves qualitatively different decision processes.

For the early adolescent girls the same sex friend is most influential, for middle adolescents the parents are most influential, and for late adolescent girls, boyfriends become most influential.

Early adolescents who become pregnant exhibit poor selfcontrol and as a defense mechanism often attempt to deny the pregnancy. The middle adolescent is more ascetic and hedonistic. The late adolescent is more realistic and reality oriented. The early adolescent tends to be unfocused, living for today. Middle adolescents engage in fantasy about the future, but such fantasy lacks a basis in reality. Late adolescents tend to be more goal oriented and tend to attempt to find ways of actualizing these goals.

The early adolescents in Hatcher's study employed no contraception. In addition they attempted to disavow any responsibility for their pregnancy. Regarding abortion, the early adolescent views it egotistically as a way out of an unpleasant situation which is interfering with the individual's life. The middle and late adolescents show more concern for the fetus as well as regard for the moral, emotional and philosophical issues involved in an abortion.

Early adolescents were incapable of thinking out solutions to their pregnancy both in reality and in fantasy. Middle adolescents tended to externalize the guilt of pregnancy and blame authority figures for their situation. For them, pregnancy seemed to be an acting out behavior designed to punish parents.

Middle adolescent girls did not desire marriage to the father of their child but expressed the desire to find a more suitable future marriage partner. This was in contrast to the late adolescent girls who accepted the responsibility for their pregnancies. However, very often these girls were seeking a commitment from their partners, and often the commitment desired was marriage. These girls had the most difficulty terminating their pregnancies because at some level they desired the child.

Late adolescents tended to assume the responsibility for the decision to abort. Their choice was rational and often based on the realities of their present situation as well as future goals.

In general younger adolescents are neither emotionally nor intellectually primed for sexual activity. They lack the ability to

realistically forsee the consequences of their behavior or to effectively cope with the intricacies of meaningful interaction within a sexual dyad. For adolescents in general, the reality of a sexual situation gives way to the fantasy.

The current study will seek to investigate the relationship between age, as measured by year in high school, and adolescent sexual decision-making. It will attempt to uncover the relationship between age and values pertinent to the adolescents sexual decision-making.

Sexual Decision-Making and Sex

The first issue involved in adolescent sexual decision making and gender is the question of equalitarianism--that is, do adolescent boys and girls engage in sexual behavior to the same degree and with basically the same emotion? Beyond the issue of premarital sexual behavior, how do the sexes differ regarding issues of pregnancy, abortion, illegitimacy and marriage. To some degree, the literature supports the contention that premarital sexual equalitarianism is beginning to exist. That is, the double standard is waning. Bauman and Wilson (1976) report more premarital sexual permissiveness among both men and women as well as fewer attitude differences between the sexes. They assert that there is a lessening of the double standard. Sorensen (1976) found a significant increase in female sexual permissiveness and in some college populations found females to be more permissive than males. Smigel and Seiden (1968) assert that "we are witnessing the decline, but not yet the fall, of the double standard (p. 17). Kaats and Davis (1970) found that half

of their male college sample held the double standard specifically in regard to a sister or potential spouse. These students, though more liberal than their parents, basically held a double standard.

Ehrmann (1973) states that females associate intercourse with Schofield (1973) found that girls draw a direct relationship love. between the type of relationship and degree of permissiveness. Burgess and Wallin (1973) report that 90.6% of women indicated that premarital sexual intercourse strengthened their relationships. Males, however, demonstrate low romantic love beliefs and a curvilinear relationship between number of times in love and permissiveness (Reiss, 1967). Hobart supports the female "love" orientation indicating that females were over-represented in the love categories of premarital sexual permissiveness. Males on the other hand tend to be over-represented in double standard and fun categories regarding premarital sexual inter-Females tend to trade intercourse for relationship. course. D'Augelli and Cross (1975) support this contention. They found that the male partner is more influential than the female in setting sexual standards for the couple.

The females' courtship conception centers around marriage and childbearing. This encourages the female to refrain from engaging in sexual intercourse until affection enters into the relationship (Reiss, 1967; Ehrmann, 1959; Hobart, 1974). In addition Reiss (1967) states that females are most permissive within the context of a relationship and least permissiveness when "playing the field."

Females have a stronger investment in marriage and according to Reiss (1967) this affects the female courtship activities. Women

tend to be more permissive when in love within the context of a relationship. Males, however, tend to be more permissive when they have no steady relationship or a number of steady relationships.

Miller and Simon (1975) note that for the adolescent, sexual involvement usually necessitates the rejection of parental values and the adoption of a peer group which sanctions sexual behavior. However, the peer group plays a greater role in the support of male sexual behavior while the relationship plays the major role for the female.

Scales (1977) found that males tended to experience very little fear of possible pregnancy tending to presume such worries were the domain of the female. In addition he reported that non-virgin females reported that their sexual intercourse was with a loved partner within the context of a relationship. Males, however, report that intercourse was with a partner who was only slightly known. Needle (1975) found that males tended to experience coitus at an earlier age than did females with a slightly larger percentage of males engaging in intercourse. Men were less likely to have affection toward their first sexual partner and less likely to have subsequent relations with the same partner.

Our culture has encouraged males to be more aggressive than females regarding the decision and desire to engage in sexual intercourse, while at the same time our culture discourages males from assuming an active role regarding birth control decisions. This is tragic since the most effective and accessible forms of adolescent contraception are male methods, namely the condom and withdrawal. What seems to be lacking for adolescents is the ability to communicate

with one's sexual partner about contraception (Byrne, 1977).

The psychological effects of abortion on the female have already been reviewed and as has been noted these effects range from trauma and mere discomfort to relief. The literature supports the contention that the female's psychological attitude toward abortion is often dependent on the nature of her relationship with her partner. Martin (1973) asserts that the role of the male partner in abortion is rarely addressed. Ekblad as reported by Martin found that 77 percent of the girls in his study had no relationship with the male partner after abortion. He felt the male role was very important to his subjects' welfare. Hook (1963) stressed the importance of the male partner in the abortion process. Women in her study who were denied abortions made a significantly more stable adjustment to the pregnancy if the male partner was involved. Helper, Cohen, Beitnman and Eaton state that the greatest threats to the female's adjustment to pregnancy are "the rejection of the pregnancy by the father of the child, and the experience of having a previous child who is defective or seriously disturbed"(1968, p. 187).

An abortion is often the precipitator of the decline of a relationship (Martin, 1973). When the woman finds it necessary to abort, the relationship usually is decaying. In addition the woman's rejection of a lover's child may cause her to reject the lover also. In addition the abortion process may cause changes within the relationship. Muller (1966) holds that abortion often results in sexual neuroses in 20-40 percent of the women. Ebaugh and Heuser as reported in Martin (1973) found repression of sexual feelings and

hostility toward males following abortion. Martin (1973) found that the mere existence of the abortion was an important predictor of a decaying relationship. Substantial numbers of the relationships faltered and dissolved following abortion (83.63%). This was among a sample of girls reporting a 55.93% involvement in love relationships. Twenty-five percent of the girls in her study had had support from the male involved. Girls who had support reported significantly less post-abortion adjustment problems.

Reiss (1967) supports the notion that women are more family oriented and hence marriage oriented than are males. The male must undergo the transition from hedonistic sexual involvement to intimacy before being capable of a genuine marital commitment. A situation of forced intimacy can result when the couple marries as a solution to pregnancy. Cutright (1971) found that premaritally pregnant couples were twice as likely to divorce than non-premaritally pregnant couples.

The focus of current research is to examine the relationship between sex and those values deemed important by adolescents in sexual decision-making. Hence, what values are important for males and what values are important for females and are they the same? That is, how do the sexes view sexual decision-making and are these perspectives in harmony with one another?

Sexual Decision-Making and Race

The traditional perspective on race and sexual behavior has been that blacks are significantly more liberal regarding sexual behavior than are whites (Reiss, 1967). However, Delcampo and

Sporakowski (1976) found that blacks' and whites' mean scores on a premarital sexual permissiveness scale were almost identical. They found that whites and blacks held very similar attitudes regarding sexual permissiveness. This updates Reiss' findings in which blacks were found to be more permissive. However, regarding sexual knowledge, blacks were less knowledgeable than whites regarding contraception (Delcampo & Sporakowski, 1976). In addition, in each of the racial groups females knew more about contraception than did males.

Kantner and Zelnik (1973) report that 42% of the whites studied and 18% of the blacks were knowledgeable about their fertile periods. Black misconception did not decrease with age or amount of sexual activity.

For the white lower class, the automobile functions as the necessary dating tool. In fact it, at times, serves as the "portable bedroom" (Rosenberg & Bensman, 1968). The white male tends to make a puritanical division between good girls and bad girls, hence employing a double standard. For the Latino sexual involvement is a support for virility--machismo. They tend to be less knowledgeable than Negroes regarding contraception but equal to lower class whites. However, they do tend to be concerned about pregnancy. This is not usually the case with the white male who tends to view pregnancy as the females' responsibility or as an attempt to trap him into marriage. The Latino tends to try to avoid pregnancy and if it occurs to avoid abortion which might involve trauma for the female. In addition, the Latino may hold deeper religious convictions regarding both abortion and the use of birth control. The Latino will tend

to assume the position of the responsible victim and either support the pregnant female or marry her (Rosenberg & Bensman, 1968). Black males do not feel the same way the Latino feels regarding a pregnant female. For them the female is generally in an inferior position regarding sexuality. If the female becomes pregnant she is often left alone to deal with the consequences.

Within the Negro culture, Vincent (Juhasz, 1974) notes a reoccurring pattern of illegitimacy. Illegitimacy is more acceptable within the Negro culture than within the middle class white culture. In addition blacks tend more often to keep their babies after delivery. In 1974, approximately 6 percent of all white births and over 40 percent of all non-white births were illegitimate. While marital fertility has decreased by over 3 percent, illegitimacy has increased by 4 percent. This increase is among women under 19 years of age (Moore, 1976). Kantner and Zelnik (1973) found that white pregnant females who did not marry were seven times as likely to have an abortion as were black females in the same position. Thirty-six percent of the whites chose abortion while only 5 percent of the blacks chose abortion. However, in 1975, HEW (1977) reported that 65 percent of women undergoing abortion were white, while 31 percent were black. The blacks, however, had higher abortion ratios than whites, that is, more abortions per live births. Payne (1976) found that black abortion patients experienced less anxiety regarding the abortion than did white women. White women tended to display more guilt.

White females tend to legitimize their pregnancy by marrying. Cutright (1972) reasons that 69-70 percent of white pregnancies are

legitimized by marriage compared to 34-46 percent of black pregnancies. In Kantner and Zelnik's study (1974) only 2 percent of the blacks bearing children out of wedlock gave them up for adoption while 18 percent of the whites did. The tendency to give a child up for adoption is a more frequent solution for a pregnant white female than for a pregnant black female.

The literature supports significant racial differences regarding both sexual behavior and sexual values. An attempt will be made to determine what adolescent sexual decision-making values are associated with social class and to uncover those values associated with the White, Negro and Latino races in an effort to draw racial comparisons regarding the adolescent sexual decision-making process.

Summary

The Review of the Literature concentrated on four specific aspects pertinent to the nature of the study of adolescent sexual decision-making. The first section concentrated on the theoretical perspectives of adolescent sexuality establishing adolescence as a critical period in the development of sexual identity. Adolescence was reviewed as the period in which biological, psychological and socio-cultural sexuality emerges. The adolescent must struggle to accept his new biological identity as well as adopt a psychological position regarding sexual behavior for himself within the context of a social milieu. Females become more relationship oriented regarding sexuality while males remain more peer group oriented. The adolescent is influenced by parental sex role models as well as peer group

values. In addition the modern adolescent is faced with increasing sexual options due to growing sexual liberality within present society. The adolescent is faced with the task of forming a personal sexual identity and adopting a form of sexual behavior within the context of an increasingly liberal society.

The second section of the review of the literature focuses on the nature of the decision-making process. Decision-making is comprised of three basic components: a cognitive process which consists of analysis and synthesis; a valuing process which is dependent on learned and socialized values and standards; and a situation-specific element--that is the situational elements involved in a specific sexual decision. These components are directly applicable to the adolescent sexual decision-making process. Cognitive influences on adolescent sexual decision-making include information seeking, sexual knowledge, contraceptive knowledge, the ability to engage in hypothetical speculation regarding the consequences of sexual behavior, as well as reduced egocentrism. Socialization influences include familial and parental value systems, peer value systems and cultural value systems. Older adolescents are less influenced by parental and peer values and more influenced by the partner's values. Situational influences are simply those options available within a specific individual context. They involve the specific physical and situational circumstances surrounding an individual decision, such as one's marital status, financial status, pregnancy status, etc.

The third section of the literature review focused on the theoretical basis and description of the Juhasz Sexual Decision-making

Model as the basis of the present study. The model is based on utility theory or cost-analysis theory. It is an open model which allows for the expression of individual needs and desires in the resolution or decision process. The ordering of the solutions within the model rests on the individual's value hierarchy. The value hierarchy is available by approaching the model in an inverse fashion--by examining the individual's choices, a pattern of decisionmaking influences a value system can be deciphered. This is precisely the approach employed in the current research where responses within the model are factored to arrive at the underlying value structures of the adolescent sexual decision-making process. In summary, the Juhasz model provides a situational framework for the analysis of cognitive influences; value structures, and situational elements involved in the decision-making process.

The final section of the review of the literature explored the nature of the research on the variables hypothesized in the present study. That is, the relationship between adolescent sexual decisionmaking and control personality, social class, religiosity, intelligence, age, sex, and race.

The issue of sexual control was reviewed as it relates to the six basic sexual decisions. The adolescent's inability to effectively control sexual behavior is evident in such issues as sexual coercion, negligence regarding birth control, increased abortion rates, increased rates of illegitimacy, and the tendency to employ marriage as a solution to illegitimacy. The adolescent either assumes control for his behavior or abdicates control. The concept of locus of control

was introduced as the control measurement focusing on the dimensions of internal control (the belief in one's control over one's own destiny) and external control (the belief that one's life is controlled by outside forces). The literature on locus of control supported the contention that internals display those characteristics optimal for sexual decision-making while externals display a profile which is not optimal for adolescent sexual decision-making. The final sections of part four illuminate the relationship between sexual decision-making and the remaining hypothesized variables.

The literature supports several relationships between sexual decision-making and personality. Premarital sexual intercourse was formerly interpreted in the framework of deviance, today it is viewed in terms of increased sexual liberality. The literature supports a relationship between premarital pregnancy and a negative psychological profile where aborters are found to generally possess anything from a very disturbed personality profile to a normal profile. The studies dealing with issues of personality and sexual behavior have basically focused on crisis behavior. The present research is geared toward the relationship between non-crisis oriented sexual decision-making and general personality traits.

The relationship between social class and sexual behavior appears to be approaching equality between the classes regarding sexual activity, however, lower class teenagers do tend to employ less contraception, abort less, and more often keep their illegitimate children.

The relationship between sexual decision-making and religiosity

is not a question of denominational affiliation, but rather a question of the degree of individual commitment to religious ideals. Religiosity is associated with lower rates of premarital sexual intercourse, and lower religiosity is associated with abortion seeking. Religiosity seems to be unrelated to the use of birth control. In addition, religiosity tends to play a larger role in the females' sexual decisionmaking process than in that of the males'.

The relationship between sexual decision-making and intelligence has generally been assessed in regard to level of education. Lower educational levels are associated with early intercourse, pregnancy, non-use of birth control, early child bearing and early marriage rates. The present study will seek to measure intelligence as measured by a standardized IQ test, as it relates to sexual decisionmaking.

Sexual decision-making and age centers on the developmental aspects of adolescence. Early adolescents are most influenced by parental values and least capable of dealing in sexual realities. Middle adolescents tend to be more influenced by peers and by concepts such as romantic love. Late adolescents tend to be relationship oriented, influenced by their sexual partners, and more realistic about sexual behavior and its consequences.

Sexual decision-making and sex involves the male and female differences in perspective regarding sexuality. There is evidence that the double standard is declining. However, the basic difference between the sexes still remains: females are relationship oriented and tend toward permissiveness within the context of an intimate relationship, while males tend to be more permissive outside the context of an intimate relationship. Females are more involved in decisions centering on birth control, pregnancy and abortion. In general females are more oriented toward marriage.

The relationship between sexual decision-making and race for purposes of this study involves the comparisons of Whites, Blacks and Latinos. In general, greater sexual permissiveness, illegitimacy, and abortion rates are associated with Blacks. Blacks tend to be more permissive regarding sexuality, tending to be very tolerant of illegitimacy and low on desire for marriage. Latinos, however, are generally less permissive than Whites and Blacks; especially female Latinos. No doubt this is due to a heavy Catholic influence on sexuality. Machinsmo is important for the male with sexuality tending to reinforce virility. The female Latino, like the female White, tends to reserve sexuality for the relationship. The male Latino unlike his Negro and White counterpart will accept the responsibility of unmarried fatherhood and usually marry the mother of his child. Pregnant Negro females usually do not opt for marriage while White females often seek marriage as a solution to pregnancy unless they are future oriented and then abortion is the usual option.

The literature then supports the need for investigation of the relationship between control and factors influencing sexual decisionmaking. In the final sections the relationships between sexual decision-making and personality variables, social class, race, age, sex, religiosity, and intelligence were reviewed. The literature supports the need for the investigation of factors or value structures which

influence sexual decision-making and the relationship of these factors to adolescents' perceived control, personality profiles, social class orientation, religiosity, intelligence, age, gender, and race. These issues will be investigated in the present study. The background information supports the thrust of the present research.

Chapter III will contain statements of the statistical hypotheses, discussion of the sample selection, collection of the data, selection and modification of the instruments, characteristics of the sample in relation to the selected instruments and statistical methodology of the present study.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Chapter three describes the hypothetical framework of the study, the selection of the subjects, the procedure employed in the study, the selection and nature of the instruments, a description of the subjects on the hypothesized variables and the statistical methods selected to test each hypothesis.

Statistical Hypotheses

As stated in Chapter One the purpose of the present research is to discover those factors or value structures basic to adolescent sexual decision-making and to examine the relationship of those factors with locus of control, personality variables, social class, religiosity, intelligence, age, sex, and race.

The factors which influence sexual decision-making were determined via factor analysis of the revised <u>Juhasz Sexual Decision-making</u> <u>Questionnaire</u>. When the term factor is employed it refers to the factors which were determined from the factor analysis.

The statistical hypothesis were formulated to be tested using multiple regression, canonical correlation and discriminant analysis procedures. The hypothesis were as follows:

Hypothesis I

The first major statistical hypothesis concerned the relationship between sexual decision-making and locus of control. It was stated as follows:

Within the adolescent population of the study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and locus of control.

Locus of control was measured by the <u>Rotter Internal-External</u> <u>Locus of Control Scale</u> (Rotter, 1966). Factor scores were assessed from the revised <u>Juhasz Sexual Decision-making Questionnaire</u> (JSDMQ). The hypothesis was tested for the entire group as well as separately for males and females using multiple regression techniques.

Hypothesis 2

The second major statistical hypothesis concerned the relationship between sexual decision-making and selected personality variables. It was stated as follows:

Within the adolescent population of the study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and personality.

Selected personality variables were assessed by the <u>Jr.-Sr.</u> <u>High School Personality Questionnaire</u> (Cattell & Cattell, 1975). Factor scores were assessed from the revised JSDMQ. The hypothesis was tested utilizing cannonical correlation analysis in order to discern personality typologies of the entire sample regarding sexual decisionmaking.

Hypothesis 3

The third major statistical hypothesis concerned the relationship between sexual decision-making and social class. It was stated as follows:

Within the adolescent population of this study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and social class.

Social class was measured by the Warner revised scale for rating occupation (Bonjean, Hill & McLemore, 1967). Factor scores were assessed from the revised JSDMQ. This hypothesis was tested utilizing multiple regression techniques for the entire group as well as tested separately for each sex.

Hypothesis 4

The fourth major statistical hypothesis concerned the relationship between sexual decision-making and expressed degree of religiosity. It was stated as follows:

Within the adolescent population of this study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and degree of religiosity.

Religiosity was measured by a self-report question. Factor scores were assessed from the revised JSDMQ. This hypothesis was tested utilizing multiple regression techniques for the entire group as well as tested separately for each sex.

Hypothesis 5

The fifth major statistical hypothesis concerned the relationship between sexual decision-making and intelligence. It was stated as follows:

Within the adolescent population of this study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and intelligence.

Intelligence was measured by the Educational Ability Intelligence Quotient of the <u>High School Placement Test</u> (Science Research Associates, 1968). Factor scores were assessed from the revised JSDMQ. This hypothesis was tested utilizing multiple regression techniques for the entire group as well as tested separately for each sex.

Hypothesis 6

The sixth major statistical hypothesis concerned the relationship between sexual decision-making and age. It was stated as follows:

Within the adolescent population of this study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and age.

Multiple regression techniques were employed in the testing of this hypothesis for the entire group as well as separately for each sex.

Hypothesis 7

The seventh major statistical hypothesis concerned the relationship between sexual decision-making and sex. It was stated as follows:

Within the adolescent population of this study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and sex.

Factor scores were assessed from the revised JSDMQ. Discrimi-

nant analysis procedures were employed to test the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 8

The eighth major statistical hypothesis concerned the relationship between sexual decision-making and race. It was stated as follows:

Within the adolescent population of this study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and race.

For purposes of this analysis race was restricted to the inclusion of White, Black, and Spanish-speaking students. Factor scores were assessed from the revised JSDMQ. Discriminant analysis procedures were employed to test significance for the entire group and separately for each sex.

Sample

Five hundred and two subjects were selected from four cooperating Chicago area Catholic High Schools solicited for their cooperation in this study. A list of all the Chicago area Catholic High Schools was obtained and from this list four schools were randomly selected for cooperation in the study. The school officials and counselors of the selected high schools were contacted regarding the nature and scope of the study. Following this initial contact, a meeting was scheduled at which time the nature and scope of the study was explained in detail, the study's instruments were inspected and agreed upon, parental permission slips were devised and the subjects for testing were determined. Intact religion classes of subjects were randomly selected for testing from each of the school's grade level populations. A tentative testing schedule was developed for the selected religion classes. On day one, each class received a brief explanation of the study. In addition each subject received a cover letter (Appendix B) which explained the testing instruments and provided the telephone numbers of the investigator and the involved school counselors. The telephone numbers were supplied for the parents so that any questions regarding the testing could be answered. Each subject received a parental permission slip which, if the student and the students' parents agreed on participation in the study, were to be signed and returned to the sponsoring school officials (Appendix B). When the permission slips were returned, the

final two testing dates were established. On these dates the subjects completed the instruments in accordance with the procedure. When the data was collected, inspected, and coded for analysis, 18 of the 502 students were rejected from analysis due to the incomplete nature of the data. Hence, there remained 484 subjects for the purposes of the present investigation. Table 1 presents a numerical description of the subjects according to grade level, sex, and race.

Procedure

The data collection procedure was conducted in the following manner. The researcher in conjunction with school officials established independent testing schedules for each high school based on the selected students' class schedules. The research project involved three religion class periods for each intact class selected for participation. Day one involved a brief explanation of the project and the distribution of a cover letter explaining the project and parental permission slips. The students were instructed to return the permission slips to their religion teacher and/or school counselor. A signed permission slip was mandatory for participation in the project. On day two the researcher distributed the Rotter Internal-External Locus of Control Scale, the General Information Section of Questionnaire and the revised Juhasz Sexual Decision-making Questionnaire. The researcher read the directions and read each test question aloud allowing time for the students to mark their answers. The questions were read aloud to insure comprehension due to the variety of reading abilities, and to encourage the students to remain on task. On day three the students completed

TABLE 1

Sex					Spanish-					
and Age	Whit	e	Black	ĸ	Speaking Other		r	Total		
Male	Percent	n	Percent	n	Percent	n	Percent	n	Percent	n
					_					
13	1	7	1	7	0	0	0	0	3	14
14	4	18	- 1	7	.6	3	.2	1	6	29
15	5	24	3	12	.6	3	0	0	8	39
16	10	50	2	9	0	0	.2	1	12	6 0
17	11	53	3	12	.6	3	.2	1	14	6 9
18	1	7	0	0	.2	1	0	0	2	8
19	.2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	.2	1
	······································									
Female	Percent	n	Percent	n	Percent	n	Percent	n	Percen	t n
13	2	9	1	7	.2	1	0	0	3.5	17
14	9	42	4	18	.8	4	2	9	15	73
15	8	40	5	22	1	5	.6	3	14.5	70
16	8	37	4	19	.8	4	.6	3	13	63
17	4	18	3	13	.4	2	.2	ĩ	7	34
18	.2	1	.4	2	.2	1	.4	2	1	6
19	0	Ô	0	ō	.2	1	0	0	.2	1
~ /	v	Ŭ	Ŭ	Ũ	•	-	~	Ŭ	•	-

Numerical Description of Subjects by Race, Sex and Age

the <u>Jr.-Sr. High School Personality Questionnaire</u>. The examiner again read the items aloud. Session three concluded with a question and answer period focusing on issues raised during the testing sessions. Each testing session involved a 50 to 55 minute period. The data was subsequently coded and key punched for statistical analysis.

Instrumentation

Instruments selected and developed for the purposes of measuring the hypothesized variables include the revised <u>Juhasz Sexual Decision-</u> <u>making Questionnaire</u> (JSDMQ), the <u>Rotter Internal-External Locus of</u> <u>Control Scale</u> (I-E Scale), the <u>High School Personality Questionnaire</u> (HSPQ) and the <u>Educational Ability</u> subtest of the <u>High School Placement</u> <u>Test</u> (IQ). In addition, demographic variables of interest (social class, religiosity, age, sex, and race) were assessed via self report on the General Information section of the Sexual Decision-making Questionnaire.

The Revised Juhasz Sexual Decision-making Questionnaire (JSDMQ)

The revised JSDMQ was developed from the original <u>Juhasz Sexual</u> <u>Decision-making Questionnaire</u> (1975). The original JSDMQ consisted of 78 items concerned with six major sexual decisions. The questions reportedly assess a chain of Sexual Decision-making dealing with pragmatic, emotional and psychological aspects of the influences on the decisions concerning intercourse, having children, using contraception, delivery of a child, abortion, keeping or giving a child up for adoption and marrying (Juhasz, 1975). The questions were arranged on a

three point Likert scale continuum ranging from an indication of a strong influence on the decision to some influence on the decision or almost no influence on the decision. Questionnaire responses were factor analyzed with six factors emerging as significant in accounting for 48.55 percent of the variance, they are: the <u>Effect of pregnancy</u> on the couple and the infant; Social, religious and family mores and <u>sanctions; Responsibility and the idea of mutual sharing</u> (other than intercourse); <u>Egocentric reasons for intercourse; Other influences on</u> <u>intercourse; and Psychological aspects of abortion</u>. Internal consistency coefficient for each factor were obtained for a sample of 79 college students (Table 2).

The revised edition of the questionnaire was developed specifically for use with adolescents since the vocabulary and sentence construction of the original college edition of the JSDMQ was felt to be too difficult for an adolescent population.

The revision was conducted in the following manner: Two hundred sixty Catholic high school students volunteered from one Chicago area Catholic high school for the purposes of the revision project. The subjects received permission slips which were signed by their parents and returned to the sponsoring school official. Each permission slip was accompanied by a cover letter which explained the testing instrument and provided telephone numbers of the investigator and the involved school officials. The telephone numbers were supplied for the parents so that any questions they might have regarding the questionnaire could be answered. The volunteering subjects were then administered the questionnaire during a free school period. The subjects

TABLE 2

Reliability Coefficients of the Original Juhasz Sexual Decision-Making Questionnaire

78	item,	6 Fa	actor	Juhasz	Sexual	Decision-Making Questionnaire
	Fa	actor	<u> </u>	C	ronbach	's Coefficient Alpha
		1				.77
	2				.73	
		3				.80
	4					.59
		5				.84
		6				.69

were asked to complete the questionnaire. They were asked to raise their hands and report any items or vocabulary words they found confusing. In addition, the investigator conducted discussions at the end of the testing period to determine whether the subjects could offer any additional items of influence which were not covered by the questionnaire. A tally of all items, vocabulary and suggested influences was kept. These critiques were incorporated in the rewriting of the items for use with adolescent subjects. On the basis of the critiques, the questionnaire was revised in three areas: the clustered items were split into separate items to avoid contamination of response regarding each item; vocabulary was simplified for high school use with all grade levels; and the Likert scale was altered from a three point continuum to a five point continuum insuring diversity of response. In addition the wording on the response continuum was altered from degree of "influence" to degree of "importance".

Eighteen items were added to the questionnaire. These eighteen items included four items dealing with the external influence of parents, friends, partners and religion regarding sexual decisions (item 50, 78, 111, 122); seven items designed to tap the influence of love on sexual decision (items 21, 41-43, 133-135); three items dealing with psychological influences on sexual decisions (items 60, 61, 95); and four items dealing with the limitations and desires associated with specific sexual decisions (items 47, 62, 63, 77) (See Appendix A for specific item additions). The questionnaire was revised, items were added, the <u>General Information</u> section was constructed, and the instrument was prepared for use in the current study.

The original content validity of the JSDMQ was established in the following manner. The items in the original item pool were the result of a thorough review of the literature which was supplemented by the suggestions of black and white, male and female students. Four judges in the field evaluated the content validity and wording of the original questionnaire. The revised questionnaire was subsequently evaluated by 260 adolescents for language alterations.

Construct validity was established through factor analysis. The resulting six factors were designated within the theoretical constructs emerging from the item loading on the factors. The six factors which emerged on the revised JSDMQ accounted for 34.67 percent of the variance. They include <u>Family establishment competence</u>; <u>External morality</u>; <u>Consequences of childbearing</u>; <u>Self-enhancement regarding intercourse</u>; <u>Intimacy considerations regarding intercourse</u>; and the <u>Consequences of</u> <u>marriage</u>. The factor analysis, nature and reliability of the factors are discussed in detail in <u>Compter IV</u>.

The Rotter Internal-External Locus of Control Scale

The historical development of the Rotter I-E Scale is presented in Rotter's Monograph (1966). The scale consists of 23 question pairs in a forced-choice format with six filler items. The test is scored by assigning one point for each external statement. Scores range from 0 (most internal) to 23 (most external).

Two factor analyses (Rotter, 1966 and Franklin, 1963) reveal one general factor which accounts for most of the total scale variance. More recent factor analysis (Gurin, 1969; MacDonald and Tseng, 1971;

Minton, 1972; Mirels, 1970) have found the scale to exhibit more dimensionality however, one general factor does emerge which accounts for most of the variance. This factor is one's belief in one's own control.

Addressing the question of reliability, an internal consistency coefficient (Kuder-Richardson) of .70 was obtained for a sample of 400 college students (Rotter, 1966). Test retest reliability coefficients were computed with a value of .72 for 60 college subjects. The construct validity of the scale appears to be supported by the literature (Joe, 1971; Lefcourt, 1966, 1972; Minton, 1967; Rotter, 1966). Rotter (1966) supports the concurrent validity of the scale by reporting correlations of from -.07 to -.35 with the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale. Recent reports indicate from -.20 to -.40 (Altrocehi, et al., 1968; Feather, 1967; Hjelle, 1971; MacDonald, 1972). Gerzins et al., (1970) and Cone (1971) have found correlations ranging from -.23 and -.70 with the Edward's Social Desirability Scales.

The Jr.-Sr. High School Personality Questionnaira (HSPQ)

The HSPQ (Cattell & Cattell, 1975) was developed to assess the "more adequately research-demonstrated dimensions of personality" in the 12-18 age range (Cattell & Cattell, 1969). The 1969 edition of the test includes trichotomous responses (a. yes; b. perhaps; c. no) and four forms (A, B, C and D).

The following paragraphs describe the scale of the HSPQ.

Scale A: Affectothymia vs. Sixothymia: The high affectothymic individual (in this, as in all the other scales the trait exhibited by a person who scores high on a factor will be mentioned first) is easygoing, warmhearted, likes other people, and laughs readily. The sizothymic opposite tends to be reserved, aloof, uncompromising and critical. Affectothymes are typically rated as more socially adjusted, but sizothymes tend to be more penetrating in their evaluations of others as well as more dependable in meeting obligations.

Scale B: High Intelligence vs. Low Intelligence: This scale offers a very rough measure of verbal intelligence. It cannot be expected to correlate perfectly with the average intelligence test. For this reason an additional intelligence instrument was adopted for the purposes of the present study.

Scale C: Higher Ego Strength vs. Lower Ego Strength: The high scoring individual on this scale tends to be emotionally stable and mature, constant in his interests, and does not allow his emotional needs to obscure the realities of a situation. The low scoring individual is less stable, easily affected by feelings, easily perturbed, changeable, and evasive of responsibilities and prone to problem situations. The low C individual uses repression as a defense mechanism and has low frustration tolerance. The low C individual often displays irrational fears, sleep and digestive disturbances as well as obsessive behaviors.

Scale D: Excitability vs. Phlegmatic Temperament: The excitable individual is impatient, demanding, overactive and unrestrained. He tends to show off, is very distractive, and shows many nervous symptoms. He is prone to jealousy, self-assertive and egotistical behavior. The individual with a low D score is stoical, complacent, deliberate, self-effacing and constant.

Scale E: Dominance vs. Submissiveness: The individual who is high in dominance (also known as ascendance) is assertive, self-assured, competitive, stubborn, rebellious, and independent-minded. His submissive opposite tends to be dependent, docile, accommodating, conforming, and easily led. He is easily upset by authority and basically humble. High E individuals often aspire toward leadership. Low E individuals avoid situations demanding assertiveness. Neither extreme is particularly healthy, however. High dominance has been associated with delinquency while submissiveness has been associated with neurotic profiles.

Scale F: Surgency vs. Desurgency: The surgent individual tends to be enthusiastic, heedless, happy-go-lucky, talkative and cheerful. His desurgent opposite is more sober, taciturn, serious, silent and full of care. While the high F person tends to be expressive and reflect the group he associates with, the low F person is more introspective, holding to inner values.

Scale G: Stronger Superego Strength vs. Weaker Superego Strength: The high G individual tends to be perservering, conscientious, responsible, dominated by a sense of duty, and highly concerned about moral standards. The low G individual tends to disregard rules, is frivolous, undependable, self-indulgent and fickle, fails to accept group moral standards, disregards his obligations to others, is slack and indolent.

<u>Scale H: Parmia vs. Trectia:</u> The parmic individual is adventurous, active, socially bold, friendly, impulsive, and carefree. The threctic person, on the other hand, is shy, timid, restrained, threatsensitive, careful, and withdrawn. While the parmic shows an overt

interest in the opposite sex, the threctic is retiring in the face of the opposite sex. The low H individual is emotionally cautious and self-protective where the High H individual is both responsive and genial.

Scale I: Premsia vs. Harria: This dimension is also described as the "tender-minded vs. tough-minded" dimension. The tender-minded or premsic individual tends to be sensitive, dependent, overprotected, gentle, insecure and attention seeking. His tough-minded counterpart is unsentimental, self-reliant, rejects illusions and is hard to the point of synicism. The high I individual is indulgent to self and others, and is likely to be artistically inclined. The low I individual is best described as a hard realist who rejects illusions, holds few "fancies" and little artistic response.

Scale J: Coasthenia vs. Zeppia: The coasthenic individual is marked by circumspect individualism, and tends to be reflective, internally restrained and guarded. The zeppic individual is zestful, likes group action, likes attention, sinks his personality into group activities, tends to accept common standards, and is vigorous. The coasthenic individual guards his opinions and tends to wrap up within his own sense of self. He evades in an emotionally cold manner.

Scale 0: Guilt Proneness vs. Untroubled Adequacy: The guilt prone individual is apprehensive, self-reproaching, insecure, worrying, troubled, depressed, lonely, and anxious. The low 0 individual is placid, secure, self-assured, complacent and serene. The guilt prone individual is sensitive to the approval and disapproval of others. He is inclined toward phobic symptoms and inadequate feelings. The low 0

individual has few fears and is not dependent on external approval or disapproval.

Scale Q2: Group Dependency vs. Self-sufficiency: The selfsufficient individual is one who is used to making his own decisions and is both resourceful and self-sufficient. The low Q2 individual tends to go along with the group, values social approval in essence, is group dependent. He is a "joiner" and a good solid follower.

<u>Scale Q3: High Strength of Self-sentiment vs. Low Self-</u> <u>sentiment Integration</u>: The individual with a high sense of selfsentiment is controlled and has strong will power, is socially precise, follows his own self-image and is internally controlled. The low Q3 individual is uncontrolled, follows his own urges, tends to be lax and careless of social rules.

Scale Q4: High Ergic Tension vs. Low Ergic Tension: The high Q4 individual is tense, driven, fretful, overwrought and frustrated while the low Q4 is more relaxed, unfrustrated, composed, and tranquil.

While the 14 dimensions of the HSPQ have not been totally and consistently confirmed, five of the scales (E, A, G, C and B) appear to be psychometrically respectable (Hogan, 1972). Reliability is adequate with test-retest reliability for one form over a one year period at .49; employing two forms of the test for a one year period raised reliability to .63. Validity remains a questionable point with the HSPQ (Hogan, 1972) with Cattell opting for the dimension of <u>functional</u> <u>validity</u>. Cattell makes the distinction between relevance and concept validity, relevance being the relationship between a scale and other relevant practical criteria while concept validity is the relationship between the scale and the pure factor it is designed to measure (Cattell & Cattell, 1969).

Intelligence Measure

For the purposes of this study, the measure of intelligence was assessed utilizing the <u>Educational Ability</u> subtest from the High School Placement Test (Science Research Associates, 1968). The SRA <u>High</u> <u>School Placement Test</u> (HSPT) is designed to measure "the educational ability and scholastic achievement of second-semester eighth-graders and first semester ninth-graders." (SRA, 1968, p. 1). It consists of one test measuring educational ability and 5 additional tests measuring reading, language arts, arithmetic, social studies, and science methodology. The <u>Educational Ability</u> score was chosen as a uniform measure of intelligence for the subjects in this study since every subjects received this test in the last semester of eighth grade under the controlled specifications of Science Research Associates.

The test of <u>Educational Ability</u> consists of 50 items with five possible responses per item. There are four sections on this subtest which are designed to measure abilities that are not dependent on specific course content. They are: "Word Reasoning, the ability to recognize word meanings (15 items); Arithmetic Reasoning, the ability to analyze and solve problems (10 items); Verbal Analogies, the ability to see relations between words (15 items); and Number Reasoning, the ability to detect patterns in number series (10 items)." (SRA, 1968, p. 1). This subtest requires 35 minutes for administration.

The intelligence quotients (IQ's) reported for this subtest are

determined by dividing the student's mental age (derived from his raw score) by his chronological age. The score distribution has a mean of 100 and a standard deviation of 16.

The IQ is not representative of an absolute level at which the student operates, but rather a function of ability in regard to chronological age.

All subtests were computer scored and available on the individuals' cumulative records.

Demographic Variables

The demographic variables of concern in the present study are social class, degree of religiosity, age, sex, and race. These variables were assessed on the <u>General Information</u> section of the <u>Sexual</u> <u>Decision-Making Questionnaire</u> (Appendix A). The <u>General Information</u> section contains questions designed to tap basic demographic data as well as reported attitudes toward the six basic sexual decisions, levels of permissiveness, knowledge and sources of knowledge regarding sex and birth control, use of birth control, and attitudes toward sexual activity.

Social Class assignment was made on the basis of the father's reported occupation, as measured by Warner's revised scale for rating occupation (Bonjean et al., 1967). When the father was deceased or not present in the home, subjects were asked to supply their mother's occupation. Subjects failing to report parental occupation and subjects reporting absence of both parents were deleted from the analysis of hypothesis three. The Warner Scale is presented in Table 3. The

TABLE 3

1

Revised Scale for Rating Occupations

Rating Assigned to Occupation	Professionals	Proprietors and Managers	Business Men	Clerk and Kindred Workers	Manual Workers	Protective and Service Workers	Farmers
1	Lawyers, doc- tors, dentists, engineers, jud- ges, high- school super- intendents, veterinarians, ministers (graduated from divinity school), che- mists, etc. with postgrad- uate training, architects	Businesses valued at \$75,000 and over	Regional and divi- sion mana- gers of large financial and indus- trial enterprises	Certified Public Accountants			Gentle- man farmers
2	High-school teachers, trained nurses, chiropodists, chiropractors, undertakers, ministers (some training), newspaper edi- tors, librarians (graduate)	Businesses valued at \$20,000 to \$75,000	Assistant managers and office and depart- ment mana- gers of large busi- nesses, assistants to execu- tives, etc.	Accountants, salesmen of real estate, of insurance postmasters	,		Large farm owners, farm owners

Rating Assigned to Occupation	Professionals	Proprietors and Managers	Business Men	Clerk and Kindred Workers	Manual Workers	Protective and Service Workers	Farmers
3	Social-workers, grade-school teachers, opto- metrists, li- brarians (not graduate) under- taker's assist- ants, ministers (no training)	Businesses valued at \$5,000 to \$20,000	All minor officials of busi- nesses	Auto sales- men, bank clerks and cashiers, postal clerks, secretaries to execu- tives, su- pervisors of railroad, telephone etc., jus- tices of the peace			
4		Businesses valued at \$2,000 to \$5,000		Stenogra- phers, bookeepers, rural mail clerks, railroad ticket agents, salespeo- ple in dry good stores, etc.	Factory foremen, electri- cians, plum- bers, carpen- ters, watch- makers (own busi- ness)	Dry cleaners, butchers, sheriffs, railroad engineers and conduc- tors	92

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Rating Assigned to Occupation	Professionals	Proprietors and Managers	Business Men	Clerk and Kindred Workers	Manual Workers	Protective and Service Workers	Farmers
5		Businesses valued at \$500 to \$2,000		Dime store clerks, hardware salesmen, beauty operators, telephone operators		Barbers, firemen, butcher's apprentices, practical nurses, policemen, seamstres- ses, cooks in restau- rant, bar- tenders	Tenant farmers
6		Busineses valued at less than \$500			Moulders, semi- skilled workers, assistants to carpen- ters, etc.	and truck	Small tenant farmers

Rating Assigned to Occupation	Professionals	Proprietors and Managers	Business Men	Clerk and Kindred Workers	Manual Workers	Protective and Service Workers	Farmers
7					Heavy labor, migrant work, odd-job men, miners	Janitors, scrub- women, newsboys	Migrant farm laborers

Note: Warner, 1957, p. 140-141.

scale ranges from a rating of one (professional) to a rating of seven (manual and service workers).

Degree of religiosity was measured on a four point scale ranging from a self-report of one (very religious) to a self-report of four (not at all religious).

Description of Subjects on Demographic and Personality Variables

The 484 subjects in this study included 220 male and 264 female White, Black and Spanish-speaking students attending Chicago area Catholic high schools. Table 1 describes the students by age, race and sex. The students ranged in age from 13 years to 19 years of age. The mean age of the sample is 15.4 years. Sixty-three and four tenths percent of the subjects were White, 26.4 percent were Black, 6 percent were Spanish-speaking. The 3.3 percent Asian and .8 percent "other" races were not included in the analyses of hypotheses seven and eight due to insufficient numbers of these subjects within statistical cells.

Table 4 illustrates the distribution of the entire sample as well as males and females on the Warner <u>Revised Scale for Rating Occupation</u>. The sample is basically middle and lower middle class. However, more females belong to higher social classes than do males. This may be due to the inclusion of non-coeducational institutions in the study. It may be that private girls' schools draw students from higher social classes.

Table 5 presents the distribution of the sample of the religiosity scale. The group as a whole tends to report itself as displaying

TABLE 4

Percentage of Subjects on Warner Revised Scale for Rating Occupation by Sex

Warner						
Scale	Male		Female		Total	
	Percent	n	Percent	n	Percent	n
1	7.7	(17)	14	(37)	11.2	(54)
2	9.1	(20)	12.5	(33)	11	(53)
3	19.5	(43)	14.4	(38)	16.7	(81)
4	15.0	(33)	16.3	(43)	15.7	(76)
5	23.2	(51)	25.4	(67)	24.4	(118)
6	20	(44)	11	(29)	15.1	(73)
7	2.7	(6)	4.5	(12)	3.7	(18)
0a	2.7	(6)	1.9	(5)	2.3	(11)

Note: M = 3.93, SD = 1.691 for total n

a Subjects not reporting social class were excluded from the analysis of hypothesis three.

Degree of			
Religiosity	Male	Female	Total
Very	10.05	12.9	11.8
Religious	(23) ^b	(34)	(57)
Moderately	38.6	40.9	39.9
Religious	(85)	(108)	(193)
Somewhat	42.3	40.5	41.3
Religious	(93)	(107)	(200)
Not at all	8.6	5.7	7
Religious	(19)	(15)	(34)

Percentage of Reported Religiosity by Sex

Note: M = 2.44, SD = .79 for total n; M = 2.49, SD = .8 for males; M = 2.39, SD = .7 for females; t = 1.40, no significant difference between sexes on religiosity

b Number of subjects are presented in parentheses.

some degree of religiosity, very few individuals consider themselves to be non-religious. It may be noted that as a whole the sample does not report itself as deeply religious, only 11.8 percent of the group admits to being "very religious." Regarding denomination, 85.4 percent of the sample is Catholic, 13.8 percent Protestant, .8 percent Jewish, and .2 percent Buddhist. The sample is predominantly Roman Catholic in denomination.

Table 6 illustrates the means and standard deviations of the current sample on the Rotter I-E Scale by sex. There is no significant difference between males and females regarding the I-E dimension. However, as indicated in Table 6 the current high school population means are significantly higher than Rotter's norm sample means. Leading to the conclusion that the present sample is slightly more externally controlled than Rotter's norm sample.

Table 7 illustrates the means and standard deviations of the 14 personality scales of <u>High School Personality Questionnaire</u> by sex. Eleven of the 14 scales demonstrated significant sex differences. Within the present sample, females tended to be significantly more Warmhearted and easygoing (Scale A), possess Stronger superego strength (Scale G), display more Tender-mindedness (Scale I), more Guilt proneness (Scale O), more Control (Scale Q3) and more High tension (Scale Q4) than the males of the sample. Males in the sample demonstrate significantly more Ego strength (Scale C), Dominance (Scale E), Surgency (Scale F), Adventurousness (Scale H), and Self-sufficiency (Scale Q2) than the females of the sample.

Table 8 displays the means and standard deviations of the

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Means and Standard Deviations of the Sample on the <u>Rotter</u> <u>Internal-External Locus of Control</u> <u>Scale by Sex</u>

Male	Female	T-Test	Total Sample	Norm Male	Population ^C Female	
10.23 (3.57) ^a n = 220	10.28 (3.77) n = 264	14 ^b	10.26 (3.68)	8.15 (3.88)	8.42 (4.06)	

a Standard deviations are presented in parentheses.

b No significance.

c Rotter, 1966.

	·····			Sample	Norm Population
Scale	Male	Female	T-Test	Total	Total
Α	10.10	11.69		10.97	10.94
	(3.08) ^a	(3.07)	-5.64***	(3.17)	(3.50)
В	6.85	7.06		6.97 ^b	6.78
	(2.05)	(1.86)	-1.23	(1.95)	(1.96)
С	10.49	9.39		9.89	8.76
	(2.90)	(3.27)	3.87***	(3.15)	(3.47)
D	10.89	11.09		11.00	10.57
	(2.96)	(3.06)	73	(3.01)	(3.52)
Е	10.50	8.21		9.25	8.72
	(2.59)	(2.68)	9.48***	(2.88)	(3.28)
F	10.67	9.45		10.01	9.67
	(3.19)	(3.58)	3.91***	(3.46)	(3.52)
G	10.51	11.89		11.27	11.08
	(2.81)	(2.98)	-5.21***	(2.98)	(3.33)
H	10.53	9.39		9.91	9.90
	(3.03)	(3.38)	3.89***	(3.27)	(3.55)
I	8.25	13.66		11.20	10.37
	(3.41)	(3.35)	-17.58***	(4.32)	(5.00)
J	9.32	9.03		9.16	8.56
	(2.54)	(2.88)	1.15	(2.73)	(3.10)
0	8.14	9.21		8.72	9.36
	(3.10)	(3.43)	-3.56***	(3.33)	(3.37)
Q2	10.24	8.82		9.47	8.79
	(2.90)	(3.05)	5.22***	(3.06)	(3.41)
Q3	10.30	11.07		10.72	10.16
-	(2.74)	(3.00)	-2.92**	(2.90)	(3.21)
Q4	10.26	11.13		10.74	10.38
-	(3.29)	(3.14)	-2.98**	(3.24)	(3.46)

Means and Standard Deviations of the Total Sample on the HSPQ by Sex

a Standard deviations are presented in parentheses.

b The sample scored significantly higher than the norm population, this was most likely due to differences in age for the sample (mean = 15.44) and the population (mean = 14.5).

*p .05 **p .01 ***p .001

Means and Standard Deviations of the Sample on IQ by Sex

Male	Female	T-Test	Sample Total	Norm Population Total ^c
107.31	105.38	1.50b	106.26	100
(14.63)a	(13.68)		(14.4)	(16.00)

a Standard deviations are presented in parentheses.

b No significant difference between males and females regarding degree of intelligence

c Science Research Associates, 1968.

intelligence scales of males and females utilized in the present investigation. There was no significant difference between the sexes on the measure of intelligence. However the total samples does tend to score higher on intelligence than does the SRA norm population.

Design and Statistical Analysis

The nature of the present study is essentially descriptive. The analysis of the relationship between those factors which were reported by adolescents as important in their sexual decision-making and the variables hypothesized for the purposes of this study were investigated utilizing a combination of factor analysis, multiple linear regression, canonical correlation and discriminant analysis.

Analyses were conducted on the IBM-360 computer.

A principal component factor analysis was carried out on the results of the revised JSDMQ in order to determine basic sexual decisionmaking factors reported by the adolescents in this study. A scree test was undertaken to determine the number of appropriate factors. The solution was truncated at that number and submitted to varimax rotation (Gorsuch, 1974). The factors were interpreted and labelled.

Hypothesis one, the relationship between the sexual decisionmaking factors and locus of control was tested using multiple linear regression with the factor scores of the six factors functioning as predictor variables and locus of control functioning as the criterion variable.

Hypothesis two, the relationship between the sexual decisionmaking factors and personality variables as measured by the HSPQ was tested using canonical correlation analysis.

Hypothesis three, the relationship between the sexual decisionmaking factors and social class was tested using multiple linear regression with factor scores functioning as predictor variables and social class as the criterion variable.

Hypothesis four, the relationship between sexual decisionmaking factors and degree of religiosity was tested employing multiple linear regression with the factors functioning as predictor variables and religiosity as the criterion variable.

Hypothesis five, the relationship between sexual decisionmaking factors and intelligence was tested employing multiple linear regression with the factor scores functioning as predictor variables and IQ as the criterion variable.

Hypothesis six, the relationship between sexual decision-making factors and age was tested employing multiple linear regression with the factor scores functioning as predictor variables and age as the criterion variable.

Hypothesis seven, the relationship between the decisionmaking factors and sex as well as hypothesis eight, the relationship between the decision-making factors and race were tested employing discriminant analysis procedures.

Summary

This chapter dealt with the statistical hypotheses, the subject selection, the data collection, the research instruments, the description of the subjects, and the statistical methods of the study. In summary, eight major hypotheses stated in Chapter I were restated statistically.

The subjects were 484 high school students selected from randomly chosen Chicago area Catholic high schools. Data collection involved 2 one-hour sessions conducted on successive days. The testing was completed in a 5 week period.

The subjects were given the following instruments: The <u>Juhasz</u> <u>Sexual Decision-Making Questionnaire</u> (JSDMQ) was revised for use in the study, to assess sexual decision-making factors. The <u>Rotter Internal</u>-<u>External Locus of Control Scale</u> was selected to assess the control variable. Cattell's <u>High School Personality Questionnaire</u> was selected to measure personality variables. Social class was measured via Warner's Revised Scales and IQ was measured by the <u>Educational Ability</u> subtest of the <u>High School Placement Test</u>. Religiosity, age, sex and race were measured via self-report on the <u>General Information</u> Section of the Sexual Decision-Making Questionnaire.

Subjects included 220 male and 264 female White, Black and Spanish-speaking students ranging in age from 13 to 19 years of age. The students basically came from middle and lower middle class families. As a group they tended to display some degree of religiosity with 85 percent belonging to the Roman Catholic faith. There were no significant sex differences for the sample on the Rotter I-E scale on the intelligence scale; however, eleven of the fourteen scales of the HSPQ demonstrated personality differences between the sexes.

The design of the study is descriptive with statistical procedures consisting basically of factor analysis, multiple linear regression, and discriminant analysis.

Chapter IV will consist of the presentation of the results of the analysis of the data.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS OF THE DATA

Introduction

This study was designed to investigate the relationship between factors which influence adolescent sexual decision-making and selected personality and demographic variables. The statistical hypotheses, stated in null form, postulated no significant relationship between decision-making factors and locus of control, personality variables derived from the HSPQ, social class, religiosity, intelligence, age, sex, and race. This chapter will be concerned with the presentation and analysis of the statistical results of the data. It will be divided into two sections: A discussion of the factor analysis procedures and a discussion of the statistical hypotheses.

Factor Analyses

In order to ascertain those factors basic to adolescent sexual decision-making, the revised 135 item <u>Juhasz Sexual Decision-making</u> <u>Questionnaire</u> was subject to a factor analysis. A 135 X 135 correlation matrix was calculated and subjected to a principle components analysis using the Biomedical Computer Program package (1973). The eigen values resulting from the analysis were examined and the scree test (Gorsuch, 1974) indicated that a six factor solution was appropriate. The first six principal components were submitted to a Varimax rotation. Four experts in the field discussed the nature of each factor arriving at a consensus of opinion regarding the naming of each factor.

The consensus of opinion resulted from a synthesis of the essence of the items comprising the factor as well as an understanding of personality measures highly correlated with the factor. The name of each factor, a description of the nature of each factor and the significant correlates of each factor follows:

Factor 1: Family establishment Competence (Table 9). This factor centers on competence considerations essential for the establishment of a family. The factor emphasizes a rational stance toward the undertaking of the permanent responsibilities of parenthood and the establishment of a family unit. Three basic decision areas of the Juhasz model (see Figure 1, p. 5) were tapped by this factor: The decision to deliver or abort, to keep a child or give it up for adoption, and to marry or remain single. The focus within this factor is on the desire and ability to have a child as well as the quality of the atmosphere within the dyad relationship. The quality of the relationship included level of commitment, respect, and the solidity of the relationship. In addition, the psychological stability of the potential parents as well as the psychological effect of the pregnancy on the potential parents was of concern in this factor. The factor stresses rational and idealistic qualities available for the establishment of a family unit. Appendix D illustrates that this factor correlates highly with personal autonomy and the influence of one's partner on the decisions to have a child $(r = .20; p \langle .01 \& r = .20; p \langle .01 \rangle$ and to marry (r = .21; p < .01 & r = .30; p < .01).

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Item Loadings on Factor 1, Family Competence

	Item	Loading
	The male's desire to raise a child	.68
107	The psychological effects on the female if she gives up	
	the child	.65
	The female's desire to raise a child	.65
	The male's ability to raise a child	.64
	The female's ability to raise a child	.64
108	The psychological effects on the male if he gives up the	
	child	.60
76	The male has the ability to be a good parent	.57
93	The abortion might have negative psychological effects on	
	the female	.54
94	The abortion might have negative physical effects on the	
	female	.53
.20	Our commitment to one another	.53
18	Our respect for one another	.53
97	Our decision to stay together	.53
74	The female has the ability to be a good parent	.52
77	The male wants to be a parent	.50
99	The emotional stability of the female	.50
75	The female wants to be a parent	.50
96	The effect of abortion on my relationship with my partner	.49
95	The abortion might have negative psychological effects on	
	the male	.48
00	The emotional stability of the male	.47
19	Our mutual desire for marriage	.47
44	I have the characteristics of a good parent	.46
45	My parnter has the characteristics of a good parent	.46
.09	I would have quiet feelings	.45
81	The male will stick by the pregnant female	.44
52	The risks involved in using birth control	.40
.06	My feeling that the child may improve our relationship	.40
.17	Our compatibility	.37
50	My parents feelings about having children	.37
	My feelings that you should be in love to marry	. 32

On the basis of the above considerations the factor was named Family establishment competence.

Factor 2: External morality (Table 10). The items loading high on factor 2 involve the influence of such external controllers of morality as parents, peers and religion. The factor tapped all six decisions (see Figure 1, p. 5) focusing on the influence of parents, peers and religion on each of the model's decisions. The factor places the moral judgment regarding sexual behavior in the hands of those who "should know" and relies on the power of external moral forces rather than an internalized moral sense. One might expect the factor to be related to Erikson's identity foreclosure and perhaps the first three stages of Kohlberg's moral development.

As Appendix D indicates, Factor 2 correlates positively with religiosity (r = .23; p \langle .01), negatively with age (r = .21; p \langle .01) sexual permissiveness (r = -.33; p \langle .01) and the beliefs that it is all right to engage in heavy petting (r = -.34; p \langle .01), sexual intercourse (r = -.33; p \langle .01) or cohabitation (r = -.32; p \langle .01). On the basis of these considerations the factor was named External Morality.

Factor 3: The Consequences of Childbearing (Table 11). This factor centers on concerns regarding the limitations and consequences of childbearing. The decision to have the child or opt for abortion forms the basis of this factor (see Figure 1, p.). The factor weighs the rational consequences of childbirth on the lives of both the male and female partners. The items which load highly on this factor center on the effect of childbearing on education, career, personal development, financial status, and social life.

Item Loadings on Factor 2, External Morality

		Item	Loading
110	My	parents' reactions and feeling would influence my	
	•	decision to keep a child or give it up for	
		adoption	.64
55	Мy	parents' feelings about me using birth control	.64
92	My	parents' feelings about my abortion	.62
		church's teachings about the use of birth control	.59
121	My	parents' opinions about the marriage	.58
		religious beliefs regarding premarital sexual intercours	e.58
		parents' feelings about me having a child	.57
		parents' feelings about me after I have had intercourse	.57
113	My	parnter's religion as an influence on the decision to	
		marry or remain single	.57
		friends' feelings about me using birth control	.56
		religious beliefs against abortion	.56
115	My	partner is divorced as an influence on the decision to	
		marry or remain single	.55
		friends' opinions about the marraige	.54
111	Му	friends' reactions and feelings would influence me	
		regarding the decision to keep or give up a child	.53
		friends' feelings about me having children	.52
114	Мy	partner is a virgin as an influence on my decision to	
_		marry or remain single	.49
		desire to be a virgin when I marry	.49
4	Мy	partners' religion as an influence on my decision to	
		have or not to have sexual intercourse	.48
- 7	My	desire to marry a virgin as an influence on my decision	10
		to have or not to have sexual intercourse	.46
		friends' feelings about my abortion	.46
		friends' feelings about me after intercourse	.45
		oples' opinions of an unwed mother	.43
24	Int	ercourse might create the fear that my partner might	.38
07	÷.	gain control over me	.30
37	Int	ercourse would reduce my chances of getting married	.37
110	M	later on	• 37
112	мy	partners' race as an influence on the decistion to	.30
		marry or remain single	• 10

Item Loadings on Factor 3, the Consequences of Childbearing

<u> </u>	Item	Loading
	I LEM	LUauing
65	Having a child will limit the female's education	.71
66	Having a child will limit the female's career	.69
	Having a child will limit the female's personal development	.65
70	Having a child will limit the male's education	.63
62	Having a child will limit the female's independence	.62
73	There will be financial problems for the female	.62
71	Having a child will limit the male's career	.62
72	There will be financial problems for the male	.62
68	Having a child will limit the male's personal development	.62
64	Having a child will limit the female's social life	.61
69	Having a child will limit the male's social life	.59
67	Having a child will limit the male's independence	.58
86	The nine months' time involved in carrying a pregnancy	.52
60	The psychological effects of the delivery on the mother	.48
84	The child will have problems whether we marry or not	.45
83	I am afraid of having an abnormal child	.45
87	Abortion is a quick solution to pregnancy	.45
61	The psychological effects of delivery on the father	.42
	The negative physical effects of delivery on the mother	.43
	My partner doesn't want to have a child	.43
85	The cost of delivery	.42
	The cost of abortion	.40
	No other man will want to marry an unwed mother	.37
124	My feelings that marriage would limit the female's	
	educational plans	.36
105	The fear that the child may change our relationship	
	for the worse	.35
125	My feeling that marriage would mean less freedom for the female	.33
120		• 22
120	My feeling that marriage would limit the male's	.33
127	educational plans	• 22
127	My feeling that marriage would limit the female's social contacts	.31

As Appendix D indicates, Factor 3 correlates negatively with the desire for pregnancy (r = .21; p < .01), intelligence (r = .23; p < .02) and Scale I of the HSPQ which measures Tender-mindedness (r = .20; p < .01). On the basis of this information the factor was named the Consequences of Childbearing.

Factor 4: Self-enhancement through sexual intercourse (Table 12). This factor is based on items involved with the decision to have or not to have sexual intercourse (see Figure 1, p. 5). The concerns within this factor are primarily egocentric and impulse-oriented focusing on basic id gratification. The items display an attitude toward intercourse that is self-centered and "payoff" oriented such as: intercourse will reduce sexual tension, be fun and pleasurable, boost the ego, and enhance peer group status. There is an additional aspect to the factor which taps a type of pragmaticly manipulative response to intercourse: the desire to keep one's partner, gain a feeling of closeness, keep from masturbation and gain sexual experience.

As Appendix D illustrates, Factor 4 correlates positively with sexual permissiveness (r = .29; p \lt .01) and the beliefs that it is alright to engage in heavy petting (r = .29; p \lt .01), sexual intercourse (r = .25; p \lt .01) and cohabitation (r = .21; p \lt .01). Factor 4 correlates with the I, G, and Q3 Scales of the HSPQ which measure Tough-mindedness (r = -.31; p \lt .01), Weak superego strength (r = -.29; p \lt .01), and Low self-sentiment integration (r = .-.24; p \lt .01). On the basis of these considerations the factor was named <u>Self-enhancement</u> through sexual intercourse.

Factor 5: Intimacy considerations regarding sexual intercourse

Item Loadings on Factor 4, Self-Enhancement through Sexual Intercourse

Item	Loading
	_
33 Intercourse will get rid of my sexual tension	.69
32 Intercourse will be fun and pleasurable	.64
26 Intercourse will boost my ego	.61
31 Intercourse will help me to know myself better	.52
27 I can compare my sexual experiences my my friends	.54
34 It may make me want more intercourse	.54
25 My desire to get sexual experience	.50
16 I might lose my partner if we don't have sex	.48
28 It will keep me from masturbating	.48
30 It will give me a feeling of being close and belonging	
to someone	.48
43 My feeling that love is hard to find and when you do you	
must do everything possible to keep it	.45
51 I feel that every woman should have a child it is her	
destiny	.44
12 My partner's desire for sexual intercourse	.43
29 It will help me avoid homosexual relationships	.42
54 It would reduce my fear of pregnancy and make sex more	
enjoyable	.42
2 My partner's sex appeal	. 39
42 Love is a mysterious force that I must follow no matter	
where it takes me	.38
13 My partner's physical appearance	.35
11 My desire for sexual intercourse	.32
	_

(Table 13). This factor involves items which stress the importance of the degree of intimacy present in the dyad relationship. The factor concentrates on such considerations as whether the partner's interest is merely sexual, whether love and commitment are involved, the formal status of the dyad (i.e. engaged, first date, going steady) and the formal status of the partner (i.e. single or married, dating others, having sex with others). As Appendix D indicates Factor 5 correlates negatively with the belief that premarital sexual intercourse is permissible (r = -.19; p \langle .01), positively with personal autonomy regarding the decisions involving intercourse (r = .24; p \checkmark .01), having children (r = .23; p \lt .01), employing birth control (r = .23; $p \langle .01 \rangle$, delivering or aborting (r = .23; $p \langle .01 \rangle$, keeping a child or giving it up for adoption (r = .23; p \langle .01). Factor 5 correlates positively with Scale 0 of the HSPQ, Self-assuredness (r = .26; p \checkmark .01). On the bases of these considerations the factor was named Intimacy considerations regarding sexual intercourse.

<u>Factor 6: The Consequences of marriage</u> (Table 14). This factor involves the limitations of marriage on one's personal autonomy. The factor deals with the limitations of marriage on personal growth, educational plans, freedom, career chances, social contacts, and life style. For the adolescent, such an attitude toward marriage may reflect a realistic attitude toward the negative effects of an early marriage. This factor has no significant correlates (Appendix D). On the basis of these considerations the factor was named the <u>Consequences</u> of marriage.

Appendix C presents the item loading on the Varimax rotated

Item Loadings on Factor 5, Intimacy Considerations regarding Sexual Intercourse

Item	Loading
22 My partner is dating other people	.53
9 I should be in love to have intercourse	.49
10 My partner may only be interested in me for sexual	
reasons	.49
21 We feel that we are committed to one another	.48
20 We are engaged	.47
17 This is our first date	.47
18 We are going steady	.46
23 My partner is having sex with other people	. 45
19 We are living together	. 44
36 My partner expects us to date only each other	.42
3 My partner is single or married	.40
38 My partner's feelings about me afterwards	. 39
14 I (or my partner) am having my period	.38

Item Loadings on Factor 6, Consequences of Marriage

Item	Loading
130 My feeling that marriage would limit the male's for personal growth	chances .76
128 My feeling that marriage would limit the male's plans	educational .69
126 My feeling that marriage would limit the female' for personal growth	's chances .68
131 My feeling that marriage would mean less freedom the male	n for .66
129 My feeling that marriage would limit the male's chances	career .66
127 My feeling that marriage would limit the female contacts	's social .60
132 My feeling that marriage would change the male's style	s life .56
125 My feeling that marriage would mean less freedom the female	n for .54
124 My feeling that marriage would limit the female' educational plans	's .50
123 My feeling that marriage may change our relation	

factors. Reliability for each factor was determined by employing Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha and employing variables loading .30 and above for each factor in the calculation of reliability. Cronbach coefficient alpha is a conservative estimate of internal consistency (Nie & Hadlai-Hull, 1977). The reliability coefficient for the revised factors of the JSDMQ appear in Table 15. The revised JSDMQ display substantial reliability on each factor. It must be noted that the factors appearing in the revised JSDMQ differ from the factors which appear in the original JSDMQ.

The twelve highest loading items were averaged for each factor in order to investigate the overall degree of agreement of the subjects with the highly loading items making up each factor. In interpreting the factors it is important to note the average rating given to high loading variables on each factor.

Appendix E, illustrates the mean responses. The group as a whole reported that Factor 1, <u>Family establishment Considerations</u> was the most important, this was followed in importance by Factor 5, <u>Intimacy considerations regarding sexual intercourse</u>, Factor 3, <u>Consequences of Childbearing</u>, Factor 2, <u>External Morality</u>, Factor 6, <u>Consequences of Marriage</u> and Factor 4, <u>Self-enhancement through sexual</u> <u>intercourse</u>. Factor 4 may have achieved the lowest mean reponse on the high loading items due to the social inappropriateness of holding <u>too</u> strong a position on sexual gratification.

Pairwise T-Tests were conducted for each pair of factors with significant differences between all pairs less than .001 in probability.

The mean responses for males alone reflect that Factor 1

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Reliability Coefficients of the Revised Juhasz Sexual Decision-Making Questionnaire

135	Item, 6 Factor Revised Juhasz Sexual Decision-Making Questionnaire
Factor*	Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha
1	.91
2	.89
3	.92
4	.86
5	.81
6	.90
<u>ر</u>	Factor 1, Family establishment considerations
	Factor 2, External Morality
	Factor 3, Consequences of childbearing
	Factor 4, Self-enhancement through sexual intercourse
	Factor 5, Intimacy considerations regarding intercourse

Factor 6, Consequences of marriage

displayed the highest mean response (Appendix E) with Factor 5 next in importance followed by Factors 3, 6, 4 and 2. Note that average male response on the highest loading items were higher than the entire group for Factor 4 and lower than the entire group for Factors 2 and 5. Significant differences between pairwise T-Tests were noted at a probability less than .001 for all pairs except Factors 3 and 6 which did not reach significance.

The mean responses for females alone reflect that Factor 1 displayed the highest mean response (Appendix E) with Factor 5 next in importance followed in importance by Factors 6, 2, 3, 4--a noticeably different ordering of mean responses than appears for the male subgroup. Note that the average female response on the highest loading items were higher than the male subgroup on Factors 1, 2 and 5 and lower than the male subgroup on Factors 3 and 6. Males lent more importance to the consequences of childbearing and marriage and sexual gratification and females lent more importance to family establishment concerns, external moral agents and intimacy in sexual relations. Significant differences between pairwise T-Tests for the female subgroup were noted at a probability less than .001 for all pairs of Factors except Factors 2 and 3 which yielded significance at the .05 level of probability.

In summary, six factors emerged from the factor analysis and varimax rotation which provide the basic structure for the study. The six factors were employed in the testing of the hypothesized variables in the following manner: Factor scores were calculated for each subject on each of the six factors (BMD-08M, 1973). These individual

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factor scores were then directly employed in hypotheses testing and will henceforth be referred to as the adolescent sexual decision-making factors.

Analysis of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

The first major statistical hypothesis concerned the relationship between sexual decision-making and locus of control. It was stated as follows:

Within the adolescent population of the study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and locus of control.

Table 16 illustrates the multiple linear regression procedure which was employed to test hypothesis one for the total sample. The overall F-test (F = 1.85; df = 6,477) yielded no significance. Hence the sexual decision-making factors were not predictive of locus of control for the entire sample. The null hypothesis of no relationship cannot be rejected.

The overall F-test for males alone, Table 17, indicates that the multiple regression procedure is predictive of locus of control for males (F = 2,574; df = 6,213) at the .05 level of probability. Two factors appear to be the significant contributors to the regression equation, the <u>Consequences of childbearing</u> (Factor 3) and <u>Self</u>-<u>enhancement through sexual intercourse</u> (Factor 4). Internal males tend to consider the consequences of planning for childbirth, while men who are external tend to be more concerned with immediate gratification.

As Table 18 illustrates, the overall F-test for females

Regression of Locus of Control on Sexual Decision-Making Factors for Total Sample

 Factor	Beta	Simple r	F	
Factor 1	09	09	3.51	
Factor 2	02	02	.21	
Factor 3	11	11	5.34	
Factor 4	.04	.04	.60	
Factor 5	.05	.05	1.28	
Factor 6	02	02	.16	

Multiple R = .15 R² = .023 Overall F = 1.85; df = 6,477; no significance

Regression of Locus of Control on Sexual Decision-Making Factors for Males Subsample

 Factor	Beta	Simple r	F	
 ,				
Factor 1	05	06	.60	
Factor 2	03	02	.19	
Factor 3	16	18	5.09*	
Factor 4	.17	.20	5.99*	
Factor 5	.01	.01	.01	
Factor 6	.04	.04	.43	

Multiple R = .26 R² = .068 Overall F = 2.5742; df = 6,213; p .05 *p .05

 Factors	Beta	Simple r	F	
Factor 1	09	11	1.85	
Factor 2	03	03	.25	
Factor 3	06	06	.04	
Factor 4	06	06	.92	
Factor 5	.09	.09	1.88	
Factor 6	07	06	1.21	

Regression of Locus of Control on Sexual Decision-Making Factors for Female Subsample

Multiple $R = .17^{\circ}$ $R^2 = .029$

Overall F = 1.2933; df = 6,257; no significance

indicates no significance (F = 1.2933; df = 6,257) on the multiple linear regression procedure. The relationship between locus of control and sexual decision-making seems to be mediated by sex.

Hypothesis 2

The second major statistical hypothesis concerned the relationship between sexual decision-making and personality variables. It was stated as follows:

Within the adolescent population of the study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and personality.

Hypothesis two, the relationship between the six sexual decisionmaking factors and the 14 personality scales of the HSPQ was tested by employing canonical correlation analysis. As multiple correlation is a generalization of simple correlation, canonical correlation is a generalization of multiple correlation relating several predictors to several criteria. Hence the researcher can investigate the combinations of dependent variables related to a combination of independent variables yielding in this case personality profiles regarding sexual decisionmaking. Canonical variates for the predictors and criteria are calculated that maximize the simple correlation between the paired composite variates of each set. The canonical correlations were tested for significance and to facilitate interpretation of the canonicals a simple correlation between the composite variates and the original set of variables was conducted (Levine, 1977; Weinberg & Wallberg, 1973).

The canonical analyses for the entire sample is illustrated in Table 19, it reveals that the first three canonical variates are signi-

Factors	First Canonical	Second Canonical	Third Canonical	
	Variate	Variate	Variate	
		••		
Factor l	34	.10	.15	
Factor 2	39	.87	02	
Factor 3	. 37	.23	30	
Factor 4	.69	.33	.60	
Factor 5	33	11	.70	
Factor 6	10	24	.20	

Structure Coefficients and Related Statistics^a

HSPQ Scale	First Canonical Variate	Second Canonical Variate	Third Canonical Variate
A	21	08	18
В	19	76	.10
С	.13	.03	32
D	02	. 38	.52
Е	.58	20	34
F	.29	34	.43
G	62	.05	33
Н	.25	24	22
I	85	16	02
J	.08	08	.11
0	27	.10	.68
Q2	.14	25	13
Q3	33	05	54
Q4	14	.31	. 36
	ar a - 1 - 1 - 1 - 2 - 1 - 1 - 2 - 2 - 2 - 2		
Solution	rc	x ² df	probability
1	.60	397.69 84	.000
2	.42	191.31 65	.000
3	. 33	100.55 48	.000

a Figures represent correlation with the variate derived from the corresponding set.

ficant (r = .60, .42, .33; probabilities less than .001). Upon examining the HSPQ scales correlated with the first canonical correlation, it appears that the first canonical involves those scales of the HSPQ which exhibit the greatest sex differences (Cattell & Cattell, 1975): Scale I, Scale G and Scale E.

Thus a high scoring person on the first canonical variate would exhibit Tough-mindedness (-.85), Weak Superego Strength (-.62), and Dominance (.58). Associated with this canonical variate is a high score on Factor 4, <u>Self-enhancement through sexual intercourse</u> (.69) and secondarily Factor 3, the <u>Consequences of Childbearing</u> (.37). In addition low scores on the remaining four factors are associated with the canonical variate. In summary, this canonical appears to reflect the relationship of <u>Self-enhancement through sexual intercourse</u> to masculine attitudes as expressed by the HSPQ Scales.

The second canonical variate correlates highest with scales of the HSPQ which are most affected by age differences (Cattell & Cattell, 1975): scale B and scale D. Thus a high scoring person on the first canonical variate would exhibit Low intelligence (-.76) and Excitability (.38). While scale B is designed to measure intelligence the fact that uncorrected raw scores were employed in the analysis means that the scale is best interpreted as measuring mental age. Scale D is described by Cattell & Cattell (1975) as measuring excitability-in the cognitive sense. Thus an individual scoring high on the second canonical variate would appear to demonstrate a lack of cognitive maturity. This canonical variate is highly related to Factor 2, External morality (.87) and secondarily to Factor 4, <u>Self-enhancement</u> through sexual intercourse (.33).

The third canonical variate appears to correspond to Cattell & Cattell (1973) second order factor anxiety vs adjustment. The third canonical variate correlates highest with scale O, scale Q3 and scale D of the HSPQ. Individuals scoring high on the third canonical variate would be characterized by Guilt-proneness (.68), Low Self-sentiment integration (-.54) and Excitability (.52). This variate is related to high scores on Factor 5, Intimacy considerations regarding sexual inter-course (.60).

Hypothesis 3

The third major statistical hypothesis concerned the relationship between sexual decision-making and social class. It was stated as follows:

Within the adolescent population of this study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and social class.

The multiple linear regression procedure was employed to test hypothesis three for the entire sample. The overall F-test yielded significance at the .01 level of probability regarding the relationship between sexual decision-making factors and social class (F = 3.67; df = 6,466; p \langle .01). The null hypothesis of no relationship was rejected. Three sexual decision-making factors (Table 20) appear to make significant contributions to the regression equation. Factor 1, Family establishment competence makes the largest contribution to the

Regression of Social Class on Sexual Decision-Making Factors for Total Sample

 Factor	Beta	Simple r	F	
Factor 1	16	16	12.56***	
Factor 2	03	03	.38	
Factor 3	.02	.02	.20	
Factor 4	.10	.10	4.39*	
Factor 5	.02	.02	.27	
Factor 6	09	09	4.14*	

Multiple R = .21 R² = .045 Overall F = 3.670; df = 6,466; p .01 *p .05 ***p .001 significance of the equation. Factor 4 is strongly associated with higher social class status. The more professional an individual student's family, the greater contribution Factor 1 makes to his sexual decision-making. Factor 4, <u>Self-enhancement through sexual intercourse</u>, is associated with lower socio-economic status. The decision-making mechanism of lower socio-economic levels is more laden with an impulse toward immediate self-gratification. Factor 6, <u>Consequences of mar</u>riage, is associated with higher socio-economic status.

As Table 22 demonstrates, the multiple regression equation for females alone was not significant (Overall F = 1.634; df = 6.252). However, the equation for males, Table 21, was significant (Overall F = 3.697; df = 6,207; p \checkmark .01). The largest contributions to the regression equation were Factor 6, the <u>Consequences of marriage</u> and Factor 4, Self-enhancement through sexual intercourse.

Hypothesis 4

The fourth major statistical hypothesis concerned the relationship between sexual decision-making and expressed degree of religiosity. It was stated as follows:

Within the adolescent population of this study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and degree of religiosity.

Multiple linear regression analysis was employed to test hypothesis four for the entire sample. As Table 23 illustrates the overall F-test yielded significance (F = 9.17; df = 6,477; p \checkmark .001). The null hypothesis of no relationship between the factors involved in sexual decision-making and religiosity is rejected. Three factors

 Factor	Beta	Simple r	F	
Factor 1	12	13	3.02	
Factor 2	10	10	1.93	
Factor 3	03	08	.22	
Factor 4	.16	.16	5.12*	
Factor 5	.08	.12	1.54	
Factor 6	18	20	6.73**	

Regression of Social Class on Sexual Decision-Making for Male Subsample

Multiple R = .31 R² = .097 Overall F = 3.697; df = 6,207; p .01 *p .05 **p .01

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 Factor	Beta	Simple r	F	· · · ·
 Factor 1	19	17	8.38	
Factor 2	.05	.06	.55	
Factor 3	.06	.05	.88	
Factor 4	.04	.004	. 32	
Factor 5	03	002	.25	
Factor 6	01	009	.05	

Regression of Social Class on Sexual Decision-Making Factors for Female Subsample

Multiple R = .19 R^2 = .037 Overall F = 1.6341; df = 6,252; no significance appear to make significant contributions to the regression equation, of these Factor 2, <u>External morality</u> plays the most significant role with highly religious individuals scoring high on the Factor. In addition individuals displaying low religiosity score high on Factor 3, <u>Consequences of childbearing</u> and Factor 4, <u>Self-enhancement through</u> sexual intercourse.

The multiple regression analysis for the females illustrates that the relationship between the factors influencing sexual decisionmaking and religiosity is significant at the .001 level of probability (F = 6.9976, df = 6,257). As Table 25 illustrates a similar pattern to that found for the entire group describes sexual decision-making for the female.

The multiple regression equation tested for males alone yielded overall significance at the .001 level of probability (F = 4.568; df = 6,213; p \checkmark .001). Table 24 illustrates that in addition to the three factors which are related to religiosity for the entire group, Factor 5, <u>Intimacy considerations regarding sexual intercourse</u> is also related to religiosity for males. More religious males are influenced to a greater extent in their sexual decision-making by Factor 5.

Hypothesis 5

The fifth major statistical hypothesis concerned the relationship between sexual decision-making and intelligence. It was stated as follows:

Within the adolescent population of this study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and intelligence.

 Factor	Beta ^a	Simple r	F	
Factor 1	05	05	1.36	
Factor 2	24	24	29.29***	
Factor 3	.12	.12	7.79**	
Factor 4	.16	.16	13.97***	
Factor 5	05	05	1.54	
Factor 6	.05	.05	1.06	

Regression of Religiosity on Sexual Decision-Making Factors for Total Sample

Multiple R = .32 R² = .10 Overall F = 9.17; df = 6,477; p .001 **p .01 ***p .001

a High scores indicate low religiosity

 Factor	Beta	Simple r	F	
		05		
Factor 1	.006	05	.01	
Factor 2	21	14	9.48**	
Factor 3	.19	.10	7.94**	
Factor 4	.26	.17	14.21***	
Factor 5	18	12	7.36**	
Factor 6	05	03	.66	

Regression of Religiosity on Sexual Decision-Making Factors for Male Subsample

Multiple R = .34 R² = .114 Overall F= 4.568; df = 6,213; p .001 **p .01 ***p .001

Regression of Religiosity on Sexual Decision-Making Factors for Female Subsample

 Factor	Beta	Simple r	F	
 ×				
Factor 1	09	04	2.50	
Factor 2	31	30	27.19***	
Factor 3	.13	.12	5.05*	
Factor 4	.17	.14	8.29**	
Factor 5	03	.03	.32	
Factor 6	.06	.11	1.11	

Multiple R = .37 R² = .14 Overall F = 6.9976; df = 6,257; p .001 *p .05 **p .01 ***p .001

Multiple regression analysis was employed to test hypothesis five, for the entire sample. The overall F-test yielded significance (F = 9.10298; df = 6,477; p < .001). Table 26 illustrates that the null hypothesis of no relationship between intelligence and the factors involved in the sexual decision-making process is rejected. Four factors appear to make significant contributions to the regression equation. Factor 3, the Consequences of childbearing, emerged as the most significant factor associated with intelligence. The more intelligent the subject the less likely the subject was to be concerned with the factor. In addition, the more intelligent the subject, the more likely the subject was to be concerned with Factor 5, Intimacy considerations regarding sexual intercourse, and the less likely the individual was to be influenced by Factor 4, Self-enhancement through sexual intercourse, and Factor 2, External morality.

Tables 27 and 28 illustrate the results of the multiple linear regression analyses for the male and female subsamples. The results are similar to those obtained in the regression equation for the entire sample: Both the male overall F-tests (F = 5,27143; df = 6,213; $p \lt .001$) and the female overall F-test (F = 8.80983; df = 6,257; $p \lt .001$) were highly significant. For both male and female subsamples Factors 3, 4 and 5 demonstrated significant associations with IQ and the nature of the relationship is almost identical to that of the entire sample. However, Factor 3, <u>External morality</u> makes a significant contribution for the entire sample but not for either sex taken separately.

Factors for Total Sample								
 Factor	Beta	Simple r	F					
Factor 1	05	05	1.33					

-.10

-.23 -.10

.16

-.05

5.36*

28.27*** 5.15*

13.18***

1.33

Regression of IQ on Sexual Decision-Making

Multiple $R = .32$	
$R^2 = .103$ Overall F = 9.10298; df = 6,477; p	.001
*p .05 ***p .001	

-.10

-.23

-.10 .16

.05

Factor 2 Factor 3

Factor 4

Factor 5

Factor 6

Regression of IC) on	Sexual	Decision-Making
Factors	for	Male Su	ubsample

 Factor	Beta	Simple r	F	
	0.0		1 50	
Factor l	08	04	1.52	
Factor 2	09	14	1.66	
Factor 3	28	24	17.54***	
Factor 4	15	08	4.80*	
Factor 5	.22	.17	11.05***	
Factor 6	.07	01	1.04	

Multiple R = .36 R² = .129 Overall F = 5.27143; df = 6,213; p .001 *p .05 ****p .001

Regression of IQ on Sexual Decision-Making Factors for Female Subsample

Factor	Beta	Simple r	F	
Factor 1	.04	05	.35	
Factor 2	.003	04	.003	
Factor 3	28	26	24.74***	
Factor 4	23	18	15.04***	
Factor 5	.23	.20	16.15***	
Factor 6	.10	.11	3.27	

Multiple R = .41 R^2 = .17 Overall F = 8.80983; df = 6,257; p .001 ***p .001

Hypothesis 6

The sixth major statistical hypothesis concerned the relationship between sexual decision-making and age. It was stated as follows:

Within the adolescent population of this study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and age.

Multiple linear regression analysis was employed to test hypothesis six for the entire sample. The overall F-test yielded significance (F = 6.0663; df = 6,477; p \checkmark .001). As Table 29 illustrates the null hypothesis of no relationship between factors involved in the sexual decision-making process and age is rejected. Three factors make significant contributions to the regression equation for the entire sample. Factor 2, <u>External morality</u> plays the most significant role. As age increases, the influence of <u>External morality</u> on adolescent sexual decision-making decreases. Conversely the younger the adolescent, the more important is the role of <u>External morality</u> in the sexual decision-making process. In addition, as age increases, the significance of Factor 5, <u>Intimacy considerations regarding sexual</u> <u>intercourse</u> decreases. Concerns regarding Factor 6, <u>Consequences of</u> marriage also decrease in significance as age increases.

Table 30 illustrates the results of the multiple linear regression for the male sample. The results indicate that the relationship between factors influencing sexual decision-making and age is significant for males (F = 3.61697; df = 6,213; p \lt .01). The results indicate that the only Factor related to age for the males is <u>External</u> morality which substantially decreases with age.

 Factor	Beta	Simple r	F	
Factor 1	.03	.03	.55	
Factor 2	21	21	23.07***	
Factor 3	05	05	1.17	
Factor 4	01	01	.01	
Factor 5	11	11	6.06*	
Factor 6	10	10	5.54*	

Regression	of	Age	on	Sexual	Decision-Making
Fa	acto	ors :	for	Total	Sample

Multiple R = .27 R² = .07 Overall F = 6.0663; df = 6,477; p .001 *p .05 ****p .001

.

Regression of Age on Sexual Decision-Making Factors for Male Subsample

 Factor	Beta	Simple r	F	
Factor 1	.05	.05	.67	
Factor 2	29	29	18.83***	
Factor 3	05	09	.51	
Factor 4	.04	01	. 32	
Factor 5	.02	.03	.06	
Factor 6	.01	03	.01	

Multiple R = .30 R^2 = .092 Overall F = 3.61697; df = 6,213; p .01 ***p .001 Table 31 indicates that for females the multiple regression procedure is significant (F = 3.655; df = 6,257; p \langle .01). Two factors make significant contributions to the regression equation. Factor 4, <u>Self-enhancement through sexual intercourse</u> is negatively related to age for females. In addition females tend to be less influenced by Factor 6, <u>Consequences of marriage</u> with increasing age. Unlike the males, females show no decrease in Factor 2, <u>External morality</u> with age. Hypothesis 7

The seventh major statistical hypothesis concerned the relationship between sexual decision-making and sex. It was stated as follows:

Within the adolescent population of this study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and sex.

The relationship between the factors which influence sexual decision-making and sex was supported by the discriminant analysis procedure (Table 32). The effectiveness of this discrimination was significant (F = 37.67; df = 6,477; p \checkmark .001). Significant sex differences at the .001 level of probability were found for External Morality (Factor 2), Consequences of childbearing (Factor 3), Self-enhancement through sexual intercourse (Factor 4), and Intimacy considerations regarding intercourse (Factor 5). Males attached greater importance to the Consequences of childbearing and Self-enhancement through sexual intercourse, whereas females are more influenced by External Morality and Intimacy considerations regarding intercourse. Sex differences at the .05 level of probability were also found for Family competence considerations (Factor 1) and the Consequences of childbearing (Factor 2).

Regressi	Lon	of	Ag	je o	on	Sexual	Decision-
Making	Fac	tor	s	for	: I	Temale	Subsample

Factor	Beta	Simple r	F	
 Factor 1	.07	.06	1.38	1
Factor 2	08	07	1.74	
Factor 3	12	11	3.68	
Factor 4	17	17	7.99**	
Factor 5	09	12	2.24	
Factor 6	12	12	4.02*	

```
Multiple R = .28

R<sup>2</sup> = .079

Overall F = 3.655; df = 6,257; p .01

*p .05

**p .01
```

- -

Feators	Mala	Ferra 1 e	T. T. at	Discriminant
Factors	Male	Female	T-Test	Function
Factor 1	10	.09	2.06*	17
	(1.06)	(.94)		
Factor 2	23	.19	-4.77***	38
	(.98)	(.98)		
Factor 3	.22	19	4.56***	.36
	(.84)	(1.08)		
Factor 4	.42	35	9.07***	.67
	(.83)	(.99)		
Factor 5	29	.24	-5.97***	46
	(.97)	(.96)		
Factor 6	12	.10	-2.37*	19
	(.92)	(1.05)		

Discriminant Analysis of the Sexual Decision-Making Factors by Sex

*p .05 **p .01 ***p .001

Note: Discriminant Function Centroid for males equals .62 and for females equals -.52. 6) with females more influenced by both factors.

Hypothesis 8

The eighth major statistical hypothesis concerned the relationship between sexual decision-making and race. It was stated as follows:

Within the adolescent population of this study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and race.

The relationship between the sexual decision-making factors and race were supported by the discriminant analysis procedure. As Table 33 indicates, the effectiveness of the discrimination procedure was significant (F = 4.42; df = 12,912; p \checkmark .001). Chi-square tests were computed for each of the two derived discrimination functions to determine the significance of discrimination along each dimension. The first discriminant function was found to be significant ($x^2 = 51.82$, p \checkmark .001) in addition the second vector reached significance ($x^2 = 13.73$; p \checkmark .05).

As can be seen in Table 33 the first discriminant function differentiates between Spanish-speaking students and Black students with the White students closer to the Spanish-speaking students on the six sexual decision-making factors. The second discriminant function differentiates the Spanish-speaking students from the White students with the Black students falling between the two groups.

Table 36 illustrates the pairwise comparisons for the entire sample. The pairwise differences between the groups demonstrates significance between all three possible pairwise comparisons. White students differ significantly from Black students (F = 5.69; df = 6,456; $p \lt .001$) on the sexual decision-making factors, White students differ

significantly from Spanish-speaking students (F = 2.72; df = 6,456; p \langle .05) and Spanish-speaking students differ significantly from Blacks (F = 4.70; df = 6,456; p \langle .001) on the sexual decision-making factors.

Significant differences between the groups were found for Factor 2, Factor 3, and Factor 5 (Table 33). Spanish-speaking students attach greater importance to <u>External morality</u> (Factor 2) and <u>Intimacy</u> <u>considerations regarding sexual intercourse</u> (Factor 5) than do Black or White students. Black students attach greater importance to the <u>Con-</u> <u>sequences of childbearing</u> (Factor 3) than do White students with Spanish-speaking students falling between the two groups regarding the influence of Factor 3.

Table 34 illustrates the results of hypothesis 8 analyzed for males alone. The relationship between sexual decision-making factors and race was supported for males by the discriminant analysis procedure. The effectiveness of the discrimination procedure was significant (F = 2.8937; df = 12,418; p \langle .001). Chi-square tests were computed for each of the two derived discrimination functions. The first discriminant function was found to be significant (x^2 = 33.754; df = 12; p \langle .001), but the significance of the second vector failed to reach the necessary level (p = .102). The first vector accounted for 74 percent of the predictable group variation. Table 34 illustrates that the discriminant function pattern for males is similar to that of the entire sample.

Table 36 illustrates the pairwise comparisons for the male subgroup. The pairwise differences between the groups demonstrate signi-

Discriminant Analysis	of	the Sexual
Decision-Making Factors	by	Race for the
Total Sampl	e	

 Factors	White	Black	Spanish- Speaking	Mean Squares	F	First Discriminant Function	Second Discriminant Function	
Factor 1	05^{a}	.06	. 19	1.0937	1.083	.07	38	
Factor 2	(1.03) ^b .004	(.98) 19	(.80) .43	1.0099 4.856	4.947**	 45	39	
Factor 3	(.99) 13	(1.02)	(.85) .04	.9816 10.1977	10.569***	.64	59	
Factor 4	(1.03) .03 (.99)	(.86) 15 (.99)	(.98) .27 (.99)	.9648 2.7465 .9877	0.63	38	15	
Factor 5	.01	16	.51	5.3997	5.505**	45	50	
Factor 6	(.90) .06 (.92)	(1.22) 09 (1.15)	(.80) 08 (1.07)	.9810 1.1392 1.0018	1.137	15	.29	

*p .05
**p .01
***p .001
Note: F = 4.4187; df = 12,912; p .001
a Means
b Standard deviations reported in parentheses.

1

Discriminant Function			
Centroids	White	Black	Spanish-speaking
Function 1	13	.43	.50
Function 2	.09	.09	59

Discriminant Analysis o	of the Sexual
Decision-Making Factors b	by Race for the
Male Subsampl	Le

Factors	White	Black	Spanish- Speaking	Mean Squares	F	First Discriminant Function	Second Discriminant Function	
Factor 1	13 ^a (1.12) ^b	01 (.90)	.02 (.88)	.3312 1.1452	.289	.22	16	
Factor 2	22 (.94)	43 (1.10)	.17 (.79)	1.7041	1.800	41	21	
Factor 3	.11 (.87)	.50	.73	4.1229	6.071**	.60	81	
Factor 4	.46 (.82)	.27	.61 (.95)	.8687	1.248	.01	17	
Factor 5	22 (.88)	69 (1.15)	.36	6.2502 .8921	7.006***	80	39	
Factor 6	12 (.80)	15 (1.24)	.02 (1.03)	.1213	.142	19	08	

*p .05
**p .01
***p .01
***p .001
Note: F = 2.89368; df = 12,418; p .001

a Means

ł

b Standard deviations

Discriminant Function			
Centroids	White	Black	Spanish-speaking
Function 1	16	.62	36
Function 2	.07	05	91

Factors	White	Black	Spanish- Speaking	Mean Squares	F	First Discriminant Function	Second Discriminant Function
Factor 1	.05 ^a (.92) ^b	.10 (1.03)	.29 (.76)	.5001	.562	11	26
Tactor 2	•25 (•98)	05 (.96)	.57 (.87)	3.9046 .9336	4.182*	53	32
Factor 3	39 (1.12)	.26 (.94)	33 (.98)	11.1037 1.1133	9.974***	.76	18
Factor 4	43 (.96)	40 (.99)	.09 (1.00)	2.2899 .9479	2.416	.03	58
Factor 5	.26 (.84)	.15 (1.15)	.59 (.81)	1.5123 .9085	1.665	30	41
Factor 6	.25 (1.01)	05 (1.10)	14 (1.12)	3.0703 1.0999	2.791	32	.49

Discriminant Analysis of the Sexual Decision-Making Factors by Race for the Female Subsample

*p .05	
**p .01	
***p .001	
Note: $F = 3.73147$; df = 12,478; p	.001
a Means	
h Chamdand downland	

Discriminant Function			
Centroids	White	Black	Spanish-speaking
Function 1	23	.50	36
Function 2	.11	03	70

b Standard deviations

Pairwise Differences Entire Sample, Male Sample, Female Sample

F Ratio for Pairwise Differences Entire Group

	df	F	
White vs Black	6/456	5.69***	
White vs Spanish-speaking	6/456	2.72*	
Spanish-speaking vs Black	6/456	4.70***	

F Ratio for Pairwise Differences Male Subgroup

	df	F	
White vs Black	6/209	4.13***	
White vs Spanish-speaking	6/209	1.59	
Spanish-speaking vs Black	6/209	2.47*	

F Ratio for Pairwise Differences Female Subgroup

	df	F	
White vs Black	6/239	5.34***	
White vs Spanish-speaking	6/239	1.91	
Spanish-speaking vs Black	6/239	3.28**	

*p	.05
**p	.01
***p	.001

ficant differences between White male students and Black male students (F = 4.13; df = 6,209; p .001) as well as between Spanish-speaking male students and Black male students (F = 2.47; df = 6,209; p .05).

Significant differences between the groups were found (Table 34). White males attached less importance to the <u>Consequences of childbearing</u> (Factor 3) than did Black and Spanish-speaking males. Black males attached significantly less importance to <u>Intimacy considerations con-</u> <u>cerning sexual intercourse</u> (Factor 5) than did White or Spanish-speaking male students.

Table 35 illustrates the results of hypothesis 8 analyzed for females alone. The relationship between sexual decision-making factors and race was supported for females alone by the discriminant analysis procedure. The effectiveness of the procedure was significant (F = 3.732; df = 12,478; p .001). Chi-square tests were computed for each of the two derived discrimination functions. The first discriminant was found to be significant ($x^2 = 43.249$; df = 12; p .001) with the second vector reaching significance ($x^2 = 22.224$; df = 5; p .05).

As Table 36 illustrates, the first discriminant function differentiates the Black female students and Spanish-speaking female students with White female students closer to Spanish females regarding the sexual decision-making factors. The second discriminant function differentiates the Spanish-speaking females from the White females regarding the influence of the six sexual decision-making factors with Black females closer to Whites.

Table 36 illustrates the pairwise comparisons for the entire

sample. The pairwise differences between the groups demonstrates significance between two of the three possible pairwise comparisons. White females differ significantly from Black females on the sexual decision-making factors (F = 5.34; df = 6,239; p \checkmark .001) and Spanishspeaking females differ significantly from Black females (F = 3.28; df = 6,239; p \checkmark .01).

Significant differences between the racial groups were found for the female subgroup (Table 35). Black females attach less importance to External morality (Factor 2) considerations than do Spanishspeaking or White females, but more importance to the <u>Consequences of</u> <u>childbearing</u> (Factor 6) than do Spanish-speaking or White females.

Summary

Chapter IV focused on the analyses and results of the data. The results of the factor analyses conducted on the revised <u>Juhasz</u> <u>Sexual Decision-making Questionnaire</u> demonstrated six factors reflective of the adolescent sexual decision-making process. The factors were analyzed and named: <u>Family establishment competence</u>, <u>External</u> <u>morality</u>, <u>Consequences of childbearing</u>, <u>Self-enhancement through sexual</u> <u>intercourse</u>, <u>Intimacy considerations regarding sexual intercourse</u> and <u>Consequences of marriage</u>.

The relationship between the factors influencing sexual decision-making and locus of control yielded significance for the male subsample, but not for the entire group or for the female subsample. Internal males were more concerned with the consequences of pregnancy, while external males were more concerned with self-enhancement via intercourse.

The relationship between the factors which influence sexual decision-making and the personality variables as measured by the <u>High</u> <u>School Personality Questionnaire</u> was supported by the emergence of three significant canonical variates. The three canonicals reflected typologies that demonstrate sex differences, developmental differences and a typology reflective of anxiety vs adjustment (Cattell & Cattell, 1975).

The relationship between the factors which influence sexual decision-making and social class was supported for the entire sample as well as for the male and female subsamples. In general the higher the social class status, the more future-oriented was the sexual decision-making process.

The relationship between the factors which influence sexual decision-making and religiosity was supported for the entire sample as well as for the male and female subsamples. For the entire sample, religiosity was associated with sexual decision-making processes emphasizing <u>External morality</u> as well as a lessening influence of the <u>Consequences of childbearing</u> and <u>Self-enhancement through sexual</u> intercourse.

The relationship between the factors which influence sexual decision-making and IQ yielded significance for the entire sample as well as for the male and female subsamples. In general for the entire sample, the higher the IQ the less the individual was influenced in his

sexual decision-making by external moral agents, the consequences of pregnancy and <u>Self-enhancement through sexual intercourse</u>. In addition, the higher the IQ the more likely the individual is to choose a sexual partnership based on intimacy.

The relationship between the factors which influence sexual decision-making and age indicates significance for the entire sample as well as for the male and female subsamples. The results for the entire population illustrate that the influence of <u>External morality</u> dissipates with age as does the influence of an intimate sexual relationship.

The relationship between the factors which influence sexual decision-making and gender illustrates significant differences between the sexes on all six sexual decision-making factors. Females were more influenced by <u>Family establishment considerations</u>, <u>External morality</u>, <u>Intimacy considerations regarding sexual interccurse</u>, and the <u>Consequences of marriage</u>. Males were more influenced by the <u>Consequences of childbearing and Self-enhancement through sexual intercourse</u>.

The relationship between the factors which influence sexual decision-making and race was significant for the entire group as well as for the male and female subsamples. Three factors emerged as significant for the entire sample. Spanish-speaking students were most influenced by <u>External morality</u> while Black students were least influenced by this factor. Blacks were most influenced by the <u>Consequences of childbearing</u> while Whites were least influenced by the factor. In addition, Spanish-speaking individuals were most influenced by Intimacy considerations regarding sexual intercourse with Blacks least influenced by this factor.

In summary, all eight of the hypothesized relationships were statistically confirmed by the methodological procedures employed in the analyses of the data.

CHAPTER V

INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS OF THE STUDY

Introduction

In this chapter the results of the study will be interpreted and discussed. The discussion will center on the relationship between sexual decision-making factors and locus of control, personality variables, social class, religiosity, IQ, age, sex, and race.

Sexual Decision-making and Locus of Control

The relationship between the sexual decision-making factors and locus of control was not significant for the entire group nor for the female subsample. Hence, for the present adolescent population as a whole and for the female subsample the influences on sexual decisionmaking were not significantly associated with perceived effectiveness or ineffectiveness over life forces. This finding may be directly supportive of the Lewis, Cheney and Dawes (1977) position; the I-E scale is highly predictive of specific situations "..only if the specific situation is novel or ambiguous. If an individual has considerable experience with a particular situation or similar situations, then a measure of the individual's specific locus of control expectancies for that situation or class of situations is expected to be a better predictor than the I-E scale." (pp. 507-508) Hence researchers such as

Wallston, Wallston, Kaplan, and Maides (1976) and Crandall, Karkovsky, and Crandall (1965) have developed specific I-E scales relevant to their areas of research. This finding would then support the development of a locus of control scale for sexual decision-making.

The relationship between locus of control and sexual decisionmaking factors was significant for the male subsample. The significance was contributed by two of the factors: the <u>Consequences of childbearing</u> and <u>Self-enhancement through sexual intercourse</u>. The profile of the internally controlled individual as a consequence-oriented careful decision-maker (Julian & Katz, 1968) was borne out for males. The more internal the male, the more likely he was to be influenced in his sexual decision-making by the consequences of having a child. It would seem to follow that the more internal the male the more likely he would be to consider the probable effects of his sexual activity. Internal males may then be a more receptive audience for the use of birth control and the consideration of such alternatives to delivery as abortion.

The externally controlled male does not display such a consequence-oriented perspective regarding sexual decision-making. The more external the male the more likely he was to be influenced by the immediate gratification of sexual intercourse. The external male may be displaying a "decision-making" process typified by a lack of rational control over the decision to engage in sexual intercourse, allowing himself to be carried away with emotion and controlled by his passions. These passions may be the external males' Achilles' heel. Such a male may believe that it is the woman's role to control his sexual appetite. It would follow that the external male would be an ill-prepared contraceptor and in addition would no doubt be psychologically ill-prepared to deal with a pregnancy situation. The relationship between locus of control and sexual decision-making for males supports the contention that internally controlled males contemplate the ramifications of their sexual behavior while externally controlled males abdicate sexual control to the overwhelming power of libidinal forces.

Sexual Decision-Making and Personality

The canonical analysis deciphered three pertinent dimensions which relate personality to the sexual decision-making factors for the present adolescent sample.

The first canonical variate involves those personality variables which reflect the greatest sex differences (Cattell & Cattell, 1975); they are Tough-mindedness, Weak superego strength, and Dominance. These three personality variables are most associated with <u>Self-enhancement</u> <u>through sexual intercourse</u> and secondarily with the <u>Consequences of</u> <u>childbearing</u>. What emerges in this canonical is a profile of the stereotypic adolescent modal male, insensitive and rejecting of romantic illusions, unencumbered by the influences of moral rules, lacking in conscience, aggressive, competitive, stubborn, oriented toward immediate sexual gratification, viewing sexuality in terms of personal gratification with little regard for the sexual partner. With respect to this canonical the consequences of pregnancy factor may be reflective of a concern for the personal consequences of sexual behavior rather than a concern for the partner or child. What emerges in this canonical is a strong male typology reflective of narcissistic sexuality.

The opposite pole of this canonical reflects the modal stereotypic unliberated female: Tender-minded, possessing a strong superego, submissive, demonstrating little involvement with a sexuality based on immediate gratification and unconcerned regarding the consequences of pregnancy. This counterpart to canonical one exhibits the stereotypic modal adolescent female combining sexual naivete with romantic illusions which might inhibit the contemplation of sexual realities and consequences. This canonical expresses the profile of a female who is sensitive, dependent, conscientious, moralistic, yet obedient, mild, easily led, docile and accommodating this combination of personality variables seems to suggest female foreclosure which is in actuality the traditional view of the female role.

The first canonical demonstrates bipolar variables reflective of primitive role clarification based on male and female stereotypes.

The second canonical is reflective of cognitive immaturity and is basically composed of those variables which demonstrate the greatest dissipation with age. Low intelligence (or mental age) and excitability are primarily associated with <u>External morality</u> and secondarily with <u>Self-enhancement through sexual intercourse</u>. What this canonical variate appears to express is identity foreclosure, the commitment to learned ideals without the experience of personal crisis (Marcia, 1966). Such foreclosure would be experienced by the immature conflicted adolescent who desires sexual experience and yet is cognizant of the forces which oppose it. Such an adolescent may desire sexual gratification but is intellectually incapable of disarming the arguments of external moral forces against it. Lacking the ability to reason autonomously about sexuality such an adolescent will cling to the rules established by moral authorities. Such an individual lacks the cognitive skills to engage in independent sexual decision-making and hence relys on external decision-making forces to "supply the answers", while at the same time being attracted to sexual gratification. This canonical expresses the core of identity foreclosure.

The converse of this second canonical demonstrates the grouping of traits which reflect an autonomy without conflict. The converse of the second canonical includes intelligence, deliberateness, enthusiasm, relaxation, composure, low reliance on external moral authority and a lack of investment in sex merely for reasons of self-gratification. The converse of the second canonical expresses a cognitive maturity in which foreclosure is surpassed and autonomy is employed.

The third canonical is reflective of what Cattell and Cattell (1975) describe as anxiety versus adjustment. The variables which emerge in this canonical are guilt-proneness, lack of control, impatience, the involvement in intimacy considerations regarding sexual relationships as well as the desire for sexual gratification. This grouping suggests a lack of cognitive sophistication as well as a sense of personal control. The association of intimacy with a hedonistic desire for sexual self-satisfaction may be compatible, since sexual guilt may be reduced when sexual expression is confined to relationships which have been labeled intimate via some standard of intimacy.

The converse of this canonical is adjustment. This personality

typology is self-assured, placid, secure, controlled exhibiting will power, undemonstrative, deliberate, sober and serious, relaxed, composed, yet assertive and conscientious, emotionally stable, mature, and calm.

These traits include a lack of investment in a hedonistic sexual self gratification as well as a view of intercouse which is not influenced by intimacy considerations. This converse of the second canonical may be supported by the research of Jurich and Jurich (1974) who found that the higher the individuals' level of cognitive moral development as measured by the Kohlberg scales, the more likely the individual was to engage in sexual intercourse without affection but with a mutual understanding of needs. Hence intimacy may be employed by the anxiety prone adolescent as an acceptable rationale for intercourse, while the more adjusted adolescent need not employ the guise of intimacy.

Sexual Decision-making and Social Class

The relationship between sexual decision-making and social class displayed significance for the entire group and for the male subsample, but not for the female subsample. The results support the the contentions of the traditional literature in the field that upper socio-economic status is associated with a future-oriented achievementoriented value structure. Students from higher socio-economic levels assume a sexual decision-making mechanism which is protective of personal life goals and hence <u>Family establishment competence</u> and the <u>Con-</u> sequences of marriage play a significant role in their decision-making.

The emphasis here is on forethought and the consideration of the consequences of sexual behavior in light of optimal life goals. This contrasts significantly with the finding that the lower the socio-economic status the greater is influence which Self-enhancement through sexual intercourse has on the sexual decision-making process. The contention that the lower social classes are more pleasure-oriented and more concerned with immediate gratification is supported. The male subsample reflects the same basic relationships with the addition of one factor: the higher the males' socio-economic status the more influenced the students were by the consequences of marriage. Hence for the future oriented male the effects of marriage play a significant role in the sexual decision-making process. This may express the adolescent male's realization that his rite of passage to manhood depends on his investment in a vocational choice. An early marriage drains energies, finances and time that might better be invested in career training and development. Such consideration is expressive of Erikson's bipolar adolescent tasks of Work achievement versus Work paralysis as well as Role experimentation versus Negative identity (Erikson, 1968).

Sexual Decision-making and Religiosity

The relationship between sexual decision-making and religiosity was confirmed for the entire sample as well as for the male and female subsamples. As might be expected the more religious the individual the more influenced was the individual by the opinions of moral authorities. Hence the opinions of parents, peers and religious doctrine is of importance in the sexual decision-making processes of the religious

In addition more religious individuals are less influenced individual. by hedonistic self-gratification via sexual intercourse and conversely less religious individuals are more influenced by the factor. It is interesting to note that Factor 5, Intimacy considerations regarding sexual intercourse is reflective of religiosity only for males. Intimacy may be the ingredient necessary for an environment tolerant of sexual intercourse for the more religious male within the Catholic school setting. In addition the results support the contention that more religious individuals are influenced by the Consequences of childbearing. Perhaps because the less religious individual may be more likely to engage in intercourse and hence more likely to have to consider the options open to one facing the possibilities of childbirth.

In general the more religious an individual the more likely the individual is to be influenced by <u>External morality</u> and the less likely the individual is to be influenced by the consequences of bearing a child and the desire for personal sexual release. More religious adolescents are more rule bound and less oriented toward sexual autonomy in their sexual decision-making.

Strong religious involvement may foster early identity foreclosure for the adolescent. The religious adolescent who is strongly influenced by external moral authorities may internalize his values without a personal investigation or struggle as to the philosophical meaning of such values. Such an adolescent may avoid the struggles involved in the development of personal sexual identity opting for a sexual identity pre-designed by those moral authorities who know who one should be. Such an individual adheres to the opinions of moral

authorities, adopts a staunch position against the gratification of libidinal desires and is not reflective regarding the consequences of pregnancy. Such an individual is not sexually conflicted. Having assumed the ideals of moral authorities and rejected sexual desires the adolescent does not need to contemplate the consequences of a pregnancy. Such early sexual identity foreclosure may be dangerous, for the exploration and conflict normal for adolescence may simply be postponed yielding conflict in later years.

Sexual Decision-making and IQ

The relationship between sexual decision-making and IQ was significant for the entire sample as well as for the male and female subsamples. A rather complex profile emerges between intelligence and the sexual decision-making factors. The more intelligent the individual the less likely is the individual to view intercourse as hedonistic self-gratification and the more likely the individual is to view intercourse within the context of an intimate relationship. In addition the more cognitively sophisticated the individual the less likely he (she) is to be influenced by the consequences of pregnancy either because he (she) has taken contraceptive precautions and hence need not reflect on the possibility of pregnancy or because the intimate nature of their sexual relationship provides a safer atmosphere for pregnancy. It is interesting to note that Self-enhancement through sexual intercourse is less related to IQ for the male subsample than it is for the female subsample. The more intelligent the male, the less hedonistic is his sexual motivation.

When the entire group is tested, Factor 2, <u>External morality</u> emerged as significant and negatively related to intelligence. The more intelligent an individual the less likely he (she) is to rely on external moral rules for the governing of sexual behavior. The result does not appear when either subgroup is analyzed separately.

A higher intelligence may provide the individual with the mental tools or facilities to autonomously contemplate, choose, and actualize his own sexual decision-making relying less on the moral values provided by external authorities. In summary, the higher the IQ the more autonomous and relationship-oriented is the sexual decisionmaking for this sample.

Sexual Decision-making and Age

Developmental differences on the sexual decision-making factors were found for the entire group as well as for the male and female subgroups with a variety of patterns emerging. The overriding developmental effect for the entire sample was the dissipation of the influence of <u>External morality</u> with age. In line with the basic research findings regarding sexual-socialization influences, the influence of parents, peers and religious authority dissipates with age, as the superego is transformed from a collection of external messages and rules to an internalized sense of moral autonomy. This effect emerges as the only developmental result for the male subsample. It is interesting to note that this effect does not appear for the female subsample when tested alone. The dissipation of <u>External</u> morality with age for the male is clearly reflective of the over-

throwing of identity foreclosure and the emerge of individual identity. However, the female subjects display the typical feminine profile in which foreclosure plays an adaptive role (Marica, 1966). It has traditionally been more adaptive and functional for the female to reject autonomy and individualization while embracing the values of parents, society, and religious authorities. The current results support identity foreclosure for the female, but not for the male.

For the entire sample taken as a whole, developmental influences are associated with Factor 5, Intimacy considerations regarding sexual intercourse and Factor 6, the Consequences of marriage. The younger the student, the more influenced he (she) was by these considerations. Hence, for the younger individual sexuality is associated with intimacy. In addition the consequences of marriage may reflect the rational concern of the younger individual over the well publicized, disastrous effects of teenage marriage. Such a concern may be reflective of healthy decision making for the young teenager. The female subsample illustrate a concern with the Consequences of In addition, females exhibit an interesting developmental marriage. change in regard to Factor 4, Self-enhancement through sexual intercourse: the younger female is more influenced by the factor, while the more mature female is less influenced by the factor. This may be the result of the mature females' desire to settle down and establish a secure, dependable relationship, a stable "nest" which will provide the necessary emotional and financial stability for the establishment of a family. Such a relationship is often divorced from simple self-gratification (Hobart, 1974). When making the

emotional investment in a long term relationship, the mature female is usually swayed less by mere sexual gratification and more by security considerations.

Sexual Decision-making and Sex

Significant differences between the sexes were observed on all six of the sexual decision-making factors. This supports the contention that sexual decision-making is a process very much influenced by the gender of the decision-maker. Sexual decision-making for this sample is neither androgenous nor equalitarian. The double standard for the present sample still exists with males significantly more influenced by Self-enhancement through sexual intercourse and hence more oriented toward sexual impulse gratification and females significantly more influenced by Intimacy considerations regarding sexual Hence, males viewed intercourse from the perspective of intercourse. self gratification (Smigel and Seiden, 1968), while females viewed intercourse from the perspective of relationship (Ehrmann, 1973). In addition, males were more influenced than females by the consequences of a pregnancy. Perhaps the female, viewing herself in a relationship, is less concerned by a possible pregnancy while males viewing the sexual relationship from the perspective of self-gratification would be more likely to view pregnancy as a negative consequence of sexuality. Females displayed a view of sexuality that is relationship and future oriented reflecting the traditional female role as the protector of the hearth. Females displayed more concern than did males for aspects involved with the establishment of a family and the

opinions of moral authorities.

The results support the literature which stresses that the female is more likely to display permissiveness within the context of a relationship (Hobart, 1974) as well as the contention that females have a stronger investment in marriage and the establishment of a family (Reiss, 1967) while males display a greater investment in sexual permissiveness (Reiss, 1967). The study supports significant differences between the sexes on the six factors influencing sexual decision-making.

Sexual Decision-making and Race

The relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and race was significant for the entire group as well as for the male and female subgroups. Polarization on the factors basically occurs between the Spanish-speaking and non-Spanish-speaking students reflecting basic cultural differences regarding sexual decision-making.

The results for the total sample indicate that Spanishspeaking students were most influenced by moral authorities, while Black students were the least influenced. White students fell midway between the two groups regarding the influence of moral authorities. The Spanish-speaking students reflect a cultural tradition which holds parental and religious authorities in great respect. This may account for their adherence to an external morality based on such authorities. The Black culture lacks strong family structures and an orientation toward traditional Catholic beliefs, hence the Black student has not been trained to be invested in the values exhibited by external moral authorities.

Black students exhibited the most influence by the consequences of pregnancy with White students least influenced by the factor with Spanish-speaking students falling between the two groups. The results for the Black students may be indicative of reality. This may reflect the Black students high involvement in premarital sexual behavior and hence a high probability of pregnancy. Hence the concern may simply reflect reality and may result from a separation of sexuality and relationship.

Spanish-speaking students were in addition, most influenced by intimacy within the sexual relationship while Black students were least influenced by intimacy considerations with White students falling closer to Black students regarding the intimacy factor. For the Spanish-speaking individual sexuality has culturally and traditionally been associated with relationship and intimacy while the Black culture remains the most divorced from this perspective of sexual behavior.

The results for the male subsample alone illustrated that the Spanish-speaking male is most influenced by the consequences of pregnancy while the Black male is least influenced by the factor. These results may be reflective of the Spanish-speaking males' cultural and religious expectations, namely, birth control is usually not employed due to religious prohibitions, abortion is not an option since Catholicism considers it to be murder, thus due to intimacy bases of the relationship marriage remains the traditional cultural solution to an out-of-wedlock prengnacy (Rosenberg & Bensman, 1968). The

situation is quite different for the Black. Abortion is becoming an increasingly employed black solution to out-of-wedlock pregnancy. Even without abortion the female and her family usually relieve the male of any responsibility for the child (Kantner & Zelnik, 1973).

In addition Spanish-speaking males are invested in intimacy as a bases for intercourse, while Black males are least invested in intimacy. This reflects, again, the cultural expectation of the Spanish-speaking student, that relationship or intimacy is a necessary precursor to sexual intercourse.

The relationship between sexual decision-making factors and race for the female subgroup yielded two significant factors. The Consequences of Childbearing emerged as most significant for the Black female and of least significance for the White female with Spanish-speaking females falling close to white females on the factor. This result may reflect the dilemma of the Black female who, living in a fairly permissive subculture, is more likely to engage in sexual intercourse and may more often experience the consequences of sexual behavior (pregnancy)--alone. In addition the Black female is more likely to decide to have the child than is a White female and less likely to marry the father (Kantner & Zelnik, 1974). In addition Spanish-speaking females are more influenced by External Morality than are Black females with White females falling between the two racial groups regarding the influence of this factor. The Spanish-speaking female is more involved with the cultural values of respect for parents, peer, and religious values, while Black females are little influenced by such considerations.

Spanish-speaking students were most influenced in their sexual decision-making by moral authorities with Black females least influenced by this factor. Black females were most influenced by the consequences of pregnancy while White females were least influenced by the factor. The results demonstrate strong racial and/or cultural differences between adolescents regarding sexual decision-making. Spanish-speaking adolescents are the most influenced by moral authorities such as parents, peers, and religious authorities. Blacks are the least influenced by the opinions of such authorities and hence either the most rebellious or the most autonomous. Spanish-speaking males and Black females tend to display the most concern over pregnancy, perhaps because they perceive the immediacy of its consequences. The Spanish-speaking individuals display a need for intimacy as a precursor to sexual intercourse, this is especially true for the Spanish-speaking male. Perhaps intimacy surfaces as the male's avenue for sexual release. The relationship between sexual decisionmaking and race reflects that traditional cultural patterns between sexuality and race are supported for the present adolescent sample with Spanish-speaking individuals displaying minimal sexual liberality and autonomy while Black adolescents display the greatest liberality.

Summary

Chapter V reviews the results of the study focusing on interpretation and discussion.

The relationship between adolescent sexual decision-making and locus of control was not significant for the entire sample or for the

female subsample. This may reflect the need for a specific sexual decision-making I-E scale. Significance was found for the male subsample with male internals concerned about the consequences of pregnancy and male externals invested in sexual self-gratification through intercourse. Hence male internals are future oriented and male externals heedless of sexual consequences.

The relationship between sexual decision-making and personality yielded three significant canonical variates expressive of basic sex differences, developmental differences and anxiety versus adjustment.

The relationship between sexual decision-making and social class reflects basic class differences. The higher the socio-economic status the more future-oriented was the sexual decision-making process. The lower the socio-economic status, the more the geared toward immediate gratification was the sexual decision-making.

The relationship between sexual decision-making and religiosity supported the traditional perspective that the greater the degree of religiosity the more the influence of external moral authorities and the less the influence of immediate personal sexual gratification via intercourse.

The relationship between sexual decision-making and IQ demonstrates that the more cognitively sophisticated the adolescent the more relationship-oriented is the adolescent's sexual expression and the less influenced is the adolescent by the value of parents, peers, and religious authorities.

The relationship between sexual decision-making and social class are reflective of basic class differences. The higher the

social class status the more future oriented is the sexual decisionmaking and the lower the social class status the more the sexual decision-making is geared toward immediate gratification.

The relationship between sexual decision-making and religiosity reflects a sexual conservatism. The more religious the individual the more he (she) is influenced by external moral agents and the less influenced he (she) is by the desire for personal sexual gratification through intercourse.

The relationship between sexual decision-making and IQ demonstrates that the more cognitively sophisticated the adolescent the less likely is the individual to view intercourse in the light of hedonistic self-gratification and the more likely the individual is to view intercourse within the context of relationship. In addition, the more intelligent the adolescent, the less likely he (she) is to rely on the influence of external moral agents and the less likely he (she) is to be influenced by the consequences of pregnancy. The more intelligent the adolescent, the more autonomous and relationship-oriented is the individual.

The relationship between sexual decision-making and age reflects developmental changes which include the dissipation of the force of parental, peer, and religious values with age. In addition, with age, females become more concerned with the establishment of a family.

Sex differences were noted for each of the sexual decisionmaking factors. Females display more concern with the establishment of a family, marriage, traditional moral values, and intimacy; while males are more influenced by hedonistic self-gratification as well as

a concern for the consequences of pregnancy.

The relationship between sexual decision-making and race illustrates the general picture of Spanish-speaking adolescents as relationship-oriented and heavily influenced by moral agents. Blacks were more oriented toward sexual gratification and less influenced by intimacy and external moral forces. Spanish-speaking adolescents display a profile in opposition to both Whites and Blacks.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It was pointed out in Chapter I that sexuality is an essential element in human development which achieves peak importance during adolescence when the individual is faced with the task of synthesizing his own sexual values as well as experimenting with the actualization of these values in behavior. Sexual decision-making involves the analysis and synthesis of those values which are most influential in the choice of sexual behavior. Examination of the sexual decisionmaking value structure would reveal information on the importance of sexual-socialization influences, cognitive influences, as well as situational influences on sexual decision-making. Sexual decision-making values would then be examined in conjunction with locus of control, personality dimensions and demographic variables to clarify the nature of adolescent sexual decision-making.

Purpose

This study was concerned with the nature of adolescent sexual decision-making and its relationship to locus of control, specific personality variables and selected demographic variables.

Instrumentation

Three questionnaires were administered to investigate adolescents'

perceived locus of control, sexual decision-making values and personality dimensions. Rotter's <u>Internal-External Locus of Control Scale</u> (I-E Scale) was employed to ascertain degree of internality or externality. The <u>Juhasz Sexual Decision-Making Questionnaire</u> (JSDMQ) was revised for use with adolescents and employed to determine sexual decision-making influences in regard to the Juhasz Sexual Decision-Making Model (Figure 1, p. ⁵). The third instrument, the <u>High School Personality Questionnaire</u> (HSPQ) was employed to examine adolescent personality on 14 dimensions. Demographic variables were ascertained from the <u>General</u> <u>Information Questionnaire</u> which preceded the JSDMQ. IQ was determined from school records employing the students' score on the <u>Educational</u> Ability subtest of the High School Placement Test.

Sample

The sample consisted of 484 White, Black, Latino, and "other" subjects between the ages of 13 and 19. All the subjects attended Catholic High Schools in the Chicago area. There were 220 males and 264 females within the sample. The subjects were primarily catholic (85.4 percent) and secondarily protestant (13.8 percent). The remaining subjects were of "other" faiths including .8 percent Jewish and 2 percent Buddhists. Sixty-three and four tenths percent of the subjects were White, 26.4 percent were Black, and 6 percent were Spanish-speaking. The 3.3 percent Asian and .8 percent "other" races were not included in the analysis of hypothesis 8.

Research Design and Statistical Methodology

The nature of the study was essentially descriptive. The analysis of the relationship between the factors reported by adolescents as important in their sexual decision-making were subjected to factor analysis. The relationship between the factors yielded by the factor analysis and locus of control, social class, religiosity, IQ, and age were tested by multiple linear regression with the factor scores functioning as predictor variables. The relationship between the factor scores and personality traits was assessed by canonical correlation and the relationships between the sexual decision-making factor scores and both sex and race were tested by discriminant analysis.

Hypotheses

Eight major hypotheses were formulated and tested:

1. Within the adolescent population of the study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and locus of control.

2. Within the adolescent population of the study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and personality.

3. Within the adolescent population of this study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and social class.

4. Within the adolescent population of this study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence

sexual decision-making and degree of religiosity.

5. Within the adolescent population of this study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and IQ.

6. Within the adolescent population of this study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and grade level.

7. Within the adolescent population of this study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and sex.

8. Within the adolescent population of this study, there exists no significant relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and race.

Results and Conclusions

1. The factor analysis of the revised JSDMQ yielded 6 factors which were named: <u>Family establishment competence</u>, <u>External morality</u>, <u>Consequences of childbearing</u>, <u>Self-enhancement through sexual inter-</u> <u>course</u>, <u>Intimacy considerations regarding sexual intercourse</u>, and <u>Consequences of marriage</u>. These factors accounted for 34.67 percent of the variance.

2. The sexual decision-making factors were not predictive of locus of control for the entire sample nor for the female subsample. However, the sexual decision-making factors were predictive of locus of control for the male subsample (p $\langle .05 \rangle$). Internal males were more concerned about the consequences of pregnancy, while external males were invested in sexual gratification.

3. The relationship between the factors which influence sexual decision-making and personality variables yielded three significant canonical variates (p \checkmark .001). The first canonical variate was expressive of stereotypic sex differences regarding personality and sexual decision-making factors. The second canonical variate displayed developmental changes regarding personality and sexual decision-making factors. The third canonical variate displayed anxiety versus adjustment typologies regarding personality variables and sexual decision-making factors.

4. The relationship between the factors which influence sexual decision-making and social class was significant for the entire sample ($p \lt .01$) and for the male subsample ($p \lt .01$), but not for the female subsample. In general the greater the socio-economic status, the greater the concern for the future consequences of sexual decision-making. While the lower the socio-economic status, the less future-oriented and the greater the investment in sexual gratification.

5. The relationship between the factors which influence sexual decision-making and religiosity was significant for the entire sample $(p \ \ .001)$ as well as for the male subsample $(p \ \ .001)$ and female subsample $(p \ \ .001)$. In general individuals who consider themselves religious possess a great degree of faith in traditional moral authorities, hold a position against self-gratification via intercourse and do not concern themselves with the consequences of pregnancy.

6. The relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and IQ yielded significance for the entire sample

(p $\langle .001 \rangle$, for the male subsample (p $\langle .001 \rangle$, and for the female subsample (p $\langle .001 \rangle$). In general the higher the IQ the less the adolescent was influenced by the consequences of pregnancy and self-gratification by sexual intercourse and the more invested was the adolescent in an intimate sexual relationship.

7. The relationship between factors which influence sexual decision-making and age yielded significance for the entire sample $(p \ (0.001))$, for the male subsample $(p \ (0.01))$, and for the female subsample $(p \ (0.01))$. For the entire sample, the older the student the less influenced was the student by traditional moral authorities, by intimacy considerations involving sexual behavior, and by the consequences of marriage.

8. The relationship between the factors which influence sexual decision-making and gender yielded significance ($p \lt .001$). Significant differences between the sexes were noted on all six factors. Females were most influenced by family establishment considerations, external moral authorities, intimacy within the sexual relationship, and the consequences of marrying while males were more influenced by the consequences of a pregnancy and the desire for self-gratification within the sexual relationship.

9. The relationship between the factors which influence sexual decision-making and race yielded significance (p \checkmark .001). In general the racial polarization on the factors occurred between the Spanish-speaking adolescents and the non-Spanish-speaking adolescents, with Spanish-speaking students most influenced by external moral agents and Black students least influenced by such moral authorities. Black

students were the most influenced by the consequences of pregnancy while White students were the least influenced by this factor. Spanishspeaking students were most influenced by intimacy within the sexual relationship while Black students were the least influenced by a need for intimacy.

Recommendations

Two types of recommendations can be made on the basis of the present study--recommendations for the practitioner and recommendations for future research.

Recommendations for the Sex Educator or Sex Therapist

Recommendations for the practitioner include the following:

1. The sex educator and counselor should be aware of the individual adolescent's sexual-socialization influences. The practitioner should solicit information regarding family values, peer group values, and religious beliefs. This would enable the practitioner to work from within an understanding of the perspective of the adolescent.

2. The sex educator and sex counselor should develop methods of fostering communication between the sexes on all aspects of sexual decision-making encouraging the breakdown of what seems to be an attitudinal double standard.

3. The sex educator and sex counselor should be aware of the possible social class differences regarding sexual decision-making especially fostering consideration of the long range consequences of sexual behavior as well as the prevention of pregnancy for the lower class student.

4. The sex educator and sex counselor should be aware of the developmental aspect of sexuality. Uncertainty and turmoil over sexual identity is a natural consequence of the search for sexual identity. With increased age, experience, and the development of cognitive maturity the adolescent can pass through the turmoil relatively secure in his (her) sexual identity. The ideal role of the sex educator and sex counselor is to aid and facilitate the adolescents passage into sexual identity.

5. The sex educator and counselor should be cautioned as to the possible identity foreclosure of the very religious and the very young adolescent student. It may be of value to have such students engage in group sexual decision-making involving hypothetical dilemmas simply to introduce the adolescent to other modes of sexual decision-making.

6. The sex educator and sex counselor should be aware of the vast difference in racial-cultural values regarding sexual decisionmaking. The practitioner should encourage the investigation, comparison and contemplation of cultural values regarding sexuality. Hence both the adolescent and the practitioner can gain a perspective on and understanding of cultural influences.

Recommendations for Future Research

1. The results of this study indicate that the development of a locus of control scale for sexual decision-making would be of value in deciphering the role of control in the sexual decision-making process-especially as it relates to each of the sexual decisions as outlined in the Juhasz Sexual Decision-Making Model (Figure 1, p. 5).

2. The issue still remains as to the nature of sexuality for the well-adjusted adolescent. The present study has demonstrated a pattern of sexual decision-making associated with anxiety. However, the question still remains as to the nature of a healthy well-adjusted sexual decision-making profile.

3. The relationship between those factors which influence sexual decision-making and actual sexual behavior should be investigated to determine whether attitudes and influences are indeed translated into behavior.

4. The Juhasz Sexual Decision-Making Model (Figure 1, p. 5) begins its consideration of the influences on sexual decision-making with a consideration of the influences on the individual regarding the decision to have or not to have sexual intercourse. It may be that for the adolescent the model should consider even earlier decisions such as the decision to date or to kiss. In addition more research should be conducted in terms of the decision to have or not to have sexual intercourse as it affects the adolescent.

5. Additional future research is needed regarding the relationship between sexual decision-making and cognitive maturity. Measures of cognitive maturity in addition to IQ are required to delineate the exact nature of the relationship. Measures aligned with developmental theories such as Piaget's formal operations, Kohlberg's stages of moral development, Lovinger's ego development and Marcia's identity formation could serve to further anchor the theory of sexual decision-making to a developmental frame of reference.

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APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A

Sexual Decision-Making Questionnaire

Part I: General Information

What sex are you?

Male.....1 (5) Female.....2

How old were you on your

1.

2.

4.

5.

6.

- last birthday? (6) 8. What is your race? 3. White..... (7) Black.....2 Spanish speaking.....3 9. Other (specify).....5 10. In what religion were you raised? Catholic..... (8) Protestant.....2 11. Jewish.....3 children? Other (specify).....4 12. How religious would you say you were in terms of attitudes, beliefs, actions and involvement? Very religious.....1 (9) 13. Moderately religious.....2 Somewhat religious.....3 you do? Not at all religious.....4 What is the country of your 14. birth? Other (specify).....2 give it up for adoption..2 15. ever marry?
- 7. What year are you in school? Freshman..... (11) Sophomore.....2 Senior.....4 FILL IN THE BLANKS Father's Occupation (12) Mother's Occupation (13)Do you think you will remain a virgin forever? yes.....1 (14) Do you ever intend to have yes.....1 (15) Do you think you will ever use birth control? yes.....1 (16) no.....2 If you (or your partner) became pregnant what would have the child..... (17) seek an abortion.....2 If you had a child now what would you do? keep it..... (18)
 - Do you think that you will yes.....1 (19) no.....2

- Which belief about sex before 16. marriage do you have? One should not have sex
 - before marriage.....1 (20)

- A man can have sex before marriage, but a woman should wait until after marriage.....2
- A male and a female can have sex when they are engaged and/or in love with each other.....3
- A man and a woman can have sex if they care for one
- Any consenting adults can have sex regardless of the amount of affection they feel for one another.....5
- 17. What is your dating pattern? I date only one person, my steady.....l I date more than one person.....2 I rarely date.....3
- 18. Circle the activities that you feel are okay for a person of your age: kissing.....1 (22) light petting.....2 (23) sexual intercourse.....4 (25) masturbation.....5 (26)
- 19. Circle the activities that you feel most people of your age do: kissing.....1 (28) heavy petting......3 (30) sexual intercourse.....4 (31)
- 20. Where did you get your information on sex? mother.....1 (34) father.....2 (35) opposite sex friend.....4 (37) printed materials......6 (39) my sister.....7 (40)

21.	How much do you feel you know about birth control? nothing1 (42) a very little2 a fair amount3 very much4
22.	Where did you get your in- formation on birth control? mother1 (43) father2 (44) same sex friend3 (45) opposite sex friend4 (46) teacher5 (47) printed materials6 (48) my sister7 (49) my brother8 (50)
23.	Circle the method of birth control that you know very little about. condom
24.	If you were having sexual intercourse now, would you use birth control? yes1 (59) no2
25.	What methods of birth control would you consider using? condom
26.	Would you live with a member of the opposite sex without being married? yes1 (68) no2

How do you feel about 27. marriage? it is unnecessary.....1 (69) it is necessary only if you want to have children....2 it is essential before you have sex.....3 it should be a renewable it should be a commitment you make for life.....5 it is okay only if you can have other sexual partners as well.....6 it is good for some people and not for others.....7 28. How do you feel? It is hard for me to know just "how far to go" sexually on a date....1 (70) I always know exactly "how far I want to go" on a date.....2 29. Which do you prefer? I really prefer it if my partner "draws the line" about our sexual behavior.....1 (71) I would rather be the one to "draw the line" about our sexual behavior....2 30. What do you think? It is the woman's place to draw the line sexually.....1 (72) It is the man's place to draw the line sexually.2 It is each individual's own responsibility to draw his own line regarding sexual behavior.....3 31. How do you react? I worry about having to make sexual decisions..1 (73) I do not worry about making sexual decisions.....2

32. Do you feel that there is too much sexual freedom today? yes.....1 (74) no.....2

Using the code below decide which number indicates how important the factor would be in influencing your decision. Put one of the following numbers in each box below:

of no importance 1.

2. of little importance

of some importance 3.

quite important 4.

5. extremely important

The decision:		MYSELF	MY PARENTS	MY PARTNER	MY FRIENDS	MY RELIGION
33.	To have sexual intercourse (75–79)					
34.	To have children or not (5-9)					
35.	To use birth control or not (10-14)					
36.	To deliver a child or have an abortion (15-19)					
37.	To keep a child or give it up for adoption (20-24)					
38.	To marry or remain single (25-29)					

Using the code below, circle the number which indicates how important the factors would be in influencing your decision.

1--of no importance 2--of little importance 3--of some importance 4--quite important 5--extremely important

HOW IMPORTANT WOULD EACH OF THE FOLLOWING BE IN INFLUENCING YOUR DECISION? Decision 1: TO HAVE OR NOT TO HAVE SEXUAL INTERCOURSE

		of no importance	of little importanc	of some importance	quite important	extremely important	
1.	My partner's personality	.1	.2	.3	.4	5	(6)
2.	My partner's sex appeal	.1	.2	.3	.4	5	(7)
3.	My partner is single or married	.1	.2	.3	.4	5	(8)
4.	My partner's religion	.1	.2	.3	.4	5	(9)
5.	My partner's age	.1	.2	.3	.4	5	(10)
6.	My desire to be a virgin when I marry	.1	.2	.3	.4	5	(11)
7.	My desire to marry a virgin	.1	.2	.3	.4	5	(12)
8.	My religious beliefs regarding premarital sexual intercourse	.1	.2	.3	.4	5	(13)
9.	My feeling that I should be in love to have sexual intercourse	.1	.2	.3	.4	5	(14)
10.	My worry that my partner is only interested in me for sexual reasons	.1	.2	.3	.4	5	(15)
11.	My desire for sexual intercourse	.1	.2	.3	.4	5	(16)
12.	My partner's desire for sexual intercourse	.1	.2	.3	.4	5	(17)
13.	My partner's physical appearance	.1	.2	.3	.4	5	(18)
14.	I (or my partner) am having my period	.1	.2	.3	4	5	(19)
15.	The possibility of getting V.D	.1	.2	.3	.4	5	(20)
16.	The fear that I might lose my partner if we don't have sex	.1	.2	.3	.4	.5	(21)

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НОЙ	V IMPORTANT WOULD THESE BE IN INFLUENCING YOUR DECISIO	S of no importance	of little importance	of some importance	quite important	extremely important	
17.	This is our first date	.1.	2.		.4	.5	(22)
18.	We are going steady	.1.	2.	3.	.4	.5	(23)
19.	We are living together	.1.	2	3	.4	.5	(24)
20.	We are engaged	. 1	.2.	3	.4	.5	(25)
21.	We feel that we are committed to one another	.1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(26)
22.	My partner is dating other people	. 1	2	.3	.4	.5	(27)
23.	My partner is having sex with other people	.1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(28)
24.	My fear that my partner might gain control over me	.1	.2	.3	.4	.5	(29)
25.	My desire to get sexual experience	.1	.2	.3	.4	• 5	(30)
26.	It will boost my ego	.1	.2	.3	.4	.5	(31)
27.	I can compare my experiences with my friends	.1	.2	.3	.4	.5	(32)
28.	It will keep me from masturbating (touching myself to get sexual pleasure)	.1	.2	.3	.4	.5	(33)
29.	It will help me avoid homosexual relationships	.1	.2	.3	.4	.5	(34)
30.	It will give me the feeling of being close and belonging to someone	.1	.2	.3	.4	.5	(35)
31.	It will help me know myself better	.1	.2	.3	.4	.5	(36)
32.	It will be fun and pleasurable	.1	.2	.3	.4	.5	(37)
33.	It will get rid of my sexual tension	.1	.2	.3	.4	.5	(38)
34.	It will make me want more intercourse	.1	.2	.3	.4	.5	(39)
35.	My partner will expect us to get married	.1	.2	.3	.4	.5	(40)
36.	My partner will expect us to date only each other	1	.2	.3	.4	.5	(41)

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		of no importance	of little importance	of some importance	quite important	extremely important	
37.	It will reduce my chances of getting married later on	.1.	2.	3	4	.5	(42)
38.	My partner's feelings about me afterwards	.1.	2.	3	4	.5	(43)
39.	My friends' feelings about me afterwards	.1.		. 3.	4	.5	(44)
40.	My parents' feelings about me afterwards	.1.	2.	.3.	4	.5	(45)
HOW	IMPORTANT WOULD THESE BE IN INFLUENCING YOUR DECISION	?					
41.	My feeling that love can cause you to lose control of yourself	.1.	2.	.3	4	.5	(46)
42.	My feeling that love is a mysterious force that I must follow no matter where it takes me	.1.	2	.3.	. 4	.5	(47)
43.	My feeling that love is very hard to find, and when you do you must do everything possible to keep it	.1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(48)
HOW	IMPORTANT WOULD EACH OF THE FOLLOWING BE IN INFLUENCI	NG 1	THIS	DECI	ISION	:	
Deci	sion 2: TO HAVE OR NOT TO HAVE CHILDREN						
44.	I have the characteristics of a good parent	.1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(49)
45.	My partner has the characteristics of a good parent.	.1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(50)
46.	There might be negative physical effects on the mother	.1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(51)
47.	It would interfer with my social life	.1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(52)
48.	My friends' feelings about this	.1.	.2	.3	.4	.5	(53)
49.	My parents' feelings about this	.1	.2	.3	.4	.5	(54)
50.	My partner's feelings about this	.1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(55)
51.	I feel that every woman should have a child because it is a woman's destiny	.1	.2	.3	.4	.5	(56)

of no importance	of little importanc	of some importance	quite important	extremely important
oduj	le	E T A	odu	i Ly
ou	litt	some	te 1	reme
of	of	of	quí	ext

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HOW IMPORTANT WOULD EACH OF THE FOLLOWING BE IN INFLUENCING THIS DECISION? Decision 3: TO USE OR NOT TO USE BIRTH CONTROL

(57)
(58)
(59)
(60)
(61)
(62)
(63)
(64)
(64) (65)
(65)
(65) (66)
(65) (66) (67)
(65) (66) (67) (68)
(65) (66) (67) (68) (69)

			e				
		tance	importance	importance	tant	important	
		no importance	little i	some imp	e important	extremely i	
		ofr	of]	of 0	quite	extı	
68.	Having a child will limit the male's personal development	1.	2.	3	4	.5	(73)
69.	Having a child will limit the male's social life	1.	2.	.3.	4	.5	(74)
70.	Having a child will limit the male's education	1.	2.		4	.5	(75)
71.	Having a child will limit the male's career	1.	2		.4	.5	(76)
72.	There will be financial problems for the male	1.			. 4	.5	(77)
73.	There will be financial problems for the female	1.	2.		4	.5	(78)
74.	The female has the ability to be a good parent	1.		.3	4	.5	(79)
75.	The female wants to be a parent	1.	2	3	4	.5	(80)
76.	The male has the ability to be a good parent	1.	2	.3	4	.5	(6)
77.	The male wants to be a parent	1.	2.	.3.	.4	.5	(7)
78.	People's opinions of an unwed mother	1.	2.	.3.	4	.5	(8)
79.	The father and mother will marry now or later	1.	2	.3	. 4	.5	(9)
80.	No other man will want to marry an unwed mother	1.	2.	.3.	.4	.5	(10)
81.	The male will stick by the pregnant female	1.	2	.3.	4	.5	(11)
82.	The male feels that the female became pregnant to trap him into marriage	1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(12)
83.	I am afraid of having an abnormal child		2	.3	4	.5	(13)
84.	The child will have problems whether we marry or no	t.1.	2.	.3	.4	.5	(14)
85.	The cost of delivery	1.	2.	.3	.4	.5	(15)
86.	The nine months' time involved in carrying a pregnancy	1.	.2.	.3	4	.5	(16)

	of no importance of little importance of some importance duite important extremely important	
REG	ARDING THE DECISION TO HAVE AN ABORTION	
87.	Abortion is a quick solution to pregnancy12345 (1	7)
88.	The cost of the abortion	(8)
89.	My partner doesn't want to have a child12345 (1	.9)
90.	My religious beliefs against abortion112345 (2	!0)
91.	My friends' feelings about my abortion12345 (2	21)
92.	My parents' feelings about my abortion12345 (2	2)
93.	The abortion might have negative psychological effects on the female5 (2	!3)
94.	The abortion might have negative physical effects on the female	:4)
95.	The abortion might have negative psychological effects of the male	!5)
96.	The effect of the abortion on my relationship with my partner	:6)
HOW	IMPORTANT WOULD EACH OF THE FOLLOWING BE IN INFLUENCING THIS DECISION	
Deci	ision 5: IF YOU (OR YOUR PARTNER) DELIVERED A CHILD TO KEEP THE BABY OR GIVE IT UP FOR ADOPTION	
97.	Our decision to stay together (2	:7)
98.	Our decision not to marry	:8)
99.	The emotional stability of the female12345 (2	:9)
100.	The emotional stability of the male	10)
101.	The female's desire to raise a child 1	1)
102	The female's ability to raise a child	(2)

		of no importance	of little importance	of some importance	quite important	extremely important	
103.	The male's desire to raise a child	.1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(33)
104.	The male's ability to raise a child	1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(34)
105.	The fear that the child may change our relation- ship for the worse	.1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(35)
106.	My feeling that the child may improve our	.1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(36)
107.	The psychological effects on the female if she give up the child	es 1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(37)
108.	The psychological effects on the male if he gives up the child	.1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(38)
109.	I would have guilt feelings	.1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(39)
110.	My parents' reaction and feelings would influence m	nel.	2	.3	.4	.5	(40)
111.	My friends' reactions and feelings would influence me	.1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(41)
HOW	IMPORTANT WOULD EACH OF THE FOLLOWING BE IN INFLUENC	CING	THIS	5 DEC	ISIC	N:	
Deci	sion 6: TO MARRY OR STAY SINGLE						
112.	My partner's race	.1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(42)
113.	My partner's religion	.1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(43)
114.	My partner is a virgin	.1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(44)
115.	My partner is divorced	.1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(45)
116.	My partner has children from a former relationship.	.1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(46)
117.	Our compatibility	.1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(47)
118.	Our respect for one another	.1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(48)
119.	Our mutual desire for marriage	.1.	2	.3	.4	. 5	(49)

		of no importance	of little importance	of some importance	quite important	extremely important	
120.	Our committment to one another	.1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(50)
121.	My parents' opinions about the marriage	.1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(51)
122.	My friends' opinions about the marriage	.1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(52)
123.	My feeling that marriage may change our relationshi	p1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(53)
124.	My feeling that marriage would limit the female's educational plans	.1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(54)
125.	My feeling that marriage would mean less freedom for the female	.1.	2	.3	. 4	.5	(55)
126.	My feeling that marriage would limit the female's chances for personal growth	.1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(56)
127.	My feeling that marriage would limit the female's social contacts	.1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(57)
128.	My feeling that marriage would limit the male's educational plans	.1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(58)
129.	My feeling that marriage would limit the male's career chances	.1.	.2	.3	.4	.5	(59)
130.	My feeling that marriage would limit the male's chances for personal growth	.1.	2	.3	.4	.5	(60)
131.	My feeling that marriage would mean less freedom for the male	.1	.2	.3	.4	.5	(61)
132.	My feeling that marriage would change the man's life style	.1	.2	.3	.4	.5	(62)
133.	My feeling that there is an ideal mate for most people and when you find him/her you must marry	.1	.2	.3	.4	.5	(63)
134.	My feeling that two people should be friends before they marry		.2	.3	.4	.5	(64)
135.	My feeling that you should be in love to marry	.1	.2	.3	.4	.5	(65)

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B

Dear Parents:

My name is Mary Sonnenshein and I am currently completing my doctorate in Educational Psychology at Loyola University.

I would like to request your permission to allow your (son or daughter) to take part in an important study I am conducting on Adolescent Decision-making.

My first interest is whether or not adolescents feel that they are capable of making important decisions. I am interested in discovering whether they feel like <u>actors</u> in their own lives, or simply chance victims of fate. My second interest centers on what factors adolescents feel to be important in making decisions regarding dating, personal sexuality, marriage and childbearing. My third area of interest in this project is to discover what types of personality factors are typical of young decision-makers.

Would you please sign the attached slip and ask your ______.

These slips may be placed in the box marked "Sunshine Study" on the table located .

Sincerely yours,

Mary F. Sonnenshein

P.S. There is NO COST!

PARENTS' CONSENT FORM FOR SONNENSHEIN STUDY

I, the parent or guardian of ______,
a minor ______ years of age, consent to his/her participation in a
program of research being conducted by Mary F. Sonnenshein.

I understand that no risk is involved and that I may withdraw my child from participation at any time.

(Signature of Parent)

(Date)

APPENDIX C

APPENDIX C

	and the second					
Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6
1	0.1	10	10	10	07	05
1 2	.21	19 04	.19 12	.10	.86	.05 .08
2	.29	04 .02	12 .35	.28	09	25
4	.23	.02	.21	08		07
5	.20	.40	.21	04 02	006 .07	12
6	.19	.36	.23	02 17	.07	21
7	.10	. 30	.25	04	.00	20
8	.20	. 47	.23	04 14	.08	19
9	.19	08	.50	14 08	.26	14
10	.21	07	. 40	08	.20	20
10	.21	14	.40	.30	.20	02
12	.31	14 11	08	.35	.19	.008
13	.24	.07	17	.22	07	.08
14	.32	02	.10	.02	.25	19
15	. 35	10	.08	.02	005	05
16	.31	.13	12	.37	.005	.02
17	.19	03	.27	.11	.31	15
18	.26	03	.25	.30	.24	12
19	.20	09	.23	.26	.22	06
20	.33	15	.20	.23	.20	13
20	.35	03	.30	.23	.22	14
22	.22	.01	. 15	, 12	.33	31
23	.22	.02	. 18	.14	.24	25
24	.33	.33	.15	.03	.24	002
25	.41	.11	18	.31	. 16	.06
26	. 32	.31	28	. 39	.04	. 14
27	.26	.37	21	. 36	05	.11
28	.22	.25	28	. 31	08	.03
29	.28	.25	18	.26	06	.002
30	.43	20	05	.41	.07	01
31	. 36	08	07	.43	.03	.03
32	. 34	13	34	.48	05	.08
33	.36	.007	31	.52	01	.08
34	.33	.13	30	.35	.12	.06
35	.31	.17	.09	.19	.15	16
36	.43	.03	.17	.27	.17	13
37	.33	. 30	.15	.14	.03	~.28
38	.32	14	.25	.18	.15	13
39	.20	.41	.14	.15	01	.12
40	.25	.47	.21	06	05	.03
41	.41	.19	.17	.16	.10	06
42	.38	.10	.05	.32	.02	03
43	.33	03	09	.40	.002	12

Item Loadings on Principal Component Analysis

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	
44	.28	19	. 38	.14	11	06	
45	.31	25	.35	.20	.003	03	
46	.36	03	04	.04	13	12	
47	.31	.33	17	10	.10	.03	
48	.23	.50	.06	.07	04	.26	
49	.31	.46	.07	10	21	.07	
50	.24	31	.22	.12	.04	06	
51	.23	.33	08	. 32	.01	05	
52	.38	11	.30	.12	.008	04	
53	.30	22	11	004	.11	010	•
54	.37	11	21	.25	.16	.10	
55	.36	.51	.17	13	13	.01	
56	.27	.49	.10	.05	15	.15	
57	.26	14	.17	.07	.03	.03	
58	.17	.51	.25	10	02	03	
59	.45	12	04	02	25	19	
60	.53	21	06	06	30	13	
61	.52	15	16	.007	22	04	
62	.51	.01	32	11	14	21	
63	.54	06	29	23	07	22	
64	. 49	. 10	41	14	04	14	
65	. 48	10	29	36	.02	34	
66	.52	15	34	24	.02	28	
67	.55	.07	40	05	.05	13	
68	• 59	06	34	18	.09	13	
69	.53	.09	42	13	.004	07	
70	.51	10	32	32	.13	19	
71	.54	19	32	21	.15	22	
72	.54	19	25	17	.001	24	
73	.50	08	19	29	08	25	
74	.50	26	. 14	009	23	16	
75	. 42	27	.22	02	14	10	
76	.50	32	. 18	.08	20	10	
77	.39	22	.26	.02	13	.01	
78	.36	. 37	08	01	19	07	
79	. 49	.09	.13	.03	12	14	
80	.47	.23	008	02	13	17	
81	.39	21	.20	.02	16	13	
82	• 39	.12	04	.02	.06	11	
83	. 48	.11	20	.03	26	09	
84	.54	.001	04	03	20	17	
85	.34	.17	04 27	008	14	14	
86	.55	.09	24	05	22	09	
87	.31	.11	39	01	.01	09	
88	.39	.11	39	01	10	08	
89 89	. 34	20	33 22	04 004	24	03	
90 90	.44	20 .44	22	004 09	24 03	.06	
50	• 1 1	• 44	• • • •	09	05	• • • •	

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		~ ~ ~				77
Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6
0.1	~ /		0.0	05		20
91	.24	.41	.02	.05	15	.32
92	.31	.46	. 20	16	15	.20
93	. 47	26	.009	09	30	.17
94	.46	29	.01	09	26	.13
95	.47	30	04	02	14	. 19
96	. 49	23	03	.17	21	. 17
97	.46	15	.24	.10	16	.09
98	.36	14	.02	007	.03	08
99	.43	31	. 17	14	.04	.15
100	.44	26	.10	04	.006	.20
101	.43	27	.38	07	19	•08
102	.44	28	. 34	04	18	.10
103	.44	33	. 32	.05	21	.17
104	.40	30	.33	.04	22	.11
105	.45	009	19	.05	13	.03
106	. 48	.01	. 10	.12	13	.19
107	.54	29	.20	11	15	.23
108	. 47	28	.17	···01	15	.27
109	.43	04	.24	04	13	.08
110	. 38	.46	.26	19	06	.10
111	. 34	.41	.15	.04	09	.27
112	.15	.27	.03	.04	12	004
113	.15	.48	.26	07	07	02
114	.21	.45	.10	08	05	24
115	.25	.41	.29	14	05	19
116	.29	.33	.05	14	13	19
117	.27	22	.25	12	.12	.13
118	.37	22	. 37	13	.03	.17
119	.31	22	. 35	13	.02	.07
120	.31	20	. 42	17	005	. 19
121	.29	.43	.24	15	11	.06
122	.27	. 45	.12	03	09	.23
123	.51	.001	.07	.04	.18	.22
124	.55	02	06	32	.22	.09
125	.50	.07	20	28	.21	. 19
126	.53	.01	14	29	. 39	.22
127	.57	.12	24	17	.23	.26
128	.51	10	18	37	.36	.21
129	.52	04	15	29	.31	.27
130	.55	.01	13	30	.37	.36
131	.52	.08	25	16	.33	.30
132	.51	.00	15	10	.29	.25
133	.37	.11	.02	.10	.04	.02
134	.30	01	.20	09	.04	.16
134	. 30	23	.20	01	.08	03
100	• 1 /	25	• 50	-•01	•03	

APPENDIX D

APPENDIX D

Pearson Correlations Factor 1 to Factor 6 With Hypothesized Variables and General Information Variables

Variables	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6
I-E Scale	08	02	10*	04	.05	02
HSPQ Scale A	.15**	.002	.01	12**	03	.06
HSPQ Scale B	.03	25**	11*	16**	.18*	.06
HSPQ Scale C	.006	11	.06	.01	15**	.05
HSPQ Scale D	.04	.14**	04	.15**	.10*	02
HSPQ Scale E	18**	19**	.11*	.15**	20**	01
HSPQ Scale F	.002	18**	04	.18**	02	.15**
HSPQ Scale G	.15**	.16**	13**	29**	.003	.03
HSPQ Scale H	.04	16**	.03	.06	16**	.04
HSPQ Scale I	.15**	.15**	20**	37**	.16**	.10*
HSPQ Scale J	10*	04	.01	.02	.07	04
HSPQ Scale O	.05	.09	10*	.02	.26**	02
HSPQ Scale Q2	12**	11*	01	01	02	04
HSPQ Scale Q3	.03	.06	05	24**	06	04
HSPQ Scale Q4	009	.16**	05	.05	.12**	.13
Social Class	16**	03	.02	.10*	.02	09*
Religiosity	.05	.23**	12**	16**	.05	04
IQ	05	10**	23**	10**	.16**	.05
Age	.03	21**	05	005	11*	10*
Year in School	.03	24**	09	04	12**	09
Sex	.09*	.21**	20**	38**	.26**	.11*
Race	.07	.02	.16*	01	.04	06
Belief in Birth Control Positive View of	11*	.29**	.11*	.04	17	14**
Pregnancy Standard of Permis-	09*	14**	21**	.07	.001	.12**
siveness	.02	-,37**	.17**	.29**	19**	.02

Variables	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	
Belief in Heavy Petting	.03	34**	.07	.21**	05	.07	
Belief in Intercourse	06	33**	.11*	.25**	21**	.03	
Knowledge of Birth	.00	• 55	• * *	• 4 3	• 4 1	•05	
Control	.07	27**	003	09*	005	.04	
Belief in Cohabitation	.03	.32**	07	21**	.19**	09*	
Decision 1 ^a : Autonomy	.15**	09	.05	15	.24**	.03	
Decision 1: Parental	• 15	• • • •	•05	• 10	• =		
Influence	007	.36**	005	006	.14**	.03	
Decision 1: Peer							
Influence	08	.27**	.0007	.13**	04	.04	*
Decision 1: Religious		• 27	•••••	• 10			
Influence	02	.42**	09	18**	.17**	.002	
Decision 2: Autonomy	.20**	08	10*	08	.23**	.09	
Decision 2: Parental			• = •				
Influence	06	. 34**	.03	.03	.04	.07	
Decision 2: Partners'							
Influence	.20**	. 18**	06	02	.16**	.11*	
Decision 2: Peer							
Influence	02	. 30**	.01	.12**	.04	.10*	
Decision 2: Religious							
Influence	03	,40**	. 10*	.05	.15**	.07	
Decision 3: Autonomy	.14**	08	07	11*	.23**	.15**	
Decision 3: Parental							
Influence	03	.34**	.08	04	.04	.15**	
Decision 3: Peer							
Influence	-,03	.23**	.02	.07	006	.05	
Decision 3: Religious							
Influence	.01	. 38**	03	11*	13**	.06	
Decision 4: Autonomy	.09*	05	04	007	.23**	,07	
Decision 4: Parental							
Influence	01	.34**	.04	.03	.09	.14**	
Decision 4: Peer							
Influence	.04	.29**	.03	.15**	08	.10*	

Variables	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	
Decision 4: Religious							
Influence	.04	. 33**	11*	06	.15**	02	
Decision 5: Autonomy	.10*	10*	05	.06	.23**	.006	
Decision 5: Parental							
Influence	.04	.34**	.002	.06	.02	.13**	
Decision 5: Peer							
Influence	.06	.28**	.04	.18**	,06	.09*	
Decision 5: Religious							
Influence	02	.39**	05	02	.10*	.02	
Decision 6: Autonomy	.21**	05	03	03	.18**	005	
Decision 6: Parental							
Influence	.11*	.37**	.05	.15**	04	.11*	
Decision 6: Partners'							
Influence	. 30**	09	07	.05	.11*	.06	
Decision 6: Peer							
Influence	.05	.24**	05	.12**	08	.09*	
Decision 6: Religious							
Influence	.03	.35**	008	.03	.07	.01	

*p .05 **p .01

a The Decisions to follow refer to the 6 sexual decisions presented in figure one, p.

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APPENDIX E

APPENDIX E

Factors	Total	Male	Female
Factor 1	4.39	4.35	4.43
Factor 2	3.02	2.87	3.14
Factor 3	3.42	3.59	3.29
Factor 4	2.76	3.05	2.51
Factor 5	4.05	3.83	4.24
Factor 6	3.54	3.58	3.51

Mean Score for High Loading Variables on Each of the Factors

Note: The twelve top loading variables were included in this analysis.

APPENDIX F

APPENDIX F

ROTTER

QUESTIONNAIRE

Please answer these items carefully but do not spend too much time on any one item. Be sure to find an answer for every choice. For each numbered question make an X on the line beside either the a or b, whichever you choose as the statement most true.

In some instances you may discover that you believe both statements or neither one. In such cases, be sure to select the one you more strongly believe to be the case as far as you are concerned. Also try to respond to each item independently when making your choice; do not be influenced by your previous choices.

Remember:

6.

Select that alternative which you personally believe to be more true.

I more strongly believe that:

1. _____a. Children get into trouble because their parents punish them too much.

____b. The trouble with most children nowadays is that their parents are too easy with them.

- 2. _____a. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.
 - b. People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.
- 3. _____a. One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics.
 b. There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them.
- 4. _____a. In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world.
 - ____b. Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no matter how hard he tries.
- a. The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense.
 b. Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings.

a. Without the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader.
b. Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities.

7. No matter how hard you try some people just don't like you. а. People who can't get others to like them don't understand ь. how to get along with others. 8. Heredity plays the major role in determining one's a. personality. Ъ. It is one's experiences in life which determine what they're like. 9. a. I have often found that what is going to happen, happens. ь. Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action. 10. a. In the case of the well prepared student there is rarely if ever such a thing as an unfair test. Many times exam questions tend to be so unrelated to Ъ. course work that studying is really useless. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work, luck has 11. а. little or nothing to do with it. Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right Ъ. place at the right time. 12. a. The average citizen can have an influence in government decisions. This world is run by the few people in power, and there Ъ. is not much the little guy can do about it. 13. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make a. them work. b. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow. 14. a. There are certain people who are just no good. There is some good in everybody. Ъ. In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to 15. a. do with luck. Ъ. Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin. 16. a. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first. Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability; Ъ. luck has little or nothing to do with it. As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are the 17. a. victims of forces we can neither understand, nor control. Ъ. By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world events.

222 18. a. Most people can't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings. There really is no such thing as "luck." Ъ. 19. a. One should always be willing to admit his mistakes. It is usually best to cover up one's mistakes. b. 20. It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes a. vou. ь. How many friends you have depends upon how nice a person you are. 21. In the long run the bad things that happen to us are a. balanced by the good ones. Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ь. ignorance, laziness, or all three. 22. With enough effort we can wipe out political corruption. a. Ъ. It is difficult for people to have much control over the things politicians do in office. 23. Sometimes I can't understand how teachers arrive at the a. grades they give. ь. There is a direct connection between how hard I study and the grades I get. 24. A good leader expects people to decide for themselves what a. they should do. ь. A good leader makes it clear to everybody what their jobs are. Many times I feel that I have little influence over the 25. a. things that happen to me. ь. It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life. 26. People are lonely because they don't try to be friendly. a. ь. There's not much use in trying too hard to please people, if they like you, they like you. 27. a. There is too much emphasis on athletics in high school. Ъ. Team sports are an excellent way to build character. What happens to me is my own doing. 28. a. Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over ь. the direction my life is taking. Most of the time I can't understand why politicians behave 29. a. the way they do. In the long run the people are responsible for bad govern-Ъ. ment on a national as well as on a local level.

APPROVAL SHEET

The dissertation submitted by Mary Sonnenshein-Schneider has been read and approved by the following committee:

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The final copies have been examined by the director of the dissertation and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the dissertation is now given final approval by the Committee with reference to content and form.

The dissertation is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Dire