SCHOOL-BASED INTERVENTIONS INTO EFFECTS OF SCHOOL GIRL PREGNANCY ON TEACHING AND LEARNING IN MOPANI DISTRICT, LIMPOPO PROVINCE, SOUTH AFRICA

by

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PROMOTER: Prof T. Runhare
CO-PROMOTER: Prof T.N. Mafumo

2018
DECLARATION

I, Rifununi Nancy Mathebula, declare that this thesis entitled: School-based Interventions into effects of School Girl Pregnancy on Teaching and Learning in Mopani District, Limpopo Province, South Africa is my own work and has not been submitted for another degree or diploma at this university or any other institution of tertiary education. Information derived from published or unpublished work of others has been acknowledged in the text and a list of references is given.

Signature: ____________________________ Date: ____________________
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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my Heavenly Father, who gave me the wisdom, strength, perseverance as I worked on this thesis and to my four children: Vulombe Benneth Benny, Hluli Hlulani Jabulani, my only girl, Sesi Nyeleti Josna and my lastborn Legacy.
ABSTRACT

This study sought to establish the impact of interventions employed by schools to support the teaching and learning of pregnant and parenting learners (PPLs) in the Mopani district of Limpopo province, South Africa. The study employed qualitative research methodology to gather narrative data from 68 key school-based education stakeholders who were purposively sampled and interviewed on what their schools were doing to support the teaching and learning of PPLs they enrolled. Data were collected through face-to-face and focus group interviews, as well as document analysis. The study revealed that although all the four schools provided basic access to education for PPLs, their inclusive support systems and strategies to assist PPLs to cope with and benefit from the school curriculum activities were largely superficial due to the following challenges: educators, as the primary duty bearers to PPLs were not trained to identify the educational needs of PPLs and to implement relevant strategies for teaching and learning of PPLs; there was inadequate political-will to support PPLs by educators; there was inadequate collegial relationship between mainstream learners and PPLs, there was no synergy between national and school policies on management of schoolgirl pregnancy and there was non-involvement of other professionals to provide psycho-social support at the four schools. The study revealed that cultural and traditional practices of the community contributed to the negative attitudes to teenage motherhood that resulted in inadequate support service provision and structures for teaching and learning of PPLs. The study recommends that the Department of Education (DoE) must put in place formal training on policy and practice for all the key school-based education stakeholders and employ a multi-sectoral counselling system to support enrolled pregnant and parenting schoolgirls to cope with schooling.

Keywords: schoolgirl pregnancy, interventions, pregnant and parenting learner, education stakeholders.
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<td>CASS</td>
<td>Continuous Assessment</td>
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<tr>
<td>CEDAW</td>
<td>Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women</td>
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<td>CRC</td>
<td>Convention on the Rights of the Child</td>
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<td>DBE</td>
<td>Department of Basic Education</td>
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<td>DHS</td>
<td>Demographic Health Survey</td>
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<td>DoE</td>
<td>Department of Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>EFA</td>
<td>Education for All</td>
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<tr>
<td>EMDC</td>
<td>Educational Management Development Centre</td>
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<tr>
<td>FAWE</td>
<td>Forum of African Women Educationists</td>
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<tr>
<td>HCG</td>
<td>Human Chorionic Gonadotropin</td>
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<tr>
<td>HIV</td>
<td>Human Immunodeficiency Virus</td>
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<td>HRSC</td>
<td>Human Research Science Council</td>
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<tr>
<td>LO</td>
<td>Life Orientation</td>
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<td>MDGs</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goals</td>
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<tr>
<td>NBS</td>
<td>National Bureau of Statistic</td>
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<tr>
<td>NGOs</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organisations</td>
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<td>OCGS</td>
<td>Office Government Statistics- Zanzibar</td>
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<tr>
<td>PMTs</td>
<td>Pregnant Monitoring Teachers</td>
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<td>PPD</td>
<td>Partners in Population and Development</td>
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<td>PPE</td>
<td>Post Primary Education</td>
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<td>PPLs</td>
<td>Pregnant and Parenting Learners</td>
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<td>RSA</td>
<td>Republic of South Africa</td>
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<td>SACE</td>
<td>South African Council of Educators</td>
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<td>SADC</td>
<td>Southern African Development Community</td>
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<td>SADHS</td>
<td>South African Demographic Health Survey</td>
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<td>SAPS</td>
<td>South African Police Services</td>
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<td>SASA</td>
<td>South African School Act</td>
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<td>SEU</td>
<td>Social Exclusion Unit</td>
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<tr>
<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Full Form</td>
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<tr>
<td>SGB</td>
<td>School Governing Body</td>
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<td>SLES</td>
<td>Specialised Learner and Educator Support</td>
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<tr>
<td>SMTs</td>
<td>School Management Teams</td>
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<td>SSA</td>
<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
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<td>TDHS</td>
<td>Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey</td>
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<tr>
<td>UDHR</td>
<td>Universal Declaration of Human Rights</td>
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<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
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<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nations</td>
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<td>UNAIDS</td>
<td>United Nations Programme on HIV and AIDS</td>
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<td>UNCRC</td>
<td>United Nations Convention on Rights of the Child</td>
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<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
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<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization</td>
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<td>UNHCR</td>
<td>United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees</td>
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<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children's Fund</td>
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<td>WCDE</td>
<td>Western Cape Department of Education</td>
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<td>WEEA</td>
<td>Women Educational Equity Unit</td>
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<tr>
<td>WHO</td>
<td>World Health Organisation</td>
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<td>ZDHS</td>
<td>Zimbabwe Demographic and Health Survey</td>
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CHAPTER ONE

ORIENTATION AND OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

High prevalence of school girl pregnancy has become a sensitive issue globally (UNAIDS, 2010:121). Teenage pregnancy and the consequential teenage motherhood are amongst the most important societal problems challenging the contemporary global community (Kaufman, de Wet & Stadler, 2000:6; Grant & Hallman, 2008:370). Available literature reveals that adolescent pregnancy has long been a worldwide social and educational concern. Earlier studies reported that children born to young mothers are a large proportion in society (UNAIDS, 2010:122).

A newspaper article written by Ramothwala (2018:1-4), in The Sowetan titled, “Blessers impregnated 27 pupils” reported that there were 27 pregnant girls in Grade 10, 11 and 12 in one of the high schools in Limpopo Province in Blood River outside Seshego (the name of the school was published but withheld in this study). This was confirmed by the Department of Education (DoE) Spokesperson, Sam Makondo who indicated that the situation at this high school was a serious concern to the Department of Education and society at large. Makondo further indicated that various stake-holders in education must take a collective responsibility to raise more awareness inside and outside schools to prevent more learners from falling pregnant (Ramothwala, 2018:1-4). Another newspaper article written by Mashaba (2015:1-2) indicated that the current South African Minister of Basic Education, Angie Motshekga revealed a high rate of pregnancy in South African schools. The Minister indicated that of the 20 000 of learners who fell pregnant in 2014 100 hundred learners were from primary schools. Another newspaper article authored by Mkhize (2017:1-3) titled, “Health Department intensifies efforts to curb teenage pregnancy”, reported that the Parliamentary Report raised concerns about the high number of school girls who fell pregnant at both primary and secondary school between 2014 and 2016 nationwide. According to the report, South African provinces with the
highest rates of school girl pregnancies were Mpumalanga and Kwazulu-Natal, with combined total of 6477 cases in 2014 and 5178 cases in 2015 (Mkhize, 2017:1-3).

This statistical reality justifies current concerns about teenage pregnancy and motherhood world-wide. Of all teenage girls who fall pregnant, only about a third stay in school during their pregnancy and return after childbirth, with the highest return rate among those in Grade 12 (Grant & Hallman, 2008:372). It was noted that for the majority of teenage girls, falling pregnant has a devastating effect on their secondary schooling, with consequent negative impacts on their lives. Furthermore, school girl pregnancy negatively affects the normal running of the school because pregnancy is a condition which has its own unforeseen complications such as going into labour anytime.

There is need for studies to examine the school-based interventions on teaching and learning of pregnant and parenting learners (PPLs). There is inadequate studies published which have gone beyond the examination of school-based interventions on handling the effect of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning and implementation of policy guidelines such as Measures for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy (Department of Education, [DoE], 2007).

This study focussed on the four key areas of concern in relation to teaching and learning of pregnant and parenting learners (PPLs), namely:

- Factors that affect teaching and learning of PPLs.
- Types and effectiveness of school-based intervention strategies used to handle teaching and learning of PPLs.
- Challenges faced by school-based stakeholders in supporting PPLs to cope with their schooling.
- Suggestions on empowering school-based stakeholders in the implementation of measures or policies to handle PPLs in the schools.

The above four key areas were motivated by the need to implement policies on teenage sexuality and social and traditional beliefs about appropriate gender norms which can
result in numerous violations of these policies (Chigona & Chetty, 2008:274; Jewkes & Morrell, 2012:19; Panday et al., 2009:72). The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa and the South African Schools Act on education advocate for the right to education for every citizen (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Number 108, 1996; Department of Education [DoE], 2007; Prinsloo 2005; South African Schools Act (SASA) No.84 of 1996). It is against this background that pregnant and parenting learners (PPLs) should also be given the right to formal education in South Africa institutions.

This study was underpinned by the following key principles of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa:

1.1.1 The Bill of Rights

This Bill as contained in the Constitution of the RSA, Act 108/1996, affirms the democratic values of human freedom, equality and dignity, including the rights of children, including the new born child (Section 28) and the right to education (Section 29). Section 29 affirms that everybody has the right to basic education. It is therefore, imperative that school managers and school governing bodies should ensure that the rights and development of female learners are not reduced and that exceptional measures are taken in respect of pregnant schoolgirls.

1.1.2 The South African Schools Act (SASA) No.84 of 1996

The South African Schools Act (SASA) No 84 of 1996 was established to help school governing bodies (SGBs) in governing schools and to safe-guard the rights of all learners in schools. SASA Act 84 of 1996 mandates the SGBs to adopt the Learners` Code of Conduct and to make provision for the management and prevention of learner pregnancy. It upholds the rights of all learners (SASA, 1996:1). This is the basis upon which pregnant learners and teen mothers should claim their Right to Education as they are children.
1.1.3 Measures for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy (DoE, 2007)

The Measures for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy (DoE, 2007) is an official new intervention directive that allows school girls to return to school before and after giving birth without restriction. The measures aim at providing a conducive environment in which learners are fully informed about sexual reproductive matters; and to support schools in managing the teaching and learning of PPLs in the school.

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa No.108 of 1996, South African Schools Act (SASA) No. 84 of 1996 and Department of Education’s Measures for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy of 2007 are related to the feminist theories and international conventions and declarations. The World Declaration of Education for All states that the most urgent priority is to ensure access to education, improve the quality of, education for girls and women, and to remove every obstacle that hampers their active participation. In essence, liberal feminism is for gradual reforms through advocacy for equal rights for all, and laws and policies that promote equality including educational policies.

All the above principles mean that schools should develop policies and structures that help learners, including pregnant girls to know and claim their rights, in order to learn effectively in a conducive school environment.

The SASA Act No. 84 of 1996 (1996) gives a mandate to School Governing Bodies (SGBs) to make provision for management of learner pregnancy in their learners code of conduct. The learners` code of conduct must contain a clause on managing and handling learner pregnancy at school. However, the legislative environment is not an automatic driver of gender equality in schools. There are inadequate consequences for schools, and principals and governing bodies if the policies are ignored (Jewkes & Morrell, 2012:19). Both schools and learners need to be well informed on how to ensure that
pregnant learners get quality education that is free of prejudice and stigmatisation (Education Rights in South Africa, 2017:162).

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The problem of teenage pregnancy among school girls is a major concern in many countries including the Republic of South Africa (Hubbard et al., 2008:5). It was confirmed world-wide that school girl pregnancy is one of the social problems which prevents girls from continuing with their education (World Health Organisation [WHO]: 2010:33). The above statement is also reinforced by Runhare and Hwami (2014:184) who observed that school girl pregnancy is a significant factor for educational attrition in Africa. World-wide, it was estimated that births to girls aged 15-19 over the period 1995-2020 was projected at 4, 8 million (Kaufman, de Wet and Stadler 2001:148) but statistics revealed that by 2004, 14 million adolescent girls aged between 15 and 19 gave birth in sub-Saharan Africa (The World Development Report, (2007) and World Health Organisation [WHO], 2010 ). Most studies conducted world-wide have focused on causes, prevalence, impact and challenges faced by teenage mothers and programmes to support teenage mothers and implementation of education acts and policy guidelines (UNICEF, 2004:9; Chilisa, 2002:21-35; Hubbard et al., 2008:7-12; Chigona & Chetty, 2008: 261; Runhare, Vanderyar, Mulaudzi & Dzimiri, 2014:6382). In order to broaden the existing knowledge base, this study therefore, examines the impact of school-based interventions of teaching and learning of PPLs, which current research has not explored. This study seeks to fill this knowledge gap because in South Africa, schools are mandated by the constitution to enrol girls who might fall pregnant while at school and most South African high schools have PPLs in their population of learners. What schools are doing to fulfil the educational needs of PPLs could be speculative without studies on what is being done by schools to benefit their teaching and learning.
1.3 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The South African Schools Act (SASA) No. 84 of 1996 states that a school cannot refuse to admit a learner because of her pregnancy (SASA, 1996:1). South Africa is a signatory of international conventions and agreements such as the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) of 1989, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) of 1948, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) of 2000 and Education for All (EFA) of 1990, the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) of 1979 and the Forum of African Women Educationists (FAWE) which all seek to extend and protect every child’s right to education in order to make the goal of universal basic education a reality (UNICEF, 2003:60). Amongst the 13 Goals of Education for All (EFA), the one goal relevant to this study is Goal 5 which states the removal of gender differences in primary and secondary education should be realised by 2015. Gender equality in education should be achieved by 2015, with the focus on ensuring females` full and equal access to, and achievement in, basic education of good quality” (United Nations, 2000:5). With 2015 already behind us, it would seem that this objective has not been achieved and continues to be a challenge globally (Runhare & Hwami, 2014.184).

However, as an educator, I noticed that to date, there is dearth of research on the impact school-based interventions on teaching and learning of PPLs. In view of this, the main purpose of this study was to examine how school-based interventions were used to address the teaching and learning of PPLs. The study also sought to find out how these interventions were formulated, implemented and how effective they were in helping pregnant and parenting learners (PPLs) to cope with their schooling. The ultimate objective was to broaden understanding on how the school-based interventions meets the educational needs of the PPLs.
1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1.4.1 Main Objective

The main objective of the study was to examine the effectiveness of the school-based interventions on the educational access and participation of girls who choose to continue with school after falling pregnant.

1.4.2 Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of this study were to:

- Investigate the challenges faced by Pregnant and Parenting Learners (PPLs) which negatively affect their teaching and learning.

- Explore the interventions used by school-based education stake-holders in supporting the teaching and learning of PPLs.

- Examine the effectiveness of the interventions used by the school-based education stakeholders to help PPLs to cope with schooling.

- Explore the challenges encountered by school-based education stakeholders in supporting the teaching and learning of PPLs.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Taking into consideration the high prevalence of school girl pregnancy experienced in schools, the proposed study is guided by the following main question and sub-questions:
1.5.1 Main Question

How effective are school-based interventions on the educational access and participation of girls who choose to continue with school after falling pregnant?

1.5.2 Sub-questions

- What are the challenges faced by Pregnant and Parenting Learners which negatively affect their teaching and learning?
- What are the interventions used by school-based stakeholders in supporting the teaching and learning of PPLs?
- How effective are the interventions used by the schools to help the PPLs to cope with schooling?
- What challenges are encountered by schools in supporting the teaching and learning of PPLs?

1.5.3 Assumptions of the Study

Generally, I conducted this study with the assumption that the education of PPLs is not affected at schools only, but also by the home and community environment as a whole, because they are social beings. This helped me to consider not only the teachers and mainstream learners as participants, but also included the SGB members as participants. In this regard, this study was conducted with the following assumptions in mind:

1.5.3.1 High rate of pregnant and parenting learners (PPLs) in schools

Democratic measures have resulted in the numerical increase in enrolment of teenage mothers at formal schools (Runhare 2010:2, Pandor, 2007:5). In view of this, this study was conducted with the assumption that schools have a high rate of PPLs owing to the introduction of democratic principles in the South African education system, which enables learners who are pregnant to remain in school prior and after giving birth (DoE, 2007:2;
Runhare & Vanderyar, 2011:4102). In 2007 the then Minister of Education, indicated that pregnancy is one the concerns which poses a serious threat to gains achieved in public school thus far. It was further stated that learner pregnancies are higher in schools located in the poorer neighbourhoods (Pandor, 2007:4).

1.5.3.2 School interventions for teaching and learning of Pregnant and Parenting Learners (PPLs)
One of the interventions which is attracting international recognition in bridging the gap between female and male access to education and their ability to participate and complete, is the re-enrolment and continued enrolment of learners that might fall pregnant while still at school (Chigona & Chetty, 2008:15; Hubbard et al., 2008:41). It is against this background that this study assumed that there are school-based interventions used by the stakeholders to address the teaching and learning of PPLs.

1.5.3.3 Synergy between national and school education policies on management of school girl pregnancy
Earlier researchers alluded to policies that provide for equitable access to formal education by girls who could fall pregnant while in school is common in Africa (Runhare, Vanderyar, Mulaudzi & Dzimiri, 2014:6382). In view of this statement, this study was conducted with the assumption that all schools have Acts and education policies which are followed to manage and to address the effects of school girl pregnancy. These include SASA No 84 of 1996 and the Measures for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy of 2007. It is assumed that the school-based education stakeholders are using SASA and the national policy guidelines to help and support the PPLs. These acts protect the rights of all learners at schools including the pregnant learners (SASA,1996; DoE, 2007:4). According to Manzini (2001: 48), the current policy in schools allows girls that are pregnant to continue attending school while they are pregnant and after child delivery.
1.5.3.4 Provision on Learner pregnancy in School-learners’ codes of conduct
It was assumed that all learners' Code of Conducts at schools are drawn in line with the SASA Act No 84 of 1996. The SASA Act No 84 of 1996 mandates the SGBs to adopt the Learners` Codes of Conduct and makes provision for the management and prevention of learner pregnancy. SASA endorses the educational rights of all learners (SASA, 1996:1).

1.5.3.5 Knowledge on responsibilities of School-based education stakeholders on management of PPLs
The study was conducted with the assumption that the school-based education stakeholders are aware of their responsibilities, policies and interventions on addressing the effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning. The Measures for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy is an official policy guideline which stipulates the rights and responsibilities of the key duty bearers such as the SGBs, principals and educators (DoE, 2007:1). Therefore, this current study sought to examine the effectiveness of the school-based interventions in improving the educational access and participation of girls who choose to continue with school after falling pregnant.

1.6 LITERATURE REVIEW

Maree (2010:26) posits that literature review normally provides an overview of available research which is appropriate to the research topic and significant aspects of the topic. In order to understand the issues raised and to find answers to the research questions, literature on feminist theories and liberal theories was reviewed. This literature review briefly discussed both the theoretical framework and the preliminary literature related to this study.

1.6.1 Theoretical Framework

The major reason for increased interest in teenage pregnant mothers is that the pregnancy of teenagers and early motherhood remain a major cause of the disparities in access to education, attrition, completion and transition between males and females
(Grant & Hallman, 2006:6). Since my study focused on examining the impact of school-based interventions on the teaching and learning of PPLs, a review of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa and legislative provisions such as the SASA No. 84 of 1996, Measures for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy of 2007 and international conventions and declarations that relate to this study was undertaken.

1.6.1.1 Feminist theory on education
The feminist theory sees society as patriarchal. It is a structuralist theory since it sees women`s behaviour as constrained and determined by patriarchal structure. Feminism is an example of conflict theory since it focuses on gender inequality in areas such as education, employment, social mobility and political power.

1.6.1.2 Liberal feminism as a theoretical framework
Liberal feminism is the most widely accepted social and political philosophy among feminists. It emphasises equal individual rights and liberties for women and men and restraining sexual differences. The theory defends the equal rationality of the sexes and emphasises the importance of structuring social, familial, and sexual roles in ways that promote women`s autonomous self-fulfilment. It rejects strong claims of sexual difference that might underwrite different and potentially hierarchical rights and social roles. This is in keeping with the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa which protect the rights of all people.

1.6.2 Preliminary Review of Literature

Girl pregnancy is a major concern in many South African schools. According to South African Demographic Health Survey (SAHDS) of 2003, nearly a quarter (23%) of 19-year-old women included were mothers. Pregnancy amongst 15-16 years olds accounts for 7% of all teenage pregnancies while 17-19 years olds account for 93% of teenage pregnancies. The results also show that more than a quarter (27, 3%) have experienced at least one pregnancy before they reach 20, while 23% are already mothers by the time they reach 20 (SAHDS, 2003:68).
This preliminary literature review is discussed under four sub-headings: prevalence of teenage pregnancy, right of PPLs to education, national policies and intervention strategies to manage teenage pregnancy.

1.6.2.1 Prevalence of teenage pregnancy

Research into the prevalence of teenage pregnancies and child bearing is widespread in international literature and is regarded as predominantly a social problem associated with lower long-term socio-economic status for the young mothers or female children involved (The World Development Report, 2007:163). Available literature suggests that adolescent pregnancy has long been a worldwide social problem and approximately 16 million women aged between 15–19 years give birth each year, which accounts for 11% of all births worldwide (UNAIDS, 2010:124).

1.6.2.1.1 Prevalence of Teenage Pregnancy Globally

The rates of adolescent pregnancies continue to rise every year. The theme of the Partners in Population and Development (PPD) for the World Population Day for 2013 was “Adolescent Pregnancy” (PPD, 2013:1). A considerable proportion of adolescent pregnancies are either unplanned or unwanted and 30% to 60% of these pregnancies among adolescents end in abortion (PPD 2013). Among the 25 member countries of PPD, pregnancy among adolescents aged 15-19 years was highest in Egypt (9.6%) and lowest in Tunisia (0.9%). Among the member countries of PPD in the Asia-Pacific region, the rate was highest in Bangladesh (6.1%) and lowest in Vietnam (1.6%). The prevalence of adolescent pregnancy was 4.3% in Colombia and 3.9% in Mexico (PPD, 2013). The prevalence of pregnancy among women aged 20-24 years who gave birth before 18 years ranged from 46% (the highest) in Mali to 1.6% in Vietnam (the lowest) in PPD member countries (PPD, 2013:2).

1.6.2.1.2 Prevalence of Teenage Pregnancy in African Countries

The Demographic and Health Survey (TDHS) in 2010 revealed that there was high rate of pregnancy in Tanzania. The TDHS found out that many women began child bearing
in their teenage years and the statistics revealed that one out of four young women aged 15-19 are pregnant or were already mothers (TDHS, 2010). Similarly, in Zimbabwe, the 2010-2011 Zimbabwe Demographic and Health Survey (ZDHS) found out that 24% of women aged 15-19 have had a live birth, were pregnant with their first child, or had begun childbearing (ZDHS, 2010-11:67).

1.6.2.1.3 Prevalence of Teenage Pregnancy in South Africa
A study conducted by the South Africa Demographic Health Survey (DHS) (2003), suggests that while fertility rates have declined over the years for the teenage group (aged 15-19), the rate of teenage childbearing is still high by world standards. The South Africa DHS (2003) revealed that more than 30% of the 19 year-old women have given birth at least once (SADHS, 2003:68; Kaufman, de Wet & Stadler, 2001:4-5).

1.6.3 The Right of Pregnant and Parenting Learners (PPLs) to Education
The Convention on the Rights of the Child stipulates that anyone under the age of 18 years is considered a child and has the right to education. Teenage pregnancy is one of the root causes of violations of the girl child’s right to education (Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989). It has aggravated the lack of educational success of girls in South Africa (Chigona & Chetty, 2007:1).

1.6.3.1 Influence of teenage pregnancy or motherhood on a girl’s life
Teenage pregnancy alters the course of the entire life of a girl. A pregnancy can have immediate consequences for a girl’s education and later their income-earning potential. There is total transition in the girl’s life, as she would be viewed as a woman after giving birth, yet she will still be a child (FAWE, 2004).

1.6.3.2 Societal Attitudes towards Pregnant and Parenting Learners (PPLs)
Teenage girls who become pregnant face humiliation and discrimination in their schools, families and communities. Some societies regard pregnancy of unmarried teenage girls as culturally shameful and to avoid humiliation, parents give their girl children in marriage.
According to Runhare (2010:247), cultural prescriptions on pregnancy and breast feeding as well as negative perceptions to teenage pregnancy and single motherhood retard access to formal schooling of pregnant teenagers.

1.6.3.3 **Challenges faced by pregnant school girls or teenage mothers**

Pregnant school girls and teen mothers experience many challenges which negatively impact on their education. According to the World Health Organisation (2010), the three major challenges are: drop out of school, stigmatisation of pregnant and teenage mothers and the burden of extra responsibility.

1.6.4 **Policies on Managing Pregnancy in Schools**

In creating health-promoting and health-seeking schools, all countries must have laws, policies and measures to manage school girl pregnancy. Some of these policies are highlighted below:

1.6.4.1 **Overview of international policies on managing teenage pregnancy**

International law recognises the challenges faced by adolescents’ (girls’ and boys’) in accessing information and services related to pregnancy and pregnancy-prevention (Convention on the Rights of the Child, 2003; CEDAW, 1999; Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities; Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 1999).

1.6.4.2 **Policies on pregnancy in educational systems in African countries**

Every country has its own national policy to manage learner pregnancy, although most policies are comparable. It is postulated that there is a relationship between the kind of policy adopted and the wider socio-political context (Runhare & Hwami, 2014:189; Chilisa, 2002:24). Policies within most countries can therefore be categorised as expulsion, re-entry and continuation which allows girl mothers to re-join school immediately after delivery (Runhare & Hwami, 2014:189; Chilisa, 2002:24).
1.6.3 Policies on teenage pregnancy or motherhood in SA

1.6.5 Intervention Strategies in Managing Learner Pregnancy in Schools

The problem of school girls is a main concern in South Africa. Many countries continue to experience high incidence of teenage pregnancy despite intervention strategies.

1.6.5.1 Intervention strategies on learner pregnancy in developing countries
In Jamaica, there is a programme run by women, called Centre of Jamaica Foundation which supports and motivates adolescent mothers to continue with their education (McNeil, 1999:6). There are also programmes which offer many services to pregnant school girls and teen mothers such as day nursery, counselling as well as school programs on sexuality and family involvement.

1.6.5.2 Intervention strategies on learner pregnancy in African countries
In Botswana, an educational project called Diphalana Project Centre was established in the Pekeen Community Junior High in Mahalapaye in 1996 (Botswana: Ministry of Basic Education and Culture, Formal Education Circular 1/1995). It has been cited as a useful model for innovative interventions because distance learning modules allow learners who are on their maternity leave to continue with their studies. The project also provides a day care-centre for teenage mothers who are still at school and allows student mothers to visit their babies during breaks to breast feed them.

1.6.5.3 Intervention strategies on learner pregnancy in South Africa
Teenage pregnancy among school girls is a major concern in South Africa (South Africa DHS, 2003:69). Many programmes have been initiated, formulated and implemented as
intervention strategies. Some of these programs are: first chance programme, counselling programme, dropout prevention programme, prevention programme and support programmes.

In various countries, national policies and intervention strategies were formulated and implemented and several initiatives have been started by Non-Governmental Organisations, but many pregnant learners and teen mothers are failing to complete their studies (Dhlamini, 2009:3).

1.7 DEFINITIONS OF KEY CONCEPTS

1.7.1 School-based Education Stakeholders

It refers to all people who participate in the governance of a school. In this study, it refers to the School Governing Bodies (SGBs) that were policy bearers. SGBs were responsible for adopting the Learners` Code of Conduct. It also refers to the School Management Teams (SMTs) that implement policies and are the custodians of all learners` rights to education. Mangena (2009:9) defines SMT as a group of educators employed at a school. SMT comprise of the principal, deputy principal, Head of Departments and master’s teachers, senior teachers or co-opted teachers. It further refers to the Pregnant Monitoring Teachers (PMTs) who are the monitors of pregnant learners. It furthermore, refers to the class teachers who are class managers and were directly in charge of teaching and interacting with PPLs in class and during extra-curricular activities.

1.7.2 Intervention

Intervention is an orchestrated attempt by one or many people, usually family or friends to get someone with an addiction or some traumatic event or crisis or other serious problems to seek professional help by taking a decisive or intrusive role in order to modify or determine events or their outcome. In this study, it refers to school-based interventions
which are implemented by the school-based education stakeholders to address the teaching and learning of PPLs in their schools.

1.7.3 Pregnancy

Pregnancy is a physiological process, associated with missed period, fatigue, breast enlargement and tenderness, abdominal distension, nausea and vomiting as well as light-headedness. Abdominal ultrasound, urinary or serum levels of HCG are confirmatory tests for pregnancy (UNDP Report, 2003).

1.7.4 Teenage Pregnancy

Teenage pregnancy is defined as a teenage girl, usually within the ages of 13-19, becoming pregnant. According to UNICEF (2003), teenage pregnancy refers to the girl who has not reached legal adulthood who becomes pregnant. In this study, teenage pregnancy is defined as a situation in which a teen mother aged between 13 and 19 years gives birth (Panday et al., 2009:195). Therefore, a teenage mother is anyone who has given birth by the age of 19 years. Macleod (2003:45) defines teenage pregnancy as a social problem in which adults' practices and functions are displayed by a person who, owing to her age and developmental status, is adult but not yet adult, child, but not child. Teenage pregnancy in this study entails falling pregnant and parenting by girls in secondary schools between the ages of 13 and 19.

1.7.5 Prevention

Prevention is defined as an early, intensive, and untiring intervention to bring student performance within normal limits (Slavin, Madden, Karweit, Dolan, Wasik, 1992:85).
1.7.6 Pregnant Learner

Pregnant learner can be described as an adolescent, teenaged or under-aged girl, usually within the age of 13 and 19 years who has fallen pregnant while still in school (Kanku & Mash, 2010:564).

1.7.7 Parenting Learner

Parenting can be defined as a purposive activity aimed at ensuring survival and development of children. Learner refers to any person receiving education or obliged to receive education as guided by SASA No. 84 of 1996. In the context of this study, a parenting learner refers to a school-going age learner who has given birth but decided to continue with schooling on a full-time basis.

1.8 RESEARCH APPROACH

According to Strauss and Corbin (1990:24) research approach is an essential to plan when conducting any research. Planning puts in place strategies on how data for the study were collected, processed, interpreted and analysed. Without an appropriate approach for the research process, a study may be unreliable and invalid. The research paradigm, research design and research method that underpinned to this study are discussed in Chapter Four of this thesis.
Figure 1.1: Summary of the Research Paradigm, Methodological Approach and Process
1.8.1 Research Paradigm

According to Polit and Beck (2008), a research paradigm is a window through which to view a natural phenomenon that encompasses a set of philosophical assumptions that guides one`s approach to enquiry (Polit & Beck, 2008:13). Paradigms are systems of thinking that guide a study by defining its nature along three philosophical dimensions, namely ontology, epistemology and methodology (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999:6; Crotty 2003:10; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:22).

1.8.2 Research Design

According to De Vos (2002:335), research design refers to the entire process of research from conceptualising a problem to investigating and writing the report on the study. This includes the process of selecting a sample of interest to the study, collecting data to be used as a basis for testing the hypothesis or research questions and assumptions, presenting and analysing data into results or findings of the study (De Vos, 2002:335; Creswell, 2002:86). Since the purpose of this study was to examine interventions used in addressing the teaching and learning of PPLs at only four schools that had a high population of PPLs, the case study research approach was used.

1.8.3 Research Methodology

According to Denzin and Lincoln (2000:24) research methodology refers to a process that researchers apply to gain knowledge. Creswell (2010:47), defines qualitative method as a research approach which is natural in its attempt to understand a phenomenon in its context or the real-world setting. Patton (2002:39) states that qualitative research uses the naturalistic approach that seeks to understand phenomenon in context-specific settings where the researcher does not attempt to manipulate the phenomenon of interest. Qualitative researchers study things in their natural setting, attempting to make sense of, or to interpret, phenomenon in terms of the meaning people bring to them (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:3). In this study, interviews were conducted at participants` own schools in
order to understand how the key duty bearers formulate and implement school interventions to help PPLs cope with learning.

1.8.4 Study Population

According to McMillan and Schumacher (2001:489) population is as a group of individuals or events from which a sample is drawn and to which results can be generalized. Babbie and Mouton (2001:173) define population as the theoretically specified aggregation of study elements while Bertram (2004:64) says population is used to mean the total number of people or groups or organisations who could be included in a study. In this study, the population consisted of pregnant and parenting learners (PPLs), mainstream learners, School Governing Bodies (SGBs), School Management Team (SMT), Pregnancy Monitoring Teachers (PMT) and class teachers from secondary schools in the Mopani District of Limpopo Province, South Africa. The targeted population was directly affected by school girl pregnancy because they were having high rate of learner pregnancy between 2017 and 2018.

1.8.5 Sampling Method and Study Participants

This study used both purposive and snowball sampling. Purposive sampling is a method of sampling which is employed in particular situations where research participants are selected for a given purpose (Maree, 2011:79). Maree further states that purposive sampling ensures that relevant data are collected for the intended purpose. The four high schools were selected because they had a high rate of learner pregnancy in the Mopani District. Qualitative research methodology was used in this study to gather narrative data from a purposively sampled key school-based education stakeholders that comprised of 20 SGBs members, 4 SMT, 8 PMTs, 8 class teachers and 20 mainstream learners from the four schools where the study was conducted. Snowball sampling was used to select 8 PPLs who were willing to participate in the study which focused on a sensitive aspect in their life experiences (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007:116). Each PPL was requested to help identify another PPL who could accept to take part in the
study. All the 68 participants in this study were affected by the phenomenon under study, meaning that they had knowledge of the interventions on management of learner pregnancy as school-based stakeholders.

1.9 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS AND PROCEDURES

A combination of focus group interviews, face-to-face individual interviews, document analysis were used to collect both textual and narrative data, in line with the qualitative case study research, the phenomenological, interpretivist and social constructivist epistemological positioning of this study. The reason for using a combination of instruments to collect research data was to realise data saturation through widening the perceptions of participants. Data collection instruments and procedures are presented in detail in Chapter Four.

1.9.1 Data Collection Instruments

In this study, document study, individual interviews and focus group interviews were adopted as instruments to collect data. These are explained in detail below.

1.9.2 Document Analysis

McMillan and Schumacher (2006:319) state that document analysis is a data collection instrument which is non-interactive, wherein the investigation of case is carried out through a review of artefacts or a collection of archival materials such as photos, personal diaries, minutes of meetings, video clips and other forms of records filed in organisations. In this study, the pregnancy monitoring register, attendance register, and records of school discipline were used to collect textual data. To make my study lawful, I also comprehensively studied the administrative document or the Learners` Code of Conduct. This was significant to this study because it is recommended that the Code of Conduct must have a provision for managing and preventing of learner pregnancy within the framework of the as SASA No. 84 of 1996.
1.9.3 Interviews as a Data Collection Technique

According to Maree (2011:87) an interview is a two-way conversation in which the interviewer asks the participant questions to learn about the ideas, beliefs, views, opinions and behaviours of the participant. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007:349) note that an interview is an interchange of views between two or more people on a topic of mutual interest. The purpose of qualitative interviews is to view phenomena through the perspectives of the participants. This means that interviews are a valuable source of information if they are used properly. (Maree, 2011:87).

In this study, I used both focus group interviews (FGDs) and the individual face-to-face interviews. I used the FGI to collect data from the SGB members and the mainstream learners. I conducted the individual face-to-face interview to collect data from the SMT members, PMTs or senior teachers, class teachers of PPLs and the PPLs. I used an interview guide to collect data. The interviews were audio-taped after permission to use an audio-tape recorder was granted by the participants.

1.10 DATA ANALYSIS

The purpose of data analysis is to describe the data clearly, identify what is typical and atypical of the data, bring to light differences, relationships and other patterns existing in the data, and ultimately answer research questions or test hypotheses (Creswell, 2002:95). I analysed both data from the school documents and the audio-recorded interviews. In this study, I used content analysis. Patton, cited in Maree (2011:75) describe content analysis as a logical approach to the analysis of qualitative data. Content analysis was used to identify, summarise, and make inferences on the content of views expressed by study participants. Themes were generated from the views of the participants. Data collected were analysed manually by looking for categories emerging from the responses. A more detailed discussion on data analysis is given in Chapter Five of this thesis. Content analysis was used because it enabled the researcher to handle a
large volume of quoted statements as well as to identify and monitor consistencies or any change in the views of participants (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007:197).

1.11 QUALITY CRITERIA MEASURES

The researcher is the data-gathering instrument in qualitative research. In this type of study, validity and reliability refer to the research that is credible and trustworthy. According to Lincoln and Guba (2005:991), trustworthiness relates to the manner in which the researcher is able to convince the audience that the research is of high quality and the research is worth the recognition. In this regard credibility, applicability, dependability and conformability are the key criteria of trustworthiness. These measures are discussed in Chapter Four. The four key criteria of trustworthiness are briefly discussed below.

1.11.1 Credibility of Research Instruments

According to McMillan and Schumacher (2001:102), credibility is the extent to which the results approximate reality and are judged to be accurate and reasonable. Credibility refers to the assurance that the conclusions which emerge from the study emanate from the collected data. In this study, I applied triangulation to the methods of data collection and data analysis in order to determine if there were any discrepancies. Credibility was ensured by prolonging the engagement with participants in the study sites, persistent observation in the field; the use of peer de-briefers or peer researchers, negative case analysis, researcher reflexivity, participant checks and validation, or co-analysis.

1.11.2 Transferability of the Study Results

Transferability has to do with transmitting or generalising the results of a study to other contexts (Gay & Airasian, 2003:246). To improve transferability, a detailed process of how the study was conducted will be presented. Rich description of the four schools' backgrounds, socio-culture and school ethos, the interview rooms and general
environment of the schools are discussed. The findings of the study, as recorded in the tape-recorder, written in the field notes and a reflective journal are defined in the form of themes and detailed explanations.

1.11.3 Dependability of Data Collection Instruments

Gay and Airasian (2003:247) state that dependability refers to how carefully the researcher has selected the data collection instruments and research sites to suit the research questions and the objectives of the study. Durrheim and Wassenaar (2002:64) state that dependability concerns the extent to which the findings of the study reflect the actual processes that occurred. I employed member checking and I discussed the identified themes with the participants to ensure that they were accurate and dependable (Creswell, 2002:190). Comprehensive field notes were taken throughout the study. Those notes also included the general environment of the four schools, study of documents and the interviewing process. In addition, the verbal and non-verbal cues of the participants were captured in detail during the interviews.

1.11.4 Conformability of Data Sources

According to Merriman (2009:217) conformability means ensuring that the data findings actually represent the perspectives, meanings and views of the participants instead of the views and understanding of the researcher. The findings were scrutinised and analysed, and self-critical accounts were considered. Data were recorded accordingly, interpreted and presented correctly and accurately.

1.12 RATIONALE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

South Africa has signed and ratified United Nations Conventions which mandate the country to take steps to reduce school drop-out rates among females students (Committee on the Rights of the Child, 2003), hence, the establishment of the Measures for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy (2007) which provides official
policy guidelines that allow school girls to return to school after giving birth without restriction (DoE, 2007:1-2). Despite the good intentions of the Constitution of South Africa (SASA) Act No 84 of 1996, international laws and feminism theories, Measures for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy 2007, the experience of pregnant and parenting learners is greatly influenced by stakeholders, particularly the school managers, teachers, other learners and family. Earlier studies revealed that stakeholders in schools bring with them gendered identities, moralities and practices both at school and beyond (Chilisa, 2002:32; Vanderyar et al., 2014:6109).

This study was unique in the sense that it focussed on the impact of school-based interventions on the teaching and learning of pregnant parenting school girls. The study fills a knowledge gap in the literature on the broad topic of school girl pregnancy. Future researchers who are interested in the subject of learner pregnancy in general will also benefit from insights provided by the study as it will shed light on the kind of support needed by PPLs to avoid the poor outcomes many of them currently experienced (Department for Children Schools and Families (DCSF) and Department of Health, 2008:3).

This study revealed that lawful implementation of the national policy guidelines, effectiveness of the school-based interventions and the adequate support from all those who are affected by school girl pregnancy will improve the completion of school by the PPLs. Findings from the study will make a substantial contribution to the reviewing and implementation of education policies on the managing of school girl pregnancy. By analysing the usefulness of the school-based interventions employed to address the negative effects of school girl pregnancy, the study will help schools reflect on their school policies and practices regarding the management of school girl pregnancy.

1.13 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The study could have been conducted nationally but this was not possible due to resource constraints. The case study approach was suitable for this study because most of the
schools which have high rate of pregnancy are found in rural areas. The four rural secondary schools from Mopani District were selected because it was reported that girls from Mopani District were exposed to sex at an early age than any other districts in Limpopo Province (Population Development Directorate, 2012:23). I used qualitative research to explore the lived experiences of the participants in order to understand their perspectives and world views on school-based interventions for PPLs (Merriam, 2009:30).

I used interviews because I wanted to see the world through the eyes of the participants as interviews are considered a valuable source of information (Maree, 2011:87). I acknowledge that parents or guardians of PPLs play important role in supporting the PPLs to cope with their schooling, but I did not include them because this would have broadened the scope of the study beyond manageable limits capacity due to resources and time constrains. As a result, I only selected the SMTs, SGBs, PMTs, class teachers, PPLs as well as mainstream learners as study participants. It was also prudent to keep the scope of the investigation in order to cut costs and time spend on the study. The focus of the study was on school based education stakeholders although it was also revealed in this study that parents or guardians of PPLs also play an important role in supporting their pregnant and parenting children (DoE, 2007:6).

1.14 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethics is a matter associated with morality and ethical guidelines which serve as the standard and basis to evaluate one’s conduct. Individuals that are involved in research need to be aware of the generally agreed upon research ethics in relation to what is considered moral and immoral in scientific research (Creswell, 2002:187-188). Since this study involved human subjects, procedures were followed to obtain ethical clearance for their participation in the study. The procedures followed are outlined below
1.14.1 Permission to Conduct Research

I requested permission to conduct the study from the Mopani District Department of Education (DoE) and the principals of the four selected secondary schools for the study. The consent of the adult participants, that is, SGB members, SMT members, PMTs and class teachers, parents or guardians of the selected PPLs and mainstream learners.

1.14.2 Informed Consent and Voluntary Participation

I personally discussed the purpose of the study with all participants, distributed consent forms to parents or guardians of PPLs and mainstream learners and requested them to bring them back the consent forms signed by their parents or guardians before they could participate in the study. In addition, I ascertained that all the sampled participants gave their expressed voluntary willingness to participate in the study. Participants were told that they were free to withdraw from the study at any time during the process if they wished to do so.

1.14.3 Protection from Harm

Creswell (2002:189) contends that researchers should make sure that participants are not in any way exposed to psychological or physical harm during the process of research. I was always honest and respectful to all participants. If by any chance participants required debriefing after an interview, I meticulously provided the service.

1.14.4 Privacy, Confidentiality and Anonymity

Bertram (2004:73) indicates that all participants need to be assured of the confidentiality of information supplied by them. I made sure that all the information that was obtained from the participants was kept private and the findings of the study were presented in an anonymous manner to protect the identities of the participants in the process. Bertrams (2004:136) notes that participants are more likely to speak honestly if they know that their
opinions or views cannot be traced directly back to them when the research report is written. Descriptions which did not lead readers of this work to the identities of participants were used and the four high schools were coded as School A, School B, School C and School D. Participants were coded as members of School A and School B, while learners and class teachers were identified by numbers that is: Class teacher No.1 of School A and learner No.1 of School B and so on.

1.15 STRUCTURE AND OUTLINE OF CHAPTERS

Chapter 1: Orientation and Overview of the Study
Chapter 1 focuses on the background of the problem under investigation, problem formulation, and the purpose of the study, research questions and definition of concepts, limitation of the study, ethical considerations and significance of study.

Chapter 2: Theoretical Framework
Chapter 2 discusses the theoretical framework in order to establish the importance of the study as well as to extend dialogue on the current study.

Chapter 3: Review of Related Literature
In Chapter 3, a literature review is conducted in order to share with the reader the results of earlier studies related to the study in order to put the present study into perspective as well as identify knowledge gaps that the present study sought to fill.

Chapter 4: Research Methodology
Chapter 4 discusses the research methodology and design. The research methods, procedures, population and sample, research instruments, and data collection are described. The chapter also explains and justifies the sample and sampling procedures adopted in this study.
Chapter 5: Data Presentation and Analysis
In Chapter 5, the responses of the respondents are presented, and these are accompanied by a detailed analysis and interpretation. The chapter covers data presentation, analysis and interpretation.

Chapter 6: Discussion of Research Findings
In Chapter 6, I compare and contrast results from the present study and those from earlier studies (discussed in Chapter Three).

Chapter 7: Conclusion and Recommendations
Chapter 7 summarises findings from the present study and gives conclusions and recommendations based on findings from the study. Limitations of the study and areas for future investigation are also discussed in this chapter.

1.16 CHAPTER SUMMARY
This chapter provided a comprehensive foundation of this study. It gave a background to the study in order to provide a deeper understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. The chapter highlighted the statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research objectives and research questions with a view to shed light on the current state of school girl pregnancy.

Definitions of key terms were also given in this chapter in order to provide a better understanding of their contextual meanings. An overview of the theoretical framework which included feminist theories was also discussed in this study. The research methodology and data analysis used in the study were also highlighted in order to provide a clear understanding of the procedures followed. Interviews and document analysis were used as the main research instruments to collect data. Assumptions made in the study were that schools were actively supporting PPLs cope with their education. The chapter also presented the ethical considerations which were followed during the study. The next chapter outlines the theoretical framework which underpins this study. I therefore proceed
to the next chapter, which will outline and discuss the theoretical framework related to this study.
CHAPTER TWO

POSITIONING THE STUDY INTO RELATED THEORETICAL LANDSCAPE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Since this study is informed by the effects of school girl pregnancy on the education of pregnant school girls and its implications on gender inequality in schools. This chapter discusses the feminist theoretical framework to gain an insight on the underlying social issues on teen pregnancy and motherhood on educational access and participation. The chapter also outlines how the feminist theories, the international conventions and declarations are interrelated and are in concurrence with the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, the South African Schools Act (SASA) and Measures for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy of 2007, which advocate for the democratisation of the education for girls who might fall pregnant while at school (DoE, 2007:1).

A review of the various feminist theories which address the issues of gender inequality in society helped me to gain greater insights into issues pertaining the educational rights of women including PPLs. Feminism theories have been used by scholars to address gender inequalities in society and education (Stromquist, 2005:12). The knowledge acquired from the study of the international conventions and declarations added value to the application of feminism to the call for gender equity in education because international conventions are the means through which gender equality can be implemented by state parties to the United Nations (UN) such as South Africa.

A theoretical framework is the philosophical foundation for the overall study (Merriam, 1998:11). According to Maxwell (2005:33), theoretical framework is an array of concepts, assumptions, expectations, beliefs and theories that support and inform a study investigation. Camp (2001:16) adds that a theoretical framework of the study is really the pre-conceived conceptual perspective on an area of study which informs how the study is conceptualised and conducted. In this study I found the feminist theoretical
propositions, namely the radical, socialist and liberal feminism and their impact on international and national statutes such as Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) of 1948, the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) of 1989, the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) of 1979, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) of 2000 and Education for All (EFA) of 1990 and the Forum of African Women Educationists (FAWE) to be the relevant lens through which I could examine the school-based interventions on the effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning.

A comprehensive critique of the feminist theory, international conventions and the national policies of South Africa, which all promote the rights of women, as well as PPLs as the key subjects of the study, is therefore conducted in this chapter.

2.2 AN OVERVIEW OF THE FEMINIST THEORY

According to Ritzer (2008:450), a feminist theory is a generalised, wide ranging system of ideas about social life and human experiences developed from a women-centred perspective. Feminism is a structuralist theory because it sees women`s behaviour as forced and determined by patriarchal structure. Feminists see society as patriarchal. Patriarchy means men`s pervasive oppression and exploitation of women, which can be found wherever women and men are in contact with each other, in private as well as in public. Ritzer further explains that feminist theorists view gender as a social construction not emanating from nature but created by people as part of the processes of group life (Ritzer, 2008:451). Feminism is an example of conflict theory because it focuses on gender inequality in areas such as education, employment, social mobility and political power. Feminist theories were mainly developed to provide explanations for the persistent gender inequalities in society and the workplace.

All feminist theories agree that there is oppression and inequality grounded on gender. Even though the approaches they use to advocate against those inequalities within society are different, feminist theories are grounded on the rationalisation that society as
a whole, has contributed to inequality between women and men regardless of race. The theorists further argue that inequality has caused less access to power, economic disempowerment, lower social status and generally limited opportunities to women and girls than men and boys. Theorists have different approaches that are applied to address the issues of gender inequality and oppression.

The study examines the impact of school-based interventions on creating conducive learning environment, supporting and promoting educational the needs of PPLs. This theoretical chapter discusses the three feminist theories, namely, Liberal Feminism, Socialist Feminism and Radical Feminism. This study is correlated to these three feminist theories because it seeks to promote education of PPLs, who are women per se.

### 2.2.1 Radical Feminism

Radical feminism views the oppression of women as a fundamental form of oppression that cuts boundaries of race, culture and economic class (Samkange, 2015:1172). This is a women liberation movement which concentrates on social change of revolutionary proportions. Radical feminists see men`s domination of women as the result of the system of patriarchy. Patriarchy is a form of male dominance exercised by society over women, this is the inmate desire for men to dominate women. They strongly consider that patriarchy is responsible for the oppression of women (Samkange, 2015:1173).

They argue that authority encompasses beyond the family provision of opportunities between men and women. They claimed that this authority has been acknowledged as custom by society. In relation to this study it could be argued that pregnant school girls face humiliation and discrimination in their schools, families and communities yet they are supposed to be given the necessary assistance and support by society at large. In line with the radical feminism, societies regard pregnancy of teenage girls (PPLs included) as culturally, socially and unethically disgraceful and this results in PPLs experiencing educational challenges which lead to drop-outs while the father of the baby (if still a
learner) continues freely with his education. This creates inequality between men and women and feminists want this inequality to be totally eradicated (Stromquist, 2007:4).

Radical feminism subscribes to the view that male supremacy should be challenged and changed. According to Gandari et al. (2012:16), advocates of radical feminism work towards creating alternative social institutions which fulfil the needs of women, at the same time allowing women to make choices on social and health issues that affect them and rejecting pressures that are exerted by patriarchy. The theory argues the dominance of patriarchy in our perceptions and practices has to be challenged and eradicated. For instance, it makes society accept inequity between men and women as normal.

Compared to liberal feminists, radical feminists do not pursue equality within patriarchal power structures, but they aim to create distinct women’s social spaces. This study does not call for removal of men from the life of PPLs as radical feminism would imply, but for both men and women to eradicate the negative effects of pregnancy on teaching and learning of PPLs.

2.2.2 Implications of Radical Feminism on Gender Equality in Education

Radical feminists are concerned with male monopolisation of culture, knowledge and sexual politics of everyday life in schools. Their main focus in education is related to the curriculum, women teachers and girls’ access to power and policy formulation in schools. Radical feminists strongly acknowledge that education is a tool to liberate women from subordination. However, they disagree that current formal schooling can be able to serve the purpose of liberating women from subordination. This justifies their reason to support the alternative non-formal type of education.

Radical feminists focus on patriarchy and power that facilitates an explanation of oppression of women both within the school, and also within the context of society at large. In relation to this study, the oppression within the school context and society at large causes PPLs to have low self-confidence. This is also confirmed by Chilisa
(2002:34) who indicated that society and school control perceptions of pregnant learners and girl mothers through intimidation, stigmatisation and oppressive methodologies that disempower girl mothers from returning to the school system. According to radical feminists, school is a place where injustice and oppression of a certain category of people is done, such as sexual harassment.

In contradiction with liberal feminism, radical feminists do not regard both the state and schools as positive agents because radical feminists aim for more fundamental transformation of society. They also claim that schooling represents one of the ways in which girls and women are excluded from power. They justify their views by indicating that states do not pay much attention to change the existing education system because men keep changing rules as soon as women show any sign that they are becoming successful as them. To radical feminism therefore, the school in its current engendered patriarchal state cannot adequately serve the interests of women, let alone PPLs. However, for this study, there is need for schools to be reformed in order to serve the educational needs of PPLs than to be eradicated as the radical feminists would desire.

According to Ritzer (2008:469), radical feminism is based on two central beliefs, namely women are of absolute positive value as men and women are oppressed everywhere by the system of patriarchy. In relation to this study, PPLs experience discrimination everywhere, at schools, at homes and at their communities. It is observed in literature that PPLs are overloaded with the responsibility of taking care of babies and bear the consequences of teenage pregnancy while boys who father the children (while still at school) are not called to take responsibility (Runhare & Hwami, 2014:183). This is in line with radical feminism which says that women are oppressed everywhere by the system of patriarchy such as schools. However, this study is premised on the assumption that schools should not be eradicated altogether but should be reformed to have policies and stakeholders that implement what works best for PPLs to benefit from school enrolment.
2.2.3 Socialist Feminism

Socialist feminism links gender inequality and women`s oppression to the capitalist system of production and the division of labour consistent with this system (Lorber, 2010:121). Socialists strongly condemn the family as a source of women`s oppression and exploitation. They identify all the imperative variances among human beings namely, age, class gender, race, ethnicity, nationality and sexual orientation (Ritzer, 2008:477). Socialist feminists emphasise the complication of inequality between women by stressing patterns of their economic, educational and cultural disadvantage. The perspective of social feminism in South Africa is embodied in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Bill of Rights, sub-section 9(3) which states that “The state may not unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone on one or more grounds, including race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status” (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996:1247). In other words, the socialist feminists would want to achieve equal treatment of men and women in both the private and public spheres so that gender differences do not negatively affect the educational process and outcomes of PPLs, in this regard.

Socialist feminists demand change by means of creating a global solidarity amongst women to combat abuses, their lives, the lives of the communities and the socio-economic environment (Ritzer, 2008:477). From the socialist point of view, the contribution of this study is to create a conducive environment for the PPLs so that they are not discriminated against in the home, the school, community and in any other life chances.

2.2.4 Implications of Socialist Feminism on Gender Equality in Education

Social feminists regard education as a regressive organisation that fosters a sexist culture for the disadvantage of women’s participation in both the private (home) and public spheres (school). School is considered to reproduce the current gender unfair situation. They contend that the school curriculum incorporates sexist assumptions meanwhile sexual division of labour are built in the context of education. Socialist feminism, in
contrast with liberal feminism, does not consider education as positive agent of change without changing the manner in which capitalism disadvantages women in society. According to Stromquist (2007:8), the state is viewed as an agent which acts jointly and closely with economic interest to keep women in positions subordinate to men. The implication of this view for the current study is for schools to find ways of opening up educational avenues and opportunities for PPLs to use education as an empowering tool for their active participation in the socio-economic sector as well as to contribute to their families’ economic roles.

The socialist feminist perspective further avow that, in a gender context, schooling serves to propagate gender inequalities (Stromquist, 2007:5). One significant perception of socialist feminism is that it includes other factors of inequality such as race and class, which seem to integrate with education. In the same vein, in South Africa, The Bill of Rights, section 29 provides for the Right to Education. Section (1) (a) affirms that everybody has the right to basic education which includes PPLs. It is therefore, improper to deny PPLs to continue with their education when they are pregnant or after giving birth.

In practice, gender inequality is still dominant in South African schools. It has been confirmed that pregnant learners still experience gender-specific barriers to basic education in a way that decreases their learning opportunities (Education Rights in South Africa; 2017:163). One of the strongest indications that pregnant learners are not receiving the support is that they need to re-enter the education system after giving birth, and also the low rate of attendance or high drop-out rate of girls (Education Rights in South Africa; 2017:163). In 2014, this high drop-out rate was confirmed in South Africa where it was found that 473 159 girls between the ages of 12 and 19 were not attending school (Education Rights in South Africa; 2017:163). Out of those learners, it was reported that 18% (85 182) had fallen pregnant the previous year. These data confirm that the education of female learners is negatively and directly affected by pregnancy (Education Rights in South Africa; 2017:164-165). This study also confirmed that indeed pregnancy is negatively affecting the learning opportunities of the PPLs due to various factors such as inadequate support from family, friends (peers), fellow learners (regarded
as mainstream learners in this study) and teachers’ attitudes towards them throughout and after pregnancy.

2.2.5 Liberal Feminism

According to Giddens (2001:692), the liberal feminist theory is a theory which believes that gender inequality is produced by reduced access for women and girls to civil rights and allocation of social resources such as education and employment. Liberal feminists include all those activists who campaign for equal rights for women within the framework of the liberal state. Liberal feminism is also a branch of conflict theory which calls for equitable access to human rights provisions. Liberal feminist theory recognises that gender related inconsistencies exist in society and it is the responsibility all affected people to improve the educational access and participation of PPLs since education is one important human right. Liberal feminism is related to this study in that the study was underpinned by three important constitutional and legal principles that promote and safeguard human rights for all people, including the PPLs.

Liberal feminism argues that both women and men can experience discrimination in society due to their gender, although neither men nor women benefit from existing gender inequality and stereotypes. Equally, women are harmed because their ability to meet their potential is suppressed. Liberal feminists argue that agencies of socialisation such as family, the education system and the mass media socialise women into subordinate roles and men into dominant roles. They claim that the theoretical basis on which the state is built is sound but the rights and privileges it confers must be extended to women in order to give women equal citizenship with men. In the same vein (Bryson, 2003:139) indicated that liberal feminists argue that as individual women are equal to men, and should therefore, be given equal opportunities as men to pursue their self-interests. Hence, this study focuses on promoting equal rights and fair treatment of PPLs by involving all education school-based stakeholders as well as mainstream learners in supporting the educational needs of PPLs.
Liberal feminists advocate for a modest approach to bringing change because they strongly believe that the greatest approach to fight patriarchal system is by creating legislation to fight discrimination. There are number factors that cause gender inequalities such as individual attitudes, culture and the way men and women are socialised within that culture. All these factors can be changed through empowerment and education. In line with this statement, the liberal feminism approaches are addressed by one of objectives of this study which sought to examine the effectiveness of the interventions used by the school-based education stakeholders in improving the educational participation and performance of PPLs. Education can change the lives of the PPLs which will in turn benefit their children.

Liberal feminists regard the goal of feminism as the achievement of formal equality under the law. This goal of feminism is in line with the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Bill of Rights Section 9(3) of the Bill of Rights which states that the state must not discriminate against any person based on aspects such as gender, sex, pregnancy and marital status. Liberal feminism emphasises the limitation of women`s life opportunities because of socialisation and social stereotypes. It strives to gain equality for women by entering male-dominated professional, social fields and obtaining the power roles traditionally held by men.

The goal of liberal feminism in the South African context is embodied within the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Bill of Rights, sub-sections 9(1) which states that “Everyone is equal before the law and has a right to equal protection and benefit of the law” (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996:1247). Therefore, for this study, what schools are doing to ensure equitable educational access, participation and outcomes for PPLs are of paramount importance to achieve educational justice.

2.2.6 Implications of Liberal Feminism on Gender Equality in Education

Liberal feminism stems from the idea that women must obtain equal opportunities and equal rights in society (Stromquist, 2005:10). Stromquist notes that stereotyping and
discrimination have created a situation where women have less chances of education, fewer job opportunities and other social dimensions in society (Stromquist, 2005:10). It was confirmed that pregnant learners face barriers that affect their access to education due to increased discrimination. In line with the liberal feminist perspective, this study aimed at supporting the PPLs to cope with their schooling by ensuring that the school-based education stakeholders and mainstream learners accommodate and give support to PPLs at school.

Punishing learners because they are pregnant is against the law and the constitution (Education Rights in South Africa; 2017:162-163). In relation to this study, pregnant learners are punished directly or indirectly by their teachers and mainstream learners by using different ways, for example, denying them opportunities to write school work while at home during pregnancy or after giving birth, not being given extra time to catch up when they return to school after childbirth. They may also experience discrimination, maltreatment, unequal and unfair treatment. Both the physical and emotional state are sometimes ignored by teachers.

Liberal feminists advocate for better allocation of resources so that women can obtain a fair share of educational opportunities. According to liberal feminists, schools and education are considered to be positive in that good education can improve the well-being of women and these improvements are to be fulfilled within the system. Liberal feminists aim at improving the existing system of education as they view school as an agent of social change for women liberation socially and economically. It is for this reason that this study investigated how the four schools under study served the educational interests of PPLs so that pregnancy may not be a hurdle to their educational access, opportunity and life chances.

2.2.7 Liberal Feminism on Women’s Rights in Education

Liberal feminists dispute the view that women and men are different, hence they challenge the view that women should not be treated differently under law. Liberal
feminists strongly accentuate the view that women should have the same rights as men as well as the educational and work opportunities. Hence, this study focussed on the support and promotion of the educational participation and performance of the PPLs by the school-based stakeholders. Women share the same rational human nature as men do and so women should be granted both the comparable educational opportunities and civil rights given to men. Liberal feminists identify both the state and schools as positive agent.

2.2.8 Liberal Feminism and the Constitution of South Africa

Liberal feminists are concerned with equal rights and freedom of individual (Samkange, 2015:1173). Liberal feminism is related to the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa No. Act 108 of 1996 which contains the Bill of Rights. The Bill of Rights protects every person from unfair discrimination and unequal treatment (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996). This strongly confirms that pregnant learners` and teenage mothers` rights are guaranteed by the constitution in South Africa. Continuation of education for pregnant learners is a legal right in accordance with the demands of the country`s supreme law.

The Bill of Rights, section 29, provides for the Right to Education. Sub-section 1(a) states that all individuals have a right to basic education, including adult education.

2.2.9 Liberal Feminism and International Statues on Education

The right to education is one of the core human rights specified in almost every international declaration and convention such as the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) of 1948, the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) of 1989, the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) of 1979, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) of 2000 and Education for All (EFA) of 1990 and the Forum of African Women Educationists (FAWE).
In the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), the right to education is guaranteed under article 26. It provides for the right to education and free and compulsory elementary education to all people. The Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), Article 28, also insists on the state parties to recognise the right of the child to education. According to CRC, this can be achieved by making primary education compulsory and available free to all. Furthermore, this can also be achieved by taking measures to encourage regular attendance at school and reduction of dropout rates.

The UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), Part III. 10(f) states that South Africa must take all appropriate measures to eliminate the discrimination against women. In addition, South Africa must ensure equal rights between men and women in the field of education. CEDAW, Article 10(f) also emphasises that South Africa must ensure the reduction of female student drop-out rates and the organization of programmes for girls and women who have left school prematurely. Similarly, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) basically focused on the attainment of gender equality at all levels of education by 2015. This meant employing effective strategies to eliminate gender disparities in both primary and secondary school by 2005.

In the same vein, the World Declaration on Education for All (EFA) also seeks to ensure access and improve the quality of education for girls and women. The present study supports the right to education by PPLs through an examination of the school interventions used by key duty bearers (such as SGB members, SMTs, PMTs and class teachers of PPLs) to assist PPLs to cope with their schooling. All these international statutes define education as a fundamental right to be accessed and benefited by every member of society. In line with the international declaration and conventions, it has been observed that the South African constitution exclusively commits Section 28 to children's rights (Joubert & Prinsloo, 2008:63).

The Bill of Rights also makes special provision for children under Section 28(2) which states that the best interest of the child is the top-most priority in every matter, concerning
the child. Similarly, Section 9 of the Children`s Act states that in all matters concerning the care, protection and well-being of a child, the standard that the child`s best interest is of paramount importance must be applied. These sections are related to this study because PPLs are also children who need to be protected under Children`s Rights. Child in this section means a person under the age of 18 years (Joubert & Prinsloo, 2008:63). The PPLs who participated in this study were between 15 and 17 years old doing Grade 09, 10 and 11.

The Forum of African Women Educationists (FAWE) also plays a very crucial role in promoting education for women. It has worked since 1992 to promote Education for All through advocacy, concrete actions and policy reforms. In the mid-nineties, The Forum successfully lobbied the Ministers of Education in several African countries to change education policies that excluded teen mothers from re-entering school. This links up with the present study which is also underpinned by the Measures for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy of 2007 as a core guiding policy of this study (DoE, 2007:1).

Related to FAWE, the national policy guidelines are a new policy that allow girls to continue with education after giving birth. This implies returning to school without any restrictions. It was announced in June 2007 by the then Minister if Education, Naledi Pandor (DoE, 2007). The management plan aims at helping and supporting the pregnant learner to give assistance to fellow learners, staff members and parents who are affected by the pregnancy (DoE, 2007:4). It clearly outlines prevention programmes and intervention strategies employed by school-based stakeholders on the management of learner pregnancy. It is relevant to this study which focusses on pregnant or parenting learners while still at school and registered as a full-time candidates. I was guided by the national policy guidelines in examining the school-based interventions implemented by the school-based stakeholders.

According to Runhare and Hwami (2014:189) countries like South Africa, Zimbabwe, Cameroon and Madagascar have endorsed international legal frameworks that focus on
gender equality. Furthermore, these countries have developed national policies for PPLs. These initiatives are significantly consistent with world-wide expectancy on handling and managing of learner pregnancy. Runhare (2010:3) further states that to date not much has been done to examine the relevance and utility of school girl pregnancy intervention on legal frameworks and programmes, which is an indication that a policy review process is needed in South Africa and Zimbabwe.

Also, of relevance to this study is Section 29 (Education), subsections (i) (a) and (i) (b) of the Constitution. As stated in the preamble, one major goal of the national policy guidelines is to manage learner pregnancy through combating any form of unfair discrimination which may include racism and sexism (SASA, 1996:1). This is the basis upon which pregnant learners and teen mothers should claim their right to education as they are children. SASA Act No. 84 of 1996 mandates the SGBs to adopt the Learners` Code of Conduct which must make provisions for the management and prevention of learner pregnancy at schools. The school policy guidelines must also protect the right of education of pregnant learners.

According to the Western Cape Department of Education (WCDE) policy of 2003 on management of learner pregnancy in public schools, the pregnant learner must be considered to be a learner with special needs with access to counselling by professionals of the Specialised Learner and Educator Support (SLES) component with the Educational Management Development Centre (EMDC) (WCDE, 2003:1). The process of collecting academic information about the learner’s performance and the formal recording of her progress throughout the year Continuous Assessment (CASS), must be continued as far as almost possible whether the pregnant learner is at school or at home (DoE, 2007:6).

2.2.10 Applicability of Liberal Feminism to Education of Pregnant and Parenting Learners

Liberal feminism is the most widely accepted social and political philosophy among feminists. It emphasises equal individual rights and liberties for women and men and
restraining sexual differences. The three major forces in the discourse of liberal feminism are: equal opportunities, socialisation and sexual stereotyping and sexual discrimination. The liberal feminists protect the equal rationality of the sexes by strongly emphasising the significance of structuring the social, family and sexual roles in ways that endorse women`s independent self-fulfilment. They place emphasis on the similarities between men and women rather than the average differences between them.

They reject strong statements of sexual difference that might underwrite different and potentially hierarchical rights and social roles. Although liberal feminism safeguards the judgement of the sexes, this study confirmed sexual differences and unequal treatment based on gender because full care of the baby was taken by the PPLs alone while the father of the baby (if he is a learner) continue with schooling. Full responsibility was not taken by the fathers of their babies, as a result individual rights and freedoms for these PPLs were dishonoured (Chigona & Chetty, 2008:261-262). PPLs were stigmatised since the pregnancy is regarded as negligence from the girl`s side by the society.

Liberal feminists are against all the legislative interventions that contradict the judgement of women. This relates to the concerns of the Department of Education on the responsibility and influence of its sector concerning learners’ pregnancies in public schools. In view of this, it has been influential in the establishment of national policy guidelines called “Measures for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy” (DoE, 2007). The national policy guidelines aim to provide an environment in which all learners (including the PPLs) are fully informed about reproductive matters and to support teachers in managing the effects of learner pregnancy in school. In addition, the policy guidelines specify peer education as an approach that must be accentuated and integrated in any intervention programme (DoE, 2007:3), hence, the national policy was significant to this study.

The main objective of this thesis was to elucidate the position concerning learner pregnancies in Mopani District of Limpopo Province. Earlier research conducted notes that the legislative interventions, the democratic national policy guidelines (DOE, 2007)
resulted in increased enrolment of teenage mothers at formal schools. The school environment has been found to be unfriendly to the extent that the expected educational benefits are not realised (Runhare & Hwami, 2014:184).

Liberal feminists believe that women`s interests are best satisfied by working towards a state of affairs where the standards, expectations and opportunities for both men and women are the equivalent. They argue that agencies of socialisation for instance, the family, the education system and the mass media associate women with subordinate roles while men are associated with dominant roles. This is also confirmed by the statement that says girls` subordinate position in the gender and social hierarchy constrains their ability to make real choices around pregnancy (Jewkes, Morrell & Christofides, 2009:675).

Liberal feminism strongly emphasises equality in educational opportunities for both women and men. Therefore, this study supports that the education of PPLs has to be valued in the same way as that of other mainstream learners (their fellow learners) and the fathers of their babies (if the father is also a learner) irrespective of their pregnancy or parenting status.

Liberal feminism also focuses on improving the situation within a western industrialised society (Stromquist, 2005:11). Schools and education are viewed as positive and good and improvements are to be made within the existing system. The liberal feminism relates to this study in that the present study aimed at improving the implementation of education policies and promoting the supporting learning environment for PPLs to enable them to cope with their schooling.

Liberal feminism believes that women have the same legal rights, education and work opportunities as men. It aims to eradicate discrimination and to promote gender mainstreaming by ensuring that government laws and policies do not adversely affect women but address women`s' needs (Lorber, 2010:25). In line with this statement, this study also aims at ensuring equality and fair treatment of PPLs. The study aims at
considering the legal implementation of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa No.108 of 1996 (which contains the Bill of Rights), South African Schools Act (SASA) No. 84 of 1996, Measures for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy 2007 at schools to promote the educational success of PPLs.

Liberal feminism is also consistent with the national policy guidelines that are used to manage learner pregnancy at schools, which is underpinned by the three important principles of the Constitution, namely: the right to equality, the right to education and children rights (including the new born child) (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996; Pandor, 2007). In essence, liberal feminism is for gradual reforms through advocacy for equal rights for all, as well as laws and policies that promote equality, including educational policies as outlined in the Measures for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy 2007 (DOE, 2007). Liberal feminists endeavour towards the improvement of equality for women by entering male-dominated professional and social fields and attaining the superior roles traditionally believed to be held by men.

This strongly confirms that pregnant learners and teenage mothers’ rights are guaranteed by the constitution in South Africa. However, practically, in the four selected schools where the study was conducted, education of pregnant girl is the only one compromised because the girl leaves school during pregnancy to give birth while the father (if he is a school boy) continues with his learning. Chilisa (2002:22-25) states that the re-entry policy in Botswana is more lenient to the boy who impregnates the girl than the girl herself because the boy is withdrawn from school after discovery of the incident but returns to write examinations after approval by the Minister of Education, but the girl withdraws as soon as the pregnancy is visible and returns after 12 months of delivery.

2.2.11 Implications of CEDAW on Education of PPLs

The Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) is the only international human rights treaty that specifically addresses the rights of women. It requires all state parties to abolish discrimination against women in all
areas of life, including political participation, employment, education, health care and family structure.

The overall objective of CEDAW is to eliminate discrimination against women around the world in the field of education. CEDAW 10(b) calls all states parties to take all appropriate measures to ensure that men and women receive access to the same curricula, examinations, teaching staff with qualifications of the same standards, school premises and equipment of the same standard. Article 10(b), article 10(d) requires all State Parties to ensure elimination of any stereotyped concepts of the roles of men and women at all levels and in all forms of education by the revision of textbooks and programmes and adaptation of teaching methods.

Article 10(f) states that the State Parties must reduce female students drop out rates and the organisation of programmes for girls and women who have left school prematurely. Related to liberal feminism, article 3 requires state parties to ensure the full development and advancement of women for the purpose of guaranteeing them the exercise and enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedoms on the basis of equality with men. CEDAW Article 5(a) calls all state parties to modify social and cultural patterns of conduct of men and women, with a view to achieve the elimination prejudices which are based on the views of inferiority or the superiority of either of the sexes or on stereotyped of roles of men and women. The role of the family was further reinforced in Article 5(b) which states that family education includes common recognition of the common responsibility of men and women in the upbringing and development of their children. It is understood that the interest of the children is primordial consideration of all cases.

According to Runhare and Vanderyar (2011:18), the school as an entity of the larger society reflects the socio-cultural patterns of how the whole society is organised and functions. They further indicate that both the home and the formal education setting which may be the school, represent and reproduce the attitudes, expectations and treatment of pregnant learners that relate to the cultural values and beliefs of the wider community on teenage pregnancy. In this study, the attitudes of the education school-
based stakeholders in managing and handling school girl pregnancy are strongly influenced by their cultural morals and views and this resulted in inadequate implementation of education policies or measures on management of learner pregnancy.

2.2.12 Implications of Forum of African Women Educationists (FAWE) on Education of PPLs

The Forum of African Women Educationists (FAWE) also played a very crucial role in promoting education for women. There is a relationship between FAWE and this study which aims to empower education school-based stakeholders to handle the effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning.

The changing of education policies was confirmed by Runhare and Hwami (2014:189) who noted that countries like South Africa and Zimbabwe endorsed international conventions on gender equality. They added that South Africa and Zimbabwe are on face value compliant with international expectations. They point out that not much was done to examine the relevance and utility of school girl pregnancy intervention legal frameworks and programmes in both countries which could initiate a policy review process in South Africa and Zimbabwe Runhare and Hwami (2014:187). Hence need to carry out this study.

2.2.13 Implications of the Constitution of South Africa on Education of PPLs

This study sought to promote the education of PPLs by exploring the school-based intervention strategies implemented by the key duty bearers (SGBs, SMTs, PMTs and class teachers) in dealing with the effects of school girl pregnant in teaching and learning. Of relevance to this study is Section 29 (Education) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, sub-sections (i) (a) and (i) (b) of the constitution. As stated in the preamble, one of the objectives of national policy guidelines is to manage learner pregnancy. This includes combating sexism, racism and other forms of discrimination so as to uphold learners’ rights (SASA, 1996:1). This is the basis upon which pregnant learners and teen
mothers should claim their right to education as children. Liberal feminists emphasise equality of opportunities and argues that all persons deserve an equal chance to develop their rational and moral capacities so that they can achieve personhood.

2.2.14 Gender Equality Policies on Teenage Pregnancy and Schooling

According to Claire (2004:8) gender equality in education is by no means a new area of research and concern. The inequalities and areas of discrimination have not gone away, although they may require more subtle analysis. Concerns with the experience and progress of girls and young women in the educational system was part of the Second Wave Women’s Movement of the 1970s/80s.

Chapman (2004:12) indicates that limited progress on gender equality (as opposed to equity) in education persists as a critical challenge. “Many of the countries in which girls’ enrolment still lags have expressed a strong commitment to promote the education of girls, but their efforts are constrained by three challenges; Firstly, as countries make progress in extending educational access to education, the marginal cost of reaching those still not served increases. Secondly, strategies that were successful in extending educational opportunity when access was low may not yield the same returns as the proportion of children out of school shrinks. Thirdly, the nature of the problem girls face is changing. In many countries, the emphasis on raising initial enrolment is giving way to promoting the conditions that encourage girls’ persistence and achievement in schooling.”

This brings us to the present. According to UNICEF (2008:31) a safer and caring child-friendly school promotes gender sensitivity, equality and equity.

2.3 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter outlined the theoretical framework used to inform the present study, namely, radical feminism, the socialist feminism and the liberal feminism. Radical feminists perceive men’s domination of women as the result of patriarchy which has been accepted
as custom by society. Radical feminists goal is to create distinct women`s social spaces. Radical feminists regard school as a place where injustice and oppression of a certain group of people is done. Socialist feminists accentuate the problem of inequality between women and men and they want to attain equal treatment of both sexes in both the private and public domains. The socialist feminists argue that the school curriculum includes sexist assumptions while sexual division of labour is built in the context of education. Literature has shown that liberal feminists aim at improving the present system of education that views the school as an agent of social change for women’s’ freedoms. The knowledge acquired from the discussion on the liberal feminism added shed insights into this study as liberal feminism stems from the philosophies that contend that women must acquire equal opportunities and equal rights in society and education as one of the key avenues for women emancipation (Stromquist, 2005:10).

In this chapter, a review of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa No. 108 of 1996, South African Schools Act (SASA) No. 84 of 1996, Measures for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy 2007 and those international conventions and declarations such as the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) of 1948, the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) of 1989, the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) of 1979. the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) of 2000 and Education for All (EFA) of 1990 and the Forum of African Women Educationists (FAWE) which all seek to safeguard every the child’s right to education, including PPLs. The next chapter discusses the comprehensive literature review related to this study.
CHAPTER THREE

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The focus of this research is to examine the effectiveness of school-based interventions intended to ameliorate the negative effects of school girl pregnancy on the educational needs of PPLs. To the best of the researcher’s knowledge, there is no published study which has examined school-based interventions to address the management of pregnant and parenting learners (PPLs) and the implementation of education legislation and policy. The present study seeks to fill this knowledge gap. This chapter reviews literature related to the present study.

The previous chapter discussed theories that inform this study as well the international laws and the declarations related to equality and equity in educational opportunities of both men and women. The chapter also gave a critique of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa No. 108 of 1996, the South African Schools Act (SASA) No. 84 of 1996, and Measures for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy (DoE:2007).

Mcmillan and Schumacher (2001:138) posit that, literature review constitutes a critique of existing knowledge on a specific subject or topic. Maree (2010:26) concurs that literature review normally gives an overview of current or sufficiently relevant literature appropriate to the research topic and significant aspects of the topic.

Literature was reviewed in order to:

- Sharpen and deepen the theoretical framework of the research;
- Familiarise with the latest developments in the area of research;
- Identify gaps in knowledge as well as weaknesses in previous studies;
- Study advantages and disadvantages of the research methods used by others in order to improve one’s own research.
The literature reviewed in this chapter relates to studies conducted globally, continentally, and locally. The literature review discusses prevalence of teenage pregnancy as well as influence of teenage pregnancy on a girl’s life. It also discusses the educational challenges faced by pregnant and parenting learners (PPLs). It encompasses various approaches and acts in managing school girl pregnancy. Furthermore, the literature review includes the intervention strategies on the management of learner pregnancy used world-wide.

The main aim of undertaking literature review was to acquaint myself with the most recent developments in the field of research. Prevalence of teenage pregnancy embraced all the objectives of the present study. Impact of teenage pregnancy in education leads to the formulation of objective No. 3 which aimed to examine the effectiveness of interventions used by the school-based education stakeholders to help the PPLs to cope with schooling. The national policies protect the right to education. The effectiveness of world-wide intervention strategies forms a major content in examining the effectiveness of the school-based interventions for the four participating high schools.

3.2 PREVALENCE OF TEENAGE PREGNANCY

Teenage pregnancy is highly prevalent world-wide, and society needs to find strategies to deal with it. Research on the prevalence of teenage pregnancies and child bearing is widespread in international literature and is regarded as predominantly a social problem associated with lower, long-term socio-economic status for the young mothers or female children involved (The World Development Report, 2007:163). Available literature suggests that adolescent pregnancy has long been a social and educational concern for the developed, developing and underdeveloped countries. Approximately 16 million women aged between 15 –19 years give birth each year, which accounts for 11% of all births worldwide (UNAIDS, 2010:124). The World Health Organization statistics for 2014 indicated that the average global birth rate amongst 15-19 year-old girls is 49 per 1000 (WHO, 2010:29). These statistical realities justify the concern around teenage pregnancy and motherhood. The present study was necessary to close the existing
knowledge gaps the school-based stakeholders will develop the effective intervention strategies on addressing the effects of school girl pregnancy.

3.2.1 Prevalence of Teenage Pregnancy in Developed Countries.

The rates of adolescent pregnancies continue to rise globally every year. Literature indicates that the proportion of women who become pregnant before age 15 is enormous. It further points out that the proportion of women who become pregnant before the age of 15 is big and varies from region to region and even within regions and countries. Studies conducted in Britain by Arai (2003:92), revealed that the unskilled manual social class was 10 times likely to become young mothers than their peers or age-group from professional social class families. This confirms that there is a positive correlation between early pregnancy and childbearing and low socio-economic status.

3.2.2 Prevalence of Teenage Pregnancy in Developing Countries

The World Health Organisation (WHO) states that approximately 95% of births occur in developing countries such as South Africa and almost all other African countries (WHO, 2010:29). It is confirmed that over 30% of adolescent girls in developing countries were married before 18 years of age and about 14% before the age of 15 years. This perpetuates the problem of teenage pregnancies and motherhood in developing countries. In 2010, 36.4 million women between the age of 20 and 24 in developing countries reported having given birth before the age of 18 (UNFPA, 2013:12). Developing countries account for 95% of births to adolescent mothers’ while 2million girls give birth before reaching the age of 15 and 90% of births among 15 to 19 year-old were within child marriages.
3.2.3 Prevalence of Teenage Pregnancy in African Countries

Literature indicates that every year more than 8000 girls drop out from school due to pregnancy in African countries, and South Africa is no exception (UNAIDS, 2010:122). Although many countries agreed to increase opportunities for all children to have access to education in accordance with the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), school girl pregnancy is among the rapidly growing social challenges that hinder the realisation of girl child to education. The Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) region is characterised by high school dropouts in the world. Teenage pregnancy is 143 per 1000 girls, meaning that women are losing the battle of equal access to secondary education (James et al., 2000:30). Therefore, there is need to help girls to get their basic needs particularly education so that they can participate fully in the development of the communities around them. For the purpose of this study, only Tanzania will be presented as an example of an African country with a high rate of teenage pregnancy in 2010.

Tanzania has often been regarded as one of the African countries that has a high prevalence of teenage pregnancy. In 2010, the Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey (TDHS) revealed a high rate of prevalence of school girl pregnancy in Tanzania. The TDHS was carried out by the National Bureau of Statistic (NBS) and the office of the Chief Government Statistician-Zanzibar (OCGS) in collaboration with the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare. The TDHS found out that in Tanzania, many women began child bearing in their teenage years and young women aged 15-19 were pregnant or already mothers. This indicates that almost one quarter of women aged 15-19 are already mothers or pregnant with their first child. The study revealed that teenage pregnancies and motherhood are more common among young people in rural areas and those poorer families. It is further indicated that young women without education are more than 8 times more likely to have begun childbearing than women with secondary or higher education (TDHS, 2010:140).
3.2.4 Prevalence of Teenage Pregnancy in Southern African Development Community (SADC)

Zimbabwe is also affected by high rates of teenage pregnancy. The 2010-11 Zimbabwe Demographic and Health Survey (ZDHS) conducted a comprehensive study on teenage pregnancy and motherhood. The study focused on adolescents who were aged between 10-18. It was found out that there is a high percentage of young girls aged 15-19 characterised by; those who have had a live birth, those who were pregnant with their first child, those who gave birth to their second child or pregnant with their second child, and those who had begun sexual activities but not yet fallen pregnant. The main findings of the survey indicated that 24% of women aged 15-19 had begun childbearing. According to the 2010-11 ZDHS, the proportion of teenagers who have had a live birth rose rapidly with age, from 3% at age 15 to 41% at age 19 and that 25% of these births were reported as wanted and 7% were unwanted (ZDHS, 2010-11:68).

In support of the findings of the ZDHS presented above, Gaidzanwa (2008:07) wrote a detailed literature on gender issues in Post Primary Education (PPE) in Sub-Saharan Africa. The literature was aimed to facilitate understanding and discussion of the different options available for different groups of learning in PPE sectors in Africa. The overall statistics showed that the majority of the girls between the age of 6 and 15 fell pregnant, married or dropped out of school. Gaidzanwa further noted that girls who fell pregnant while still at school were hesitant to return to school after giving birth due to fear of intimidation, mockery and abuse (Gaidzanwa 2008:7). Rural teenagers, those with low education, and those in the lowest wealth category tend to start childbearing earlier than other teenagers in high or tertiary institutions (Gaidzanwa, 2008).

Studies reveal that Mozambique has a very high percentage of teenage girls falling pregnant before they reached the age of 18. The World Bank (2006:13) report on reproductive health in Mozambique revealed that the adolescent fertility rate was high (179 reported births per 1,000 women aged 15–19 years) this in turn affected not only young mothers and their children’s health but also negatively affected their long-term
education and employment opportunities. Furthermore, births to women aged 15–19 years old have the highest health risk of infant and child mortality as well as a higher risk of morbidity and mortality for the teenage mother.

Early childbearing is high and more frequent amongst teenagers from poor backgrounds than their counterparts. 65 percent of the poorest 20–24 years old women have had a child before reaching 18, compared to 40 percent of their richer counterparts. Furthermore, younger cohorts of girls in the poorest quintiles are more likely to have a child early in life now than their older counterparts. For example, the rate in Rwanda is 0.3% compared to 12.2% in Mozambique (UNAIDS, 2010:127). The MDG Report (2013) indicates that girls in many countries are still deprived of their right to education, especially in the primary and secondary level. With specific reference to Africa, the Report concluded that girls continue to face high barriers to schooling in Northern Africa and Sub-Saharan Africa (United Nation, 2013:19).

3.2.5 Prevalence of Teenage Pregnancy in South Africa

In South Africa, teenage pregnancy increases dramatically between 2011 and 2013. This is confirmed by the 2015 Stats South Africa report which was released as part of the General Household Survey focussing on school girl pregnancy. According to a newspaper by Mahopo (2017:1-2) titled, “Being pregnant is difficult at school”, it was stated that the school girl pregnancy increased profoundly from 2011-2013. The number of school girls who fell pregnant were 68 000 in 2011, rose to 81 000 in 2012 and drastically rose to 99 000 in 2013.

Another newspaper article written by Mkhize (2017:1-2) titled “Health Department intensifies efforts to curb teenage pregnancy” revealed a high rate of school pregnancy in 2017. According to Mkhize, the Parliamentary Report revealed that 193 school girls in Grade 3, 4 and 5 fell pregnant between 2014 and 2016. If Grade 6 and 7 are included, the number would increase to 1449. The Parliamentary Report on school girl pregnancy also indicated that 18537 school girls fell pregnant in 2014 compared to 15504 in 2015.
and 8372 in 2016 respectively. Provinces which had the highest rate of teenage pregnancies were Mpumalanga and Kwazulu-Natal with a combined total of 6477 in 2014 and 5178 in 2015.

Previous studies indicate that while fertility rates have declined over the years for the teenage group aged 15-19, the rate of teenage child-bearing is high by world standards (The South Africa Demographic Health Survey, 2003:196, Kaufman, de Wet and Stadler, 2000:6). The South African DHS (2003) revealed that more than 30% of the 19 year old women were reported to have given live birth at least once. Children born to teenage mothers comprise a large and growing proportion of society thereby making teenage pregnancy a serious problem in society. Only 20% of the 14 - 19 year olds school girls who drop out school due to pregnancy are able to return to school by the age of 20, but only 34% of these young mothers complete Grade 12 (Grant & Hallman, 2006:12). In the same vein, Runhare and Vandeyar (2012:52) attested that pregnant and parenting learners (PPLs) were not given meaningful attention and assistance in the school resulting in a low percentage of PPLs who manage to complete Grade Twelve.

Comparable to the above findings, in 2009, another comprehensive qualitative study was conducted by the University of Stellenbosch in Taung. The study involved interviews with pregnant teenagers and three categories of focus group interviews (FGI) with 10 women aged 19-25 who had babies as teenagers, 14 teenage girls aged 16-19 who had never been pregnant, and 11 males aged 18-23 years. The study was aimed at understanding the attitudes and perceptions of teenagers regarding teenage pregnancy and to explore their understanding of sexuality and contraception. It revealed that socio-economic factors are a major contributor to adolescent pregnancies

The high prevalence of school girl pregnancy was further confirmed by Chigona and Chetty (2008) who noted one school in South Africa where 14 girls fell pregnant in 2006. Two years later the above figures motivated Chigona and Chetty to conduct a study titled, “Challenges faced by teenage mothers in school in South Africa”. Most young mothers face difficulties as some face undue pressure from parents, the father of the baby, peers
and teachers as well as receiving inadequate support from the school, home and the entire community (Chigona & Chetty, 2008:274-275). Failure of the baby’s father to assume responsibility in the upbringing of the child exacerbates pressure on the PPLs. Chigona and Chetty further noted the high rate of teenage pregnancy in South Africa, indicating that 30% of teenage girls would have given birth at least once by the age of 18 (Chigona & Chetty, 2008:262).

The South Africa Demographic Health Survey (SADHS) 2003, reported that 12% of teenage girls between the ages 18-19 years had ever been pregnant or were pregnant. Teenage pregnancy rose from 2% at 15 years and 27% at 19 years. Provinces which had the highest teenage pregnancy rate were; Limpopo (the province where this study is conducted), Northern Cape and Free State. The survey revealed that high rates of pregnancy were highest amongst blacks and coloureds girls than their counterparts from other races (SADHS, 2003:70).

Grant and Hallman (2006:11) conducted a desk study using the data from Kwazulu-Natal survey of adolescent titled “Transition to adulthood in the context of AIDS in South Africa” which was conducted in 2001. Interviews were conducted among girls between 14-24 years old. Findings revealed that 76% of the interviewed girls reported that they left schooling due to pregnancy, whereas 7% of those interviewed participants reported that they left school because they wanted to take care of their children. Among the 20 - 22 year old females who experienced a school delay, more than one fourth attributed their delay to pregnancy. The study also revealed that 32% of the 14-19 year-old school girls who had ever been pregnant were currently attending school (Grant & Hallman, 2006:11).

In another study, the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC, 2008) conducted a desktop study to document, review and critically analyse literature on teenage pregnancy with a focus on school girl adolescents (HSRC, 2008:25). The study sought to assess the individual, familial and educative impact of teenage pregnancy as well as to too propose a conceptual framework for research and interventions to prevent and mitigate the impact of teenage pregnancy. The study revealed that learner pregnancies were
more concentrated in the provinces of, in Eastern Cape, Limpopo and Kwazulu-Natal. Learner pregnancies were higher in schools located in the poorer neighbourhoods. The report confirmed that pregnant teenagers seriously face health, social and educational challenges (Panday et al., 2009:24).

It is evident that teenage pregnancy is one of the major challenges in the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Teenage pregnancy undermines the country’s efforts to meet MDG Goal 2 which seeks to eradicate gender disparities in all schools by 2005 and MDG Goal 3 which seeks to ensure the achievement of gender equality at other levels of education by 2015 (UNICEF 2004:9, Vanderyar, Runhare, Dzimiri & Mulaudzi, 2014:6383).

3.2.6 Comparison of Prevalence of Teenage Pregnancy World-wide

The theme of the Partners in Population and Development (PPD) for the World Population Day for 2013 was “Adolescent Pregnancy”. PPD is a southern-led, southern-run intergovernmental organization of 25 developing countries across Africa, Asia, the Middle-east and Latin America. The main focus of the PPD is to promote South-South Cooperation in Reproductive Health, Population and Development. During world AIDS day event of 2013, PPD took the opportunity to highlight the status of teenage pregnancy among its member countries and discuss relevant policy and program options for them.

The PPD revealed that a considerable proportion of adolescent pregnancies are either unplanned or unwanted and 30% to 60% of pregnancies among adolescents end in abortion (PPD, 2013). Among the 25 member countries of PPD, pregnancy among adolescents aged 15-19 years was highest in Egypt (9.6%) and lowest in Tunisia (0.9%). Among the member countries of PPD in the Asia-pacific region, the rate was highest in Bangladesh (6.1%) and lowest in Vietnam (1.6%). The prevalence of adolescent pregnancy was 4.3% in Colombia and 3.9% in Pakistan (PPD, 2013:2).
The prevalence of women aged 20-24 years who gave birth before 18 years, ranged widely in PPD member countries, from 46% in Mali (the highest) to 3% in Vietnam (the lowest) (PPD, 2013:2). The prevalence of adolescent marriages before 18 years varied widely among the member countries of PPD, with the highest 66% in Bangladesh and the lowest 6% in South Africa. Among the member countries of PPD in Asia-Pacific region, the rate was highest in Bangladesh (6.1%) and lowest in Vietnam (1.6%). In the MENA region, the highest prevalence of adolescent pregnancy was in Egypt (9.6%) and the lowest was in Tunisia (0.9%). The prevalence of adolescent pregnancy was 4.3% in Colombia and 3.9% in Pakistan (PPD, 2013:2). The prevalence of women aged 20-24 years who gave birth before 18 years, ranged widely in PPD member countries, from the highest 46% in Mali to the lowest 3% in Vietnam.

The prevalence of adolescent marriages before 18 years varied widely between countries. There is a positive correlation between early pregnancy and childbearing and low socio-economic status. However, there were high levels of inequalities between the educated and the uneducated, the developed and developing countries, African and non-African countries. One thing is evidently common, that is, teenage pregnancy and consequent early motherhood is a growing concern in all societies and South Africa is not an exception.

3.3 IMPACT OF TEENAGE PREGNANCY ON EDUCATION AND LIFE CHANCES OF PPLS

This section discusses the impact of teenage pregnancy on education and life chances of pregnant and parenting learners (PPLs). The section also discusses how teenage pregnancy negatively affect the educational life of PPLs. It also describes how teenage pregnancy become a challenge to United Nation Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The education of a school girls is negatively affected when they fell pregnant. Teenage pregnancy is the root cause of violation of a girl’s rights to education. In general, teen pregnancy has health, social, physical and psychological effects (Demographic Health Survey [DHS], 2003:68; UNAIDS, 2010:127). Teenage pregnancy and motherhood have
a negative impact on the education of teenage mothers. In the international context, it is commonly acknowledged that pregnancy and parenthood have negative impacts for young females. It is for this reason that teenage pregnancy is approached as a challenge in three of the eight United Nation Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The three MDGs identified as a challenge are: MDG Goal 2 which is elimination of gender disparities in primary and secondary school by 2005 and MDG Goal 3 which is achievement of gender equality at other levels of education by 2015. Furthermore, MDG Goal 5 which states the removal of gender differences in primary and secondary education should be realised by 2015. However, indications are that most of these gender equity MDG goals in education are still a pipeline dream for most developing nations like South Africa (United Nations, 2000:5, UNICEF 2004:9, Vanderyar, Runhare, Dzimiri & Mulaudzi, 2014:6383).

3.3.1 Influence of Teenage Pregnancy and Early Motherhood on Education

Teenage pregnancy has negatively influenced the educational success of girls in South Africa (Chigona & Chetty, 2007:1). According to the Convention on the Rights of the Child, any individual who has not reached 18 years of age is considered a child and has a fundamental right to education (Convention on the Rights of the Child). Teenage pregnancy infringes on the girl’s rights to education. Chigona and Chetty (2007:2) note that the majority of young mothers under the age of 20 have not completed their schooling nor obtain a regular diploma or regular equivalent degree. Young adolescent mothers (17 years and younger) were less likely to complete high school than older adolescent mother, that is, between 18 and 19 years.

In South Africa, a qualitative study was conducted in Cape Town in 2008. The study drew participants from five selected high schools in the radius of 20km from the Cape Peninsula University of Technology. These five high schools were randomly sampled taking into consideration their various locations. From the five high schools, three were located in the townships and two in the suburbs of Cape Town. The study participants were the parenting learners, their teachers and as well as their parents or guardians. The
study revealed that many parenting learners failed to be successful with their education because they do not get support or get inadequate support to avoid the frequent disturbances to school attendance due to mothering. The study discovered that teenage mothers lack support from school, home and as well from the community (Chigona & Chetty, 2008:276).

Traditional wisdom holds that early child bearing lowers levels of educational attainment among parenting learners. PPLs are continuously exhausted due to social problems (during pregnancy or after giving birth), lack of support from, family, the father of the baby, teachers, peers, community members as well as pressure from school situation. The lack of support from teachers is not in line with the South African Council of Educators (SACE) Act 31 of 2000. The SACE Act 31 of 2000 which provides that the conduct of an educator is to acknowledge the uniqueness, individuality, and specific needs of each learner, guiding and encouraging each to realise his or her potentialities. Similarly, Malahlela and Chireshe (2012:51) noted that lack of parental support lead to poor academic performance. Likewise, Grant and Hallman (2006:4) further indicated that poor school performance limits the likelihood that pregnant school girls would ever return to school.

Poor school performance was further confirmed in a newspaper article written by Mahopo. Mahopo (2017:12) notes how a pregnant school girl (19) from one of Limpopo Province’s high schools (name of the high school was published in Sowetan newspaper but withheld in this study) wrote her grade twelve final examination in 2016, two days after she had given birth. She was one of the 15 school girls who wrote grade twelve final examinations while pregnant in 2016. Out of those 15 pregnant school girls, she was the only one who managed to pass the final matric examination while the other 14 pregnant learners repeated matric. This resulted in a poor performance by the school whereby the matric pass rate was 20% in 2016 (Mahopo, 2017:1-2). School girl pregnancy has a negative impact on PPLs and their children as it places limits on their educational achievements and forced them into single parenthood and marital instability in the future (Panday et al., 2009:27).
3.3.2 Influence of Teenage Pregnancy and Early Motherhood on Life Chances

Teenage pregnancy changes the progression of the whole life of the girl compared to the father of their children (if they are also learners). It affects the income-earning potential of the girl as all her plans; hopes and dreams get shattered when she falls pregnant. There is total transition in the girl’s life, as she will be viewed as a woman after giving birth, yet she will still be a child (FAWE, 2004). In emphasising the negative impact of school girl pregnancy, Kanku and Mash (2010:564) argued that falling pregnant while still at school happens at a wrong time for a school girl as it negatively affects their education and often ends up ruining their future. Falling pregnant is a foremost occurrence that puts a cap on their educational and professional development.

A study conducted earlier by Malahlela and Chireshe (2012:13), revealed that due to limited education, the teenage mother will not have the required level of education or sufficient skills to enter the open labour market and she will remain dependent on the state and/or her parents. Lemons (2009:5) posits that young mothers suffer a considerable disadvantage in the labour market because of low educational attainment.

Teenage girls who become pregnant face disgrace and discrimination in their schools, families, communities and the organisations that are supposed to be helping and supporting them. Societies regard pregnancy of single teenage girls as culturally, socially and unethically discreditable. Runhare (2010:247) indicated that pregnant teenagers` access to formal schooling is also affected by cultural limitation on pregnancy and breast feeding routine. Grant and Hallman (2006:20) maintained that pregnancy lead to stigmatisation of young mothers by the community members and peers and this weakens the teenage mothers’ relationship with family members.

This section reflected on the negative impact of teenage pregnancy on education of PPLs. It discussed the various ways in which teenage pregnancy has adversely influenced the educational success of girls in South Africa. Despite that teenage pregnancy violate on the girl’s rights to education, it also cause challenges to the MGDs because majority of
teenage mothers have not completed their schooling. Furthermore, the section deliberated on the impact of teenage pregnancy on life chances of PPLs, as observed that early motherhood is a main occurrence that deters girls` educational and professional development. The section also discussed the negative attitudes of society towards teenage pregnancy, especially if it takes place out of marriage.

3.4 EDUCATIONAL CHALLENGES FACED BY PREGNANT AND PARENTING SCHOOL GIRLS

Chigona and Chetty note that although the girls maybe allowed to return to school after becoming mothers, they face many challenges in trying to balance motherhood and the demands of schooling (Chigona & Chetty, 2007:1). This section discusses the educational challenges faced by PPLs. These educational challenges include amongst others; drop out of school, stigmatisation of pregnant and teenage mothers and the burden of extra responsibility. Earlier studies conducted confirmed some of the major challenges experience by pregnant school girls and parenting mothers. Some of these are discussed below:

3.4.1 Drop out of School

Early childhood requires strong familial support for girls to return back to school. Earlier studies revealed that studies child rearing, lack of parental support and lack of support from peers contribute to high dropout rates (Panday et al., 2009:14). Research also propounds that pregnancy is still a major cause for school drop out by most teenage girls, especially in developing nations (Chigona & Chetty, 2008:261; Chilisa, 2002:26). The majority of pregnant and parenting learners drop out of school due to countless reasons such as social and financial challenges in order to meet the basic needs of the child, health conditions of both the mother and the child. Some are forced to get married at early ages. According to Lemons (2009:26) teenage motherhood is less problematic when accompanied by stable, secure relationship between the young parents.
3.4.2 Stigmatisation of Pregnant and Teenage Mothers

In most societies, girls who have given birth become adults in the eyes of some cultures. This perception is a major challenge to the emotional state of the young mothers. Due to unrealistic expectations or mockery by the society, the young mother who returns to school may have low self-esteem. This change in status is also perceived by some teachers as meaning that teenage parents do not belong in the school environment anymore, hence the mainstream learners are reluctant to accommodate PPLs at schools.

The Australian Bureau of Statistics (2009:1) revealed that although education policies aim to ensure that pregnant students and young parents are not disadvantaged, in reality many girls do not feel supported by the school environment and stop attending school (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2009:1). Some scholars noted that teenagers who become pregnant are stigmatised by the community during or after pregnancy, which leads to depression, social exclusion, low self-esteem and poor academic performance affecting the prospects of employment in the future (Panday et al., 2009:43).

Theoretically, in most SADC countries, girls who become pregnant at school are free to continue and/or return to school, but in practice they experience stigmatisation, are expelled or seldom complete their studies (SADC Secretariat, 2006:14).

3.4.3 The Burden of Extra Responsibility

Parenting learners who decide to return to school after giving birth assume the double responsibility of schooling and parenting. Double responsibility is cited as the main contributing factor to poor attendance by PPLs. In another study conducted by Malahlela and Chireshe (2012:51) in Mankweng area Limpopo Province, fourteen educators from seven secondary schools of Mankweng were purposively sampled. The objective of the study was to establish the views of secondary educators concerning the effects of teenage pregnancy on the academic performance, emotions and school attendance of pregnant learners. The study revealed that teenage pregnancy has a negative or
detrimental effect on school attendance, academic performance, emotional behaviour and relationships between pregnant learners and their peers and educators. The study also revealed that while teenage pregnancy contributes to the absenteeism in the short term, in the long term it resulted in learners dropping out of school. The study further discovered that dual responsibility contributed to poor academic performance by pregnant and mothering teenagers.

Chigona and Chetty (2007:1) contend that teenage pregnancy militated against the educational success of girls in South Africa. They maintained that although the school girls are allowed to return to school after becoming mothers, they face many challenges in trying to balance motherhood and the demands of the school (Chigona & Chetty, 2007:1). The pressures of early motherhood resulted in PPLs experiencing high rates of poor emotional health and well-being.

This section discussed the educational challenges faced by PPLs which negatively affect their schooling. Various reasons which caused the majority of PPLs to drop out of school were discussed. Stigmatisation of PPLs also identified as a major educational challenge faced by PPLs. PPLs experience stigmatisation from school, home and community at large. They shoulder the double responsibility of schooling and parenting which is the foremost contributing factor to poor attendance and poor academic performance by PPLs.

3.5 POLICIES ON EDUCATION OF PREGNANT AND PARENTING LEARNERS (PPLS)

Some countries now have policies to manage learner pregnancies. These policies vary but are comparable. This section discusses the international laws, African, SADC and South African polices related to teenage pregnancy and education. South Africa has signed and ratified a number of United Nations Conventions which mandate South Africa to take steps to reduce the drop-out rates of female learners. International laws and policies advocate the recognition of education of PPLs.
3.5.1 Commitments of United Nations Conventions on Education

South Africa has signed and ratified a number of United Nations Conventions which mandates South Africa to take steps to reduce the drop-out rates of female learners. The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC), Article 28(1) (e) states that South Africa must take measures to encourage regular attendance at schools and the reduction of drop-out rates. Human Rights Bodies have called on all States to respect adolescents’ right to privacy and confidentiality, including with respect to advice on health matters. In addition, they have recommends that states make youth-friendly services available and that health-care providers be trained to provide information and services to adolescents according to principles of confidentiality and privacy as a way of promoting education for all and reducing the drop-out rate (Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 2000; Committee on the Rights of the Child, 2003).

According to the international laws such as; the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) of 1989, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) of 1948 the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) of 1979, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) of 2000 and Education for All (EFA) of 1990 and the Forum of African Women Educationists (FAWE) all persons shall have the right to education. This provision resonates and guarantees the right to education in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (Article 26), the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (Article 13) and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (Article 28).

The right to education is guaranteed under Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR). It provides for the right to education and free and compulsory elementary education. Furthermore, under Article 13 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), states are required to recognise the right of every individual to education and this service must be directed to the total development of human personality and respect of rights as well as other fundamental freedoms. The Bill of Rights acts as the cornerstone of democracy in South Africa and as such it strongly
advocates for the democratic values of equality, human dignity and freedom (Malherbe & Beckmann, 2003:3). The Right of every child to education.

Similarly, the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), also insists that state parties must recognise the right to education of every child by providing free education for all and making primary education compulsory. The CRC also recognises the right of the child to education by taking measures to encourage regular attendance at school and reduction of dropout rates and making educational and vocational information and guidance accessible to all children (CRC, Article 28). Similarly, section 28 of the Children’s Rights which is a comprehensive legislation deals with various issues related to children’s rights, including aspects related to child protection, children in need of care and protection, and health care. Section 28 (2) of the Children’s Rights affirms that a child’s best interests are of paramount importance in every matter concerning the child. Section 28(3) defines the child as a person under the age of 18 years. This means that PPLs should also claim their rights as children as long as they are still under 18. The majority of PPLs at the four schools participating in this study were still under 18.

3.5.2 The International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) Programme of Action

The International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) Programme of Action states that early childbearing is a serious impediment to improvements in the educational, economic and social status of women across the globe, curtailing educational and employment opportunities that will have a long-term adverse impact on quality of life. At the ICPD, governments agreed to take affirmative steps to keep girls and adolescents in school through measures such as training teachers to be more sensitive and sensitising parents to the value of educating girls (ICPD, para 11.8).

The Children’s Rights Committee and the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women have also made similar recommendations. Pregnant adolescents typically confront discrimination in the educational system due to attitudes around
adolescent sexuality and pregnancy. The Committee expressed its concern that “pregnant teenage women were punished by expulsion from school” (Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women 1998:108).

As will be demonstrated in subsequent chapters, it has been observed that in the context of this study that PPLs were discriminated by both teachers and mainstream learners to such an extent that some PPLs considered to drop out. South African Schools Act (SASA) No 84 of 1996, outlaws any unfair discrimination in schools, and extends the right for every learner to enrol at any school and to appeal against unfair admission practices.

The main purpose of the Measures for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy (DoE, 2007) is to help and support the learner who is pregnant, to guide all people who are affected by the pregnancy such as the father of the child (if he is also a learner), other learners (regarded as mainstream in this study), staff members and parents or guardians (DoE, 2007:4). This study observed that whilst there has been progress in addressing gender issues through legislation as advocated by liberal feminists, gender inequality remains prevalent in education.

### 3.5.3 African Youth Charter on education

The African Youth Charter (2006), indicates that in realisation of Article 13, which is “Education and Skills Development Right”, all State Parties are mandated to take appropriate measures with a view to achieving full realisation of this right to ensure that, where applicable every girl and young women who become pregnant or married before completing their education shall have the opportunity to continue their education. Furthermore, the African Youth Charter (2006) in Article 13, obligation No.1 affirms that every young person shall have the right to education of good quality and with specific reference to Article 13(a), which states that the education of young people shall be directed to promotion and holistic development of the young person’s cognitive and emotional abilities to full potential. In addition, Article 13(b) emphasises fostering respect of human rights and fundamental freedoms as set out in the provision of human rights.
and international human rights declarations and conventions. Table 3.1 gives a summary of some of the international laws as discussed:

**Table 3.1: International Policy Frameworks on the Right to Education**

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<table>
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<tr>
<td>CEDAW</td>
<td>5(a)</td>
<td>Both men and women to have common responsibility in child care, upbringing and development. Elimination of social and cultural practices that promote gender stereotyping and discrimination. Policies, measures and programmes for girls and women who may pre-maturely leave school. Promotion of policies and measures for equal access to education, health and family well-being.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5(b)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>10(h)</td>
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<tr>
<td>CRC</td>
<td>2(1)</td>
<td>Non-discrimination of children in all spheres of life. Protection of children against violence, negligence, injury maltreatment and sexual abuse.</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>19(1)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>34(a), (b) and (c)</td>
<td>Protection of all children from sexual abuse, sexual exploitation, prostitution, exposure to pornographic materials and performances.</td>
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<tr>
<td>EFA</td>
<td>7(ii)</td>
<td>Elimination of gender disparities in primary and secondary school by 2005 and at other levels of education by 2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MDG</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Elimination of gender disparities in primary and secondary school by 2005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Achievement of gender equality at other levels of education by 2015</td>
</tr>
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**Sources:** Adapted from Runhare (2010), Stromquist (1999), Tsanga, Nkiwane, Khan and Nyanungo (2004), Subrahmanian (2005).
3.5.4 Policies on Teenage Pregnancy in Education

Countries have their own national policies to manage learner pregnancy. Most countries that had expulsion policies revised them to allow re-entry policies and continuation policies but still there is high a prevalence of school girl pregnancy. Meanwhile a number of International Statutes guarantee the right to education as stated under Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) which provides for the right to education and free and compulsory elementary education (Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 2000; Committee on the Rights of the Child, 2003). Taking into consideration these International Statues, schools have a constitutional obligation to promote gender equality.

3.5.4.1 Education Policies on Teenage Pregnancy in Developed Countries

This section discusses policies on teenage pregnancy and education in developed countries. The developed countries discussed are; United Kingdom (UK), Columbia, Costa Rica, United States of America (USA) and New York. I chose these countries because of their policies which were changed from suspending or restricting pregnant learners to policies which allow pregnant to continue with their schooling. I chose these countries because their policies are comparable to the policy guidelines in South Africa. According to Arai (2003:89), in the United Kingdom (UK) youthful childbearing and teenage pregnancy seems more prevalent than in other European nations. A reduction in youth conception and birth rates is a central aim of the New Labour’s efforts to address social exclusion. In the UK, due to high rates of teenage pregnancy, the government established a Teenage Pregnancy Unit within the Social Exclusion Unit (SEU) (Arai, 2003:89).

In Columbia, the Supreme Court of Columbia in 1998 altered the school regulations which penalised pregnant school girls by suspending them from regular schooling (Hubbard, 2008:110). This regulation violated fundamental rights of equality and education and it was amended to allow pregnant girls to continue normal schooling. In Costa Rica, in 1997 a law entitled “Law for the protection of Adolescent Mother” creates an “Inter-
institutional Council for the care of Adolescent Mothers”. The Council membership included several government ministries as well as non-governmental organization which were managing programs for Adolescent Mothers (Hubbard et al., 2008:103). The aims of the Inter-Institutional Council were to:

- Promoting preventative, educational, informative and capacitating programs on the implications of pregnancy in adolescence, aimed at high school students and Costa Rican families.
- Coordinating, supporting, assessing and the contributing to the improvement of the activities of public and private organisations in favour of adolescent mothers.

The law also mandated the establishment of care centres throughout the country with the following aims:

- To alleviate poverty in adolescent mothers by providing adolescents with vocational skills and taking steps to improve their chances of finding employment.
- To start programs aimed at personal and social empowerment of adolescents in general (Hubbard, 2008:104).

The laws in Costa Rica give very practical and actual content to the notion of supporting the pregnant teenagers and the adolescent population compared to other countries (Hubbard, 2008:105). After adoption of the United Nations Declaration on Human Rights of 1948, Britain became one of the first countries to endorse laws that prevent any form of discrimination against women in education (Stromquist, 2005). Britain successfully achieved the goal of promoting education for women by making basic education free and compulsory to every child who is of school-going age. This initiative also promoted school attendance by pregnant school girls.

In the USA, the Educational Amendment Act of 1972 which is also referred to as Title IX and the Women Educational Equity Act of 1975 (WEEA) advocate for the rights of pregnant school girls to continue with education. All American states and districts are mandated to implement such laws in their respective schools. Any discrimination against pregnant school girls were prohibited in American schools, meaning that pregnant
teenagers and parenting teenagers must be allowed to attend school without any conditions and if the teenage mothers are absent from school, they are fined (Mc-Gaha Garnnet, 2007:15).

Two pieces of legislation namely; the 1972 Educational Amendments Acts (Title IX) and the 1975 Women Educational Equity Act of (WEEA) accommodate PPLs by advocating for a flexible timetable to assist pregnant learners complete learning tasks according to their own paces. Other services include the provision of on-site day care and health facilities unit, counselling and pregnant laboratories for all schools. Therefore, these laws compel schools and college campuses to have educational programmes for pregnant and formerly learners. For successful implementation of the Title IX, all US schools which have PPLs, have established a Title IX co-ordinating committee that plays a significant duty of enhancing effective communication and collaboration between schools and the communities. The committee also handles issues on gender equity violation and sexual discrimination, amongst others.

In New York, the Equality Act of 2010 removed an exemption that provided for discrimination on the grounds of pregnancy and maternity previously applied in schools. The Equality Act 2010 strongly considered it unlawful for schools to treat a student less favourable because she becomes pregnant or recently had a baby. It clearly states that the aim of the school is to keep the pregnant student or school-aged parent in education even if she may not be able to attend for a period of time. A designated member of the school staff should act as an advocate and assist the student to take responsibility of her continuing education (DoE, 2007:5). In this study designated members of school staff are regarded as Pregnancy Monitoring Teachers (PMTs) who play the role of monitoring and supporting the PPLs.

This section discussed that developed countries had policies which protect the right for education of PPLs. For example, in UK the government established a Teenage Pregnancy Unit within the Social Exclusion Unit (SEU) due to high rate of teenage pregnancy. It was also mentioned that in Columbia and New York, changed the school
regulations which restricted pregnant school girls by suspending them from regular schooling. In Costa Rica, in 1997, Law for the protection of Adolescent Mother was created whereas in the USA, the Educational Amendment Act of 1972 also advocate for the rights of pregnant school girls to continue with education.

3.5.4.2 Education Policies on Teenage Pregnancy in Sub-Saharan Africa

The development of policy frameworks that support the continuation of pregnant and formerly pregnant teenagers with their education is a fairly recent initiative in developing countries (Runhare & Hwami, 2014:183). This emanates from the realisation that teenage pregnancy is one of the causes of gender inequalities in educational access and outcomes, particularly in low income and rural African communities (Grant & Hallman, 2006:6). This section discusses policies on teenage pregnancy and education in Sub-Saharan Africa. Some of the countries which fall under Sub-Saharan Africa are; Cameroon, Madagascar, Sierra Leone, Liberia, Mali, Mozambique, Nigeria, Malawian, Namibian, Zambian Tanzania, Togo and Zanzibar. This section also discusses policies within most countries that is expulsion, re-entry and continuation policies. I choose these countries because their policies to manage learner pregnancy are comparable though they are implemented differently.

There is a relationship between the kind of policy adopted and the wider socio-political context (Runhare & Hwami, 2014:183). This provides an overview of the practice and procedures in the approach to pregnancy policies in educational systems in African countries. Some scholars note that most countries first had expulsion policies which were reviewed to re-entry and eventually to continuation policies. Policies within most countries can therefore be categorised as expulsion, re-entry and continuation policies (Chilisa, 2002:22-25). These policies provide an overview of the practice and procedures in the approach to pregnancy policies in education systems in Sub-Saharan Africa.
3.5.4.2.1 Expulsion education policies in Sub-Saharan Africa

The practice of expelling pregnant girls from schools was prevalent during the colonial days and still prevails in countries like Liberia, Mali, Mozambique, Nigeria, Tanzania, Togo and Zanzibar (Mapuri, 1994). Pregnant learners are expelled from school as soon as the pregnancy starts to show or when there is evidence that a learner is pregnant. The period of expulsion is not stated while the boy responsible continues with learning. During the colonial period, Christian missionaries managed the majority of schools in Africa. The religion of the missionaries regarded pre-marital pregnancy as immoral and those who conceived were expelled.

3.5.4.2.2 Re-entry education policies in Sub-Saharan Africa

Re-entry policies provided leave durations to allow the girl to be away from school for a period that is reasonable for their needs as a young mother while at the same time ensuring that her right of education is not significantly delayed or denied (Chilisa, 2002:24-25). For example, the Malawian, Namibian and Zambian school girl pregnancy policies all require pregnant learners to withdraw and re-enrol after a year of giving birth. This means that a learner is required to go for maternity leave then return to school after a period of a year (Hubbard et al., 2008:85; Chigona & Chetty, 2008:261). However, one weakness of re-entry policies is that they are founded on gender bias ideologies and harmful traditional practices on marriage, child bearing and breast feeding (Runhare, Vanderyar, Mulaudzi & Dzimiri, 2014: 6385).

Chilisa (2002:25) observes that the re-entry policies have continually failed to address the quality of life of the girl mother when she is back to the school due to their connection to traditional and institutional repressive ideologies. The policy guidelines did not benefit the PPLs because of objections from the community due to their traditional views on the issue of teenage pregnancy and lack of political will from the education administrators who are not ready to implement the policy (Chilisa, 2002:33). In contrast to re-entry policies, are the liberal policies such as the Title IX which allow a pregnant learner to continue with schooling for as long as her individual condition such as health status allow her to continue.
3.5.4.2.3 Continuation education policies in Sub-Saharan Africa

In some countries like Cameroon, Madagascar, Sierra Leone policies on teenage pregnancy do no compel teen mothers to take a stipulated period off from school as maternity leave but can return to school immediately after delivery if they wish and can arrange extra classes so that they do not lag behind in their school work (Chilisa, 2002:29-30).

The continuation policy allows girl mothers to re-join school immediately after delivery (UNESCO, 2015: 6). It ensures that the right of pregnant learner or teen mother to education is not compromised. The policy does not compel teen mothers to take a stipulated period off from school as maternity leave but can return to school immediately after delivery if they wish. Continuation policies take into consideration the personal development and empowerment of the girl mother and that of the child and ensure that the right of pregnant learner or teen mother to education is not compromised. Madagascar has established policies that allow learners to continue with their schooling immediately after giving birth. This implies that the leave taken to give birth is negotiable between the learners or her caregivers and the school authorities. During the period of absence from school, extra-tuition may be afforded (UNESCO, 2015:10).

This section discussed policies on learner pregnancy in Sub-Saharan Africa. The three categories of policies were discussed. Expulsion education policies was prevalent during the colonial days and still prevails where pregnant learners are expelled from school. Meanwhile re-entry education policies provided leave durations to allow the girl to be away from school. These policies require pregnant learners to withdraw and re-enrol after a year of giving birth but these policies have continually failed to address the quality of life of the girl mother due to their connection to traditional and institutional repressive ideologies.
3.5.4.3 Education Policies on Teenage Pregnancy in the SADC Region

Available literature presents the landscape of policies from countries in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) in terms of how teenage pregnancy is handled in schools. SADC include countries such as; Botswana, Mozambique, South Africa, Zimbabwe and others. This section presents policies on management of learner pregnancy of Zimbabwe. I chose Zimbabwe because its education policies are comparable in content and also in implementation to education policies in South Africa.

3.5.4.3.1 Policies on management of learner pregnancy in Zimbabwe

Zimbabwe is one of the Southern African Development Community (SADC) member states which has formulated educational policies that support access to education of pregnant learners through formal schooling. However, these policies are not implemented as they appear on paper. This suggests that the Zimbabwean policy on management of learner pregnancy is more of window-dressing than a reality.

The Zimbabwe government included measures that aimed to democratise formal schooling to pregnant school girls in a Ministerial policy that titled “Discipline in Schools: Suspension, Exclusion, Expulsion and Corporal Punishment” (MoESC, Policy Circular Minute p.35, 1999, p.3). The inclusion of management of school girl pregnancy in school discipline policy was critically analysed by many researchers. Runhare and Hwami (2014:189) note that no matter how positive the intention of the policy may be, the fact that the management of school girl pregnancy are provided in a circular that is meant for punishment, suspension, exclusion and expulsion of students at school sends the wrong message.

Zimbabwe has a policy which advocates for school attendance of pregnant learners for as long as it is comfortable and possible for them. The pregnant girl and the father of the baby (if he is a learner), may take a leave of three months for purposes of child delivery then return to the same academic level. Like other SADC states, Zimbabwe came up with legal frameworks that do not support the exclusion of pregnant learners from school (Minister of Education Sport and Culture Policy Circular Minute, 1999:3). Pregnant
learners are given the legal right of education just like any other child or learner who is not pregnant. The country also advocates for the right to education of every child who is of school-going age. This is despite the differences that individuals may have (Zimbabwe Education Act Chapter 25.04, 1996). Policies that require schools to include both pregnant and former pregnant girls in schools have been put in place although the implementation of these is still unsatisfactorily (MoESC, Policy Circular Minute, 1999:3).

The Constitution of Zimbabwe has a section that could be useful in assisting pregnant girls to exercise their right to education. Article 20 (5) directs that no person shall be prevented from sending a child to any school (The Constitution of Zimbabwe, 1980:14). This guarantees the right of every child to enrol at any school irrespective of the origin, sex, gender, race or any other differences. Zimbabwe Education Act, Chapter 25:04 of 1996, stipulates that every child of school going age has a fundamental right to education, especially at the basic level, which is primary education (Government of Zimbabwe, 1996).

The development of re-entry and continuation legal frameworks for girls who fall pregnant while at school may contribute to the attainment of both 2005 and 2015 EFA and MDG goals of gender equality in education in countries that have such policies. However, the stakeholders in Zimbabwe are not adequately capacitated for meaningful inclusion of pregnant and parenting learners into the formal education system (Runhare & Hwami, 2014:186). In Zimbabwe, most education stakeholders, including teachers, school principals, education officers and parents are aware that there is provision for a pregnant learner to continue with her education at a convectional school (Runhare & Whami: 2014:189).

Although every country has its own distinctive way of handling teenage pregnancies, there are some similarities and differences. In Malawi, it is a customary procedure in both primary and secondary schools to expel teenage pregnant girls when the school authorities notice their pregnancy (UNESCO, 2015:10). The Malawian schoolgirl policies require that the former pregnant learner may be allowed to re-enrol to school after at least
one year of child delivery (UNESCO, 2015: 11). This policy has strict re-entry measures which have resulted in in low school completion rates by teenage mothers (Runhare & Whami, 2014:188-189).

Unlike Malawi, the Zambian government put in place a policy that allowed re-entry of teenage girls who fall pregnant into the school system after giving birth (UNESCO, 2015:13). According to Claire (2004:8), gender equality in education is by no means a new area of research and concern world-wide hence the inequalities and areas of discrimination have not moved out, although they require more refined scrutiny. According to Chapman (2004:12), limited progress on gender equality in education is as a serious challenge. Many countries where the girl child’s enrolment lags behind have made commitments to promote the education of girls but are constrained by three main challenges, namely:

- As countries make progress in extending educational access to education, the marginal cost of reaching those still not served increases.
- Strategies that were successful in extending educational opportunity when access was low may not yield the same returns as the proportion of children out of school shrinks.
- The nature of the problem girls’ face is changing. In many countries, the emphasis on raising initial enrolment is giving way to promoting the conditions that encourage girls’ persistence and achievement in schooling.


This literature presented the education policies on management of learner pregnancy in Zimbabwe. It was stated that the measures that aimed to democratise formal schooling to pregnant school girls is included in a Ministerial policy. Comparison of policies on learner pregnancy of Zimbabwe and Malawi was discussed and stated that Zimbabwe has continuation policies whereas Malawi has re-entry policies.
3.5.4.4 Education Policies on Teenage Pregnancy in South Africa

South Africa is also one of SADC member states with educational legal instruments that advocate for access to education and formal schooling of pregnant learners. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa; Act 108 of 1996 Section 9(3), explicitly prohibits discrimination on the grounds of pregnancy. This is also supported by the general prohibition against unfair discrimination on the grounds of pregnancy in the promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act 4 of 2000. New South African national policy guidelines, the Measures for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy 2007 allow school girls to return to school after giving birth without restriction. However, these policy guidelines were not always adhered to in practice in most South African schools (DoE, 2007:2). This is confirmed by some PPLs interviewed in this study as indicated in Chapter five of this thesis. Schools are legally obliged to provide a supportive environment for young women and young parents, as part of fulfilment of their commitment towards gender equality encapsulated in the SASA No.84 of 1996 (Morrell, Bhana & Sheffer, 2008:19). There is currently no national policy relating to learner pregnancy in South Africa. The sources of South African law in education are the constitution as the supreme law of the country, legislation, common law and case law (Joubert & Prinsloo, 2008:14).

In creating a health promoting and health seeking school, the following South African laws and policies are implemented:

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, No.108 of 1996 is the foundational and supreme law of South Africa. Chapter 2 of the Bill of Rights, contains various important human rights that are accorded to everyone in South Africa. The Bill of Rights forms a crucial aspect of the Constitution. It is the basis of democracy in South Africa as it strongly affirms the democratic values of human dignity, equality and freedom (Malherbe & Beckmann, 2003:3). The preamble declares that the Constitution has been adopted to deal with the divisions created by historical events then develop a society that values democracy, social justice and basic human rights. Hence there are South African Schools Act (SASA) No. 84 of 1996, and Measures for the Prevention and Management
of Learner Pregnancy (DoE, 2007:1) which must allow PPLs to continue with their schooling.

According to the Bill of Rights in the South African Constitution (Act No. 108 of 1996), schools, as the custodians of children’s fundamental rights, should guard against the violation of basic child and human rights such as:

- **The right to human dignity:** According to Section 10 of the Constitution, this fundamental right states that every individual has inherent dignity as a human being and deserves to be respected and protected.

- **Children’s Rights:** Section 28 provides that every child has the right to be protected from exploitative labour practices. A child’s best interests are of paramount importance in every matter concerning the child. Children must be protected against any form of abuse.

- **Right to Education:** Section 29 states that everyone has the right to a basic education, including adult basic education.

The existence of rights in education compels schools to develop policies and put in place structures that help learners, including PPLs to know and claim their rights in order to learn in conducive environment.

According to the Bill of Rights as embraced in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (RSA), Act 108 of 1996, Section 29(1) (a) affirms that everybody has the right to basic education. It is inappropriate to deny teenage mothers to continue their schooling when they are ready to do so during pregnancy and after they have given birth. Section 9(3) of the Bill of Rights states that the state must not discriminate against any person based on aspects such as gender, sex, pregnancy and marital status.

Policy duty bearers are individuals who are mandated to formulate and implement policies or legal instruments that are beneficial to members of the society (UNCHR, 1989).
Therefore, all learners, including the PPLs are the beneficiaries of the Bill of Right to Education. The education school-based stakeholders have the legal duty to uphold the bill of rights.

3.5.4.4.1 The South African Council of Educators (SACE) Act 31 of 2000
The South African Council of Educators (SACE) is the statutory body established in 1994 whose primary functions is to keep a register of all those professionally qualified persons entitled to teach in South Africa. The South African Council of Educators (SACE) Act 31 of 2000 states that the conduct of an educator is to respect the dignity, beliefs and constitutional rights of learners, and in particular children, including the right to privacy and confidentiality. SACE Act 31 of 2000 also states that the conduct of educator is to acknowledge the uniqueness, individuality, and specific needs of each learner, guiding and encouraging each to realise his or her potentials.

3.5.4.4.2 South African School Act (SASA) No. 84 of 1996
The South African Schools Acts (SASA) Act 84 of 1996 was enacted by the Department of Education in 1996. The South African Schools Act (SASA) No. 84 of 1996 was established to help the school governing bodies in governing schools (SGBs) and to safeguard the rights of all learners in schools. The legal team assisted the Department of Education to draft the original Schools Act in 1996 within the parameters of the constitution`s framework and also to capture the core elements of the Constitution in the schooling systems.

SASA Act number 84 of 1996 mandated SGBs to adopt the Learners` Code of Conduct and to make provisions for the management and prevention of learner pregnancy. The Learners` Code of Conduct must be drawn in line with SASA. This is the basis upon which pregnant learners and teen mothers should claim their Right to Education as they are children. According to Grant and Hallman (2006:4), SASA has helped to increase the number of pregnant young women in school by permitting them to remain longer in school during their pregnancy and has encouraged large numbers of mothers to return to school (Grant & Hallman, 2006:4).
One essential principle of the SASA Act related to the establishment of a partnership between all stakeholders who have an interest in education, i.e. the state, parents, learners, educators and other members of the community in the vicinity of a school. In this study all the school-based education stakeholders namely; School Governing Bodies (SGBs), School Management Teams (SMTs), Pregnant Monitoring Teachers (PMTs) and class teachers participated in the study. The Schools Act gives effect to the Right to Education which is guaranteed by the Constitution. Section 5(1) posits that “a public school must admit learners and serve their educational requirements without unfairly discriminating in any way”. This means that pregnant learners who are of compulsory school-going age, must be enrolled and be allowed to attend school.

The SASA Act further states that a school cannot refuse to admit a learner because of her pregnancy. If a qualifying school going-age pregnant learner is denied admission, this will violate section 3 and 5 of the SASA. It will also violate the learner`s right to equality, dignity and a basic education. However, Runhare and Hwami (2014:184) note that it is common to see pregnant school girls attending full time at formal schools in South Africa, yet the school environment has been found to be unfriendly thereby failing to complete their schooling. The study also revealed that education policies and policy guidelines such as Learners` Code of Conduct are drawn in line with SASA Act but were not adhered to in practice in most South African schools.

In terms of sections 5, 6 and 7 of the School Act, the governing body of a school plays an important role in protecting the learner’s right to equality, freedom and dignity. Section 5 states that the admission policy of the school may not unfairly discriminate against a learner. The act discourages any form of discrimination or prejudice in schools, substantiates the right for every student to be admitted at any school then appeal against unfair admission practices. These legal provisions explicitly state that pregnant and former pregnant learners can also take the challenge of claiming fair educational access and participation in school.
3.5.4.3 Measures on the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy in schools

The Measures for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy of 2007 are an official new policy guidelines that allow school girls to return to school after giving birth without restriction. The aim of this management plan is to help and support the learner who is pregnant, to guide the father of the child (if he is also a learner), regarding his responsibilities, as well as to assist other learners, staff members and parents who are affected by the pregnancy.

The policy guidelines provide a framework amongst others, to involve all relevant role players, and integrating these measures with available systems and structures. Role players include parents, learners, educators, communities, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), the South African Police Services (SAPS), and the Department of Education, Health and Social Development (DoE, 2007:1).

The core principles of the policy guidelines mandate that learners who are pregnant shall be fairly treated. This is in accordance with the Constitution, the South African Schools Act, and the Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act (No. 4 of 2000). The principles state that pregnant learners may not be expelled from schools (DoE, 2007:2). The principles safeguard the educational interests of the learner.

The objectives of the measures on management and prevention of learner pregnancy are:

- Prevention programs should be offered in collaboration with NGO's and other agencies and should provide information and education that builds upon the learner's own knowledge, skills values and attitudes.
- Prevention programs should also include parents and guardians through their involvement in the governance of the school and in the development of the Learners` Code of Conduct, with specific strategies to eliminate learner pregnancy.
Peer education as an approach must be emphasised and incorporated in any intervention programme because of its proven ability as a method to tackle such issues in an open manner, and to change both attitudes and behaviour.

3.5.4.4.3.1 Stipulated Roles and Responsibilities of Pregnant Learner

In management of learner pregnancy, the national policy guidelines outlined the following roles and responsibilities for the pregnant learner:

The pregnant learner must inform someone designated by the principal that she is pregnant (DoE, 2007:5). In this study, the designated educator is referred to as Pregnancy Monitoring Teacher (PMT). During interviews, some PPLs referred them as link teachers. The pregnant learner (and the father of the unborn baby if he is also a learner) may be required to take a leave of absence from school for a period of two years (DoE, 2007:5). According to the policy guidelines, no learner should be re-enrolled to school in the same year that they would have taken a leave due to pregnancy. The parenting learner must also consider the rights of the new born child. Before returning to school, the parenting learner must produce a medical report declaring that she is fit to resume classes.

3.5.4.4.3.2 Specified Roles and Responsibilities of Parents and Guardians

The policy guidelines mandate the parents to take a lead in working with the school. They should always ensure that the school is timeously informed about the condition of their child during pregnancy after giving birth. It further indicates that parents and guardians should take steps to ensure that their child receives her class tasks and assignments during leave period. However, this is not fairly done because some teachers have negative attitudes towards PPLs. Dlamini concurred that support from teachers plays a role in decisions of the young mothers to stay in school. She notes that teenage mothers drop out of school due to lack of support from family, friends (peers) and teachers’ attitudes towards them during and after pregnancy (Dlamini, 2016:26).
The specified responsibility of parents is in line with the Convention on the Rights of the Child which recognises the rights and duties of parents in “providing appropriate direction and guidance in children’s exercise of their rights,” but that the best interest of the child takes precedence over all other interests (Convention on the Rights on the Child, 2012). Parents or guardians are required to ensure that teen mothers attend school while they assist with baby care (DoE, 2007:6).

3.5.4.3.3 Responsibilities of School on Management of Learner Pregnancy

According to the national policy guidelines, schools should adopt practices that are inclusive of pregnant learners. This denotes the avoidance of any action that may be related to unfair treatment or discrimination. Furthermore, pregnant learners may also need to be effectively motivated to continue with their education prior to and after baby delivery. In addition, parents or guardians of PPLs must also be included in the process of restoring positive self-perception of affected individuals (DoE, 2007:6). This means that, the entire process requires a multi-disciplinary approach for it to yield positive results. The policy guidelines affirm that educators should continue offering educational support to the learner. The process of collecting academic information about the learner’s performance and the formal recording of her progress throughout the year is also outlined. Continuous Assessment (CASS), must be continued as far as almost possible whether the pregnant learner is at school or at home. Schools should strive to ensure the existence of a climate of understanding and respect. It further states that the school should put in place appropriate mechanisms to deal with complaints of unfair discrimination, hate speech or harassment that may arise.

The policy guidelines add that after giving birth learners should be given advice and counselling on motherhood and child rearing. The counselling can be offered by a Life Orientation (LO) educator, counsellor or psychological services staff members or any person qualified to offer counselling to the young mother and father (if also a learner). The responsibility of the school is reinforced by Bhana (2006:16) who argued that it is the responsibility of the school to protect the educational rights of PPLs while providing an equitable and supporting learning environment. Similarly Chigona and Chetty (2007:07)
argue that principals and the SGBs are accountable to all learners’ rights to education, and this include PPLs.

3.5.4.4.3.4 Accountability of the Provincial DoE on Management of Learner Pregnancy

Besides the responsibilities of the school, the national policy guidelines also states that it is the responsibility of the provincial DoE (Department of Education) to provide every school with a copy of the Measures on the management of learner pregnancy (2007) and to ensure that they are complied with. Furthermore, it states that the department must ensure that the school managers and educators are equipped to deal with the many challenges related to learner pregnancy. In addition, DoE must also consult the Department of Health and Social Development in order to have a professional nurse or social worker assigned to service a cluster of schools. It also states that the pregnant learner must be considered to be a ‘Learner with Special Needs’ with access to counselling by professionals of the Specialised Learner and Educator Support (SLES) component within the EMDC (WCDE, 2003:1).

The national policy also indicates that the process of gathering valid information about the learner’s performance and the formal recording of her progress throughout the year (CASS) must be continued whether she is at school or at home. In this regard, the national policy stipulates that schools should not at any given point cease from offering academic support to pregnant learners. The work and tasks that they would have submitted must be fairly assessed during the period of absence from school. Timely feedback must also be afforded to learners as this promotes progress. However, the present study revealed that pregnant learners were not given tasks during their absence nor given repeat lessons when they returned irrespective of having doctor’s letter. This means that the policy guidelines were not always observed in practice in most South African schools (DoE, 2007:5).
3.5.4.4 Learners’ Code of Conduct on Learner Pregnancy

According to SASA No 84 of 1996, the Learners’ Code of Conduct should make provisions for managing learner pregnancy within the framework of the policy document. When it is evident that a learner is pregnant, the matter must be treated with great sensitivity and confidentiality. The principal plays a very important role in the implementation of policies at school and in safeguarding the interests of all learners, including PPLs. In 2000 the Gender Commission on Gender Equity reported to the South African Ministry of Education that they had received a number of complaints from teenage mother learners concerning their unfair treatment in their schools from both teachers and their fellow learners. The teenage mothers complained that their schools had not allowed them to attend classes because they were mothers (Ministry of Education, 2000).

3.5.4.4.5 Handling of Teenage Pregnancy in South African schools

South Africa has continuous policy which includes both school and parental responsibilities. Examples of these school responsibilities include a requirement that schools must adopt preventive measures of any form of discrimination against pregnant learners at the same time encourage the victims to continue with their education. Schools are also mandated to ensure the provision of counselling services and academic support during the leave period. In addition, parents or guardians of PPLs have a responsibility to help with child care during schooling. Both the pregnant learner and the one responsible for the pregnancy (if it is another learner) are exempted from school for a period of about two years.

Manzini (2001:48) notes that in South Africa the existing schools’ policy mandates girls who are pregnant to continue with their education during pregnancy and after giving birth (DoE, 2007:1) thereby enabling continuous school attendance by PPLs, unlike Botswana, Namibia and Malawi, where pregnant learners are required to be out of school for a specific period, that is, between one and two years (Chilisa, 2002:29-30; Hubbard et al., 2008:41).
In line with the international laws, United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC), Article 28(1)(e) states that South Africa must take measures to encourage regular attendance at schools and the reduction of drop-out rates. Furthermore, the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), 10(f) states that South Africa must take all appropriate measures to eliminate the discrimination against women and to ensure that they enjoy equal rights with men in the field of education as well as ensuring the reduction of female student drop-out rates.

3.5.4.4.6 Enforcement the Forum for African Women Educationalists in Education Resolution

The Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE) has worked since 1992 to promote Education For All, through the advocacy, concrete actions and policy reforms. In the mid-nineties, the Forum successfully lobbied the Ministers of Education in several African countries to change policies that exclude teen mothers from re-entering school. It is claimed that there is a relationship between the kind of policy adopted and the wider socio-political context. In most countries where there are no explicit policies, the values, the norms and attitudes of the society towards pregnancy determine the fate of the pregnant school girl (Mapuri, 1994:10).

It is therefore, imperative that school managers or principals and school governing bodies ensure that the rights and development of female learners are not reduced and that exceptional measures are taken to protect the rights of pregnant schoolgirls. In order to create healthy promoting schools, all countries must have laws, policies and measures to manage school girl pregnancy. Nations must revise and monitor the implementation of policies on the management of learner pregnancy to prevent teenage pregnancy and motherhood as this has a negative impact on their education.

3.6 INTERVENTIONS ON TEENAGE PREGNANCY IN SCHOOLS

Many countries continue to experience high incidences of teenage pregnancy despite the introduction of intervention strategies. Interventions strategies are those strategies that
are used when difficult behaviour has become an issue. Interventions are necessary when the prevention activities have not been successful in reducing the behaviour. According to Hubbard et al. (2008), access to comprehensive sexuality education which is part of life skills and health education can help to prevent early pregnancy or delay the first pregnancy, increase child spacing and more generally reduce risky sexual behaviours. Comprehensive sexuality education which goes beyond biological information on body changes and pregnancy prevention and includes skills related to the ability to interact, builds relationships and overall control of one’s body and action is the key in reducing early and unwanted pregnancy (Hubbard, 2008:4).

3.6.1 Interventions on School girl Pregnancy in Developed Countries

There are many intervention strategies on teenage pregnancy in schools in developed countries but I chose to discuss Netherlands only because of its unique policies on teenage pregnancy. Netherlands policies are unique in the sense that their policies aim to decrease frequencies of adolescent pregnancy and the wider recognition of the Sustainable Development Goals in the country. Netherlands has been showing a consistent trend in reducing teenage pregnancies to rates that are among the lowest in the world. When the girl decides to keep her pregnancy, there are institutions that make sure that she can remain in school. These institutions offer her financial and social support. However, despite these positive statistics challenges persist. For instance, adolescents from migrant backgrounds, with relatively lower educational attainment have been found to be more vulnerable to unplanned and teen pregnancies.

According to Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) (2016), Netherlands’ adolescent birth rate is decreasing and stands at 4.5 per 1000 births. In 2015, 1574 adolescent girls gave birth, almost 80% of all teen mothers were 18 years old while 8% were below the age of 16 (CBS, 2016). Netherlands’ policies that aim to reduce frequencies of teen pregnancy contribute directly to the broader realisation of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) in the country. While addressing young peoples’ health and well-being (SDG3),
these policies improve educational attainment young people (SDG4) and contribute to gender equality (SDG5).

3.6.2 Interventions on School girl Pregnancy in Developing Countries

A study conducted by Patricia L. East, University of California, San Diego, School of Medicine, titled: “Breaking the cycle of teenage pregnancy: Prevention opportunities focusing on the teenage younger sisters of teen mothers (Patricia, 1998:166-167) recommended the following strategies to break the cycle of teenage pregnancy:

- **Promoting alternative role models**: This intervention suggested the policy and program development strategies that incorporate caring adult role models who will strongly advice girls that becoming a mother is not their only opportunity to fulfilment and recognition.

- **Encouraging group discussion**: It was indicated that younger sisters of teenage mothers can form support group; they can share how their families were affected by premarital parenting of their sisters, how their families were from copying other experiences. Furthermore, it was suggested that teenage mothers and their partners can also enhance the pregnancy prevention message of the support group.

- **Involving the family**: Prevention effects that aimed at younger sisters to prevent falling pregnant can be optimized if family involvement is encouraged. If the family members are overly or covertly opposed to the goals of the programme, older sisters can communicate messages to their young sisters that are at odds with the programme.

- **School-based setting as a basis for prevention**: The school setting was also regarded as a context for prevention. School based approach appears to offer identification, accessibility and all factors crucial to the success of an intervention
effort. The three main reasons why school-based setting as a basis for prevention efforts was preferred were (i) school is an excellent context for the identifying the younger sisters of pregnant teens. (ii) Younger sisters may already be known to school staff and school personnel can build on an already established positive relationship with them and (iii) the school is usually staffed by personnel who are comfortable with adolescents and competent to deal with their special concerns (Patricia, 1998:169).

Another study conducted in New York titled “Helping young mothers’ complete school” sought to improve poor youth’s access to educationally sound programs and to reduce school dropouts’ rates. Other objectives were to prevent adolescent pregnancy as well as improving school - to- work transitions. The role of comprehensive programs included the range of services teenage mothers needed in order to continue school, delay in having a second child, preparing realistically for work, and providing adequately for their children. The comprehensive programs offer students a mix of services such as education, personal guide, health and occasionally job training and placement that are engaging and tailored to their needs and respectful of their strengths.

Education and information services programmes that have been developed by NGOs that were surveyed included the following: school-based education, community-based education, workplace education, street outreach, peer approaches, drop in or youth centres as well as mass media. The NGOs provide information and services directly to young people both in school and out school. However, given the limited budget and human resources, it is impossible to reach the majority of young people.

3.6.3 Interventions on School Girl Pregnancy in SADC

SADC countries also have the intervention strategies which are comparable to countries in other parts of the world.
In Mozambique, the government implemented and launched the Programma Geracao Biz in 1999. This programme entailed the establishment in school of an effective referral system between teachers, adolescent corners and Youth Friendly Health Services facilities. The programme was a Multi-Sectorial Approach which was formed by the Ministry of Education, Ministry of Health and Ministry of Youth and Sport, with the support of Pathfinder. Schools had school-based peer educators as well as school health corners where services were rendered and referrals and links to health workers created. The national curricular which included all the subject curricular were revised. For instance, the Maths curricular used HIV percentages to learn percentages and Biology included sexuality education (WHO, 2009). In Botswana, an educational project called Diphalana Project Centre was established Pekeen Community Junior High in Mahalapaye and has been cited as a useful model for innovative interventions briefly discussed below:

Through Diphalana, distance learning modules allow learners who are on their maternity leave to continue their studies and also makes use of sensitisation workshops for pupils and teachers.

- The project also provides a day care-centre for teenage mothers still at school. This allows student mothers to visit their babies during breaks and breast feed them. The father, if he is also a student, also shares the responsibility to look after the baby.
- Community members and teachers provide training on parenting responsibility for pregnant teens and adolescent mothers and fathers.

In Botswana, the main factors that determine the future of schooling for a teen mother are the availability of child care and the socio-economic status of the household and also knowledge of the procedures for re-entry and one’s ability to obtain the required documentation such as birth certificate for the child.
3.6.4 Interventions on School girl Pregnancy in South Africa

Previous studies show that numerous prevention interventions have been introduced in South Africa in adherence with the various legal and policy provisions on teenage sexual behaviour. Some of these interventions include school-based sexual education, peer education programmes, adolescent friendly clinic initiatives, mass media interventions as well as community campaigns. However, the primary focus of these interventions was to prevent Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) although they helped significantly on prevention of teenage pregnancy because of their positive impact on sexual behaviour. An investigation carried out by the Human Science Research Council (HSRC) on sexual and reproductive issues in 2008 revealed that prevention of teenage pregnancy was dominated by focus on HIV although separation of prevention of HIV and teenage pregnancy were neither desirable nor feasible (Panday et al., 2009:14).

The problem of teenage pregnancy among school girls is a major concern in South Africa (South Africa DHS, 2003). Many programs were initiated, formulated and implemented. Some of these programs are briefly discussed below:

- **First chance programs:** School-based sex education, parenting, peer programme, sexual and reproductive health services and Mass Media Campaigns such as Khomanani, Soul City and Love Life.

- **Second chance programme:** This programme include flexible school policies and a child support grant. In South Africa, teenage mothers receive a monthly grant called the Child Support Grant (CSG) which provides support to families with children under the age of 18 (eighteen). It is the government’s strategy to help teenage mothers financially by supporting their children. In the same vein, Bhana et al. (2008:14) also revealed that a supportive social environment enables a teenage mother to do well in school. They further indicated that teenage mothers who came from supportive families and who get support from teachers and friends often do better than those who lack such support.
- **Counselling Programme**: To ensure professional counselling, sex education, health education, financial support and counselling programmes were started by NGOs. The counselling is offered by the health workers, social workers, psychologist, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), national department such as Health, Education, Social Welfare and others. These also included teachers, as well as parents and guardians.

As will be indicated in subsequent chapters, this thesis revealed that there were no school social workers and counselling was not offered to teachers, parents or guardians of PPLs even to PPLs themselves.

- **Dropout Prevention Programme**: The programme specifically deals with pregnant learners and teen mothers. It includes building a network of service referrals to help teen mothers stay in school, apprising them of their academic options, involving teen fathers and parents of teen mothers and others (Bhana et al., 2008:14).

- **Prevention programme**: This programme seeks to prevent second pregnancy to teen mothers while still at school as well as preventing the young sisters of teen mothers from falling pregnant as they are at high risk of being pregnant just like their sisters. In addition, the programme seeks to prevent, empower, support, and motivate those learners who do not have children to complete their high school without having children.

- **Support Programme**: To ensure support to both pregnant learners and teen mothers. The support is offered by all people including teachers, fellow learners, family members, community members and leaders (Bhana et al., 2008:14).

In addition to the aforementioned programmes, the then Deputy President of South Africa, Mr Cyril Ramaphosa (now President of the Republic) launched two intervention programmes in 2017. In response to the high statistics of school girl pregnancy in South
Africa, Dr Yogan Pillay, the Department of Health Deputy Director General responded by stating that those high statistics lead to the Department of Health to launch the awareness campaigns, namely; “She conquers and B-Wise interactive mobi-site”. The Deputy Director of the Department of Health reported that the then Deputy President of South Africa, Mr Cyril Ramaphosa launched the campaign titled “She Conquers” which is a national HIV campaign of girls and young women to focus specifically on the 15-24 year age group, as studies revealed that the prevalence of HIV was highest among this age group. The campaign spanned three years and focused on HIV infections, unwanted pregnancies, school drop-out, sexual and gender - based violence, unemployment and shortage of economic opportunities amongst girls and young women. B-Wise interactive mobi-site was launched in 2015 to address issues such as sexual and reproductive health, among others.

The programmes launched by the then Deputy President Cyril Ramaphosa confirmed that in South Africa, there are no specific programmes addressing the issue of school girl pregnancy. School girl pregnancy issues are addressed within other programmes addressing other issues such as HIV infections, sexual and gender - based violence as outlined in the campaign “She conquers” (Panday et al., 2009:15). In Indonesia, policies related to sexuality are rarely designed to suit health or educational concerns. This evidenced in a study titled, “HIV and Sexual Health Education in Primary and Secondary Schools” which was conducted in Indonesia whose main focus was on the biology of sexual reproduction and not on sexual practice in social context.

In conclusion, various countries world-wide have put in place national policies and intervention strategies and programmes have been started by governments and NGOs but pregnant learners and teen mothers are failing to complete their studies (Grant & Hallman, 2006:19).
3.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The literature review provided deeper insights into the prevalence of teenage pregnancy where majority were school girl pregnancy. The impact of early motherhood on education and how pregnancy has seriously curtailed education success of girls in South Africa was discussed in detail. Literature has revealed the national policies and interventions on school girl pregnancy and their effectiveness and weakness in helping parenting learners to achieve their educational goals.

Literature further exposed the impact of early motherhood in education by revealing that out of all school girls who fall pregnant, only around a third stay in school during their pregnancy and return after childbirth with the highest return rate among the girls being in Grade 12 (Grant & Hallman, 2008:372). The relationship between the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa and policies on management of learner pregnancy and other international conventions and protocols such as the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) of 1948, the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) of 1989, the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) of 1979, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) of 2000 and Education for All (EFA) of 1990 and the Forum of African Women Educationists (FAWE) has been demonstrated in relation to the protection of educational rights of PPLs.

Literature review also helped to identify knowledge gaps in the field of study as it was realised that there were not enough studies on school-based interventions and their effectiveness in helping PPLs to cope with schooling. The existing literature on prevalence, impact, policies on learner pregnancy and intervention strategies effectively fulfilled the objectives of the literature review because it sharpened and deepened the theoretical framework of this study. It also helped me to be acquainted with the latest developments in the area of research related to this study such as the intervention strategies on school girl pregnancy and its effectiveness nation-wide. In this chapter, the acquired knowledge on the world-wide national policies and national policies on management of learner pregnancy of South African schools shed great insights into the
topic under investigation. Literature review has added value to this study because I managed to identify gaps in knowledge which can be fulfilled by this study as well as strengths and weaknesses in previous studies related to teenage pregnancy conducted world-wide.

The next chapter discusses the research methodology employed in this study.
CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the research paradigms, methodology, data gathering strategies, data analysis and data interpretation. To come up with the research paradigms and research methodology to collect data, I was guided by my research objectives and research questions which were important for data collection. These hinged the study which sought to examine the interventions and effectiveness of the strategies used by school-based education stakeholders to address the negative effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning among pregnant and parenting learners (PPLs). In the study, the interpretivist, social phenomenologist and social constructivist approaches were integrated as the ontological and epistemological paradigms that guided the research design, study methodology as well as data collection and analysis. I used the qualitative case study research method to realise an in-depth understanding of the way in which school-based stakeholders in the education system implemented the intervention strategies. The chapter outlines qualitative research method and the case study research design. The data collection methods used were in-depth face-to-face individual interviews, focus group interviews and analysis of school documents.

Narrative data were collected from school management teams (SMTs), school governing bodies (SGBs), pregnant monitoring teachers (PMTs), mainstream learners, pregnant and parenting learners (PPLs) and class teachers of PPLs. SGB is constituted by ; teachers, parents, support staff and learners (in case of secondary schools). In this study, the SGB members who were selected were from the parents’ component. The qualitative research allowed me make a critical reflection, analysis and interpretation of various relationships and dimensions around the implementation of national policy regarding managing the pregnancy of learners at schools. Therefore, the chapter interrogates the sample of study, research instruments, procedures for collecting data,
and the research methods which were employed for analysing and interpreting the availed data. The chapter concludes by accounting for the rigour of the research through ethical consideration and trustworthiness of the findings.

4.2 RESEARCH PARADIGMS

The paradigm enables the study to be conducted within the dominions of a particular philosophical orientation of reality. This reality has to be understood in the form of knowledge. The knowledge which is an outcome of research cannot be observed in a vacuum but social space. Since my study sought to examine school-based interventions into negative effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning and the challenges faced by duty bearers in supporting PPLs to cope with their studies, I selected to underpin my research endeavour by social interpretivist, social constructivist and phenomenological approaches. Paradigms in research include positivism and anti-positivism and critical paradigm, which is related to anti-positivism as outlined below.

The purpose of phenomenological research is to describe what people experience with regards to certain phenomena, how they interpret these experiences or what meaning the experience hold for them (Grix, 2004:121-122). This is a phenomenological study because there was an assumption that there was an essence to shared experiences. In this study the essence of different people, that is; SGBs, SMTs, PMTs, class teachers, mainstream learners and PPLs were bracketed, analysed and compared to bring out the essence of the school-based interventions into the effects of the school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning (Patton, 2002:106).

Researchers bring ideas to the surface that phenomenology, interpretivist and social constructivist approaches all view reality and knowledge. These present knowledge and reality is subjective instead of objective, contextual instead of general, qualitative instead of quantitative, flexible instead of rigid and multifaceted instead of uniform (Creswell, 2007:326). In the same vein, Seakem and Lings (2004:814) opine that phenomenological and interpretive forms of analysis reflect an interest in the experience
of the participant in the topic of study. These approaches never strive to be objective statements. The two authors further explain that interpretivism attempts to expose the meanings which come from the account of a person in the form of engagement that is interpretive as reflected in transcripts and interviews (Seamark & Lings, 2004:814). I had an engagement with the study participants; I personally went to the four schools, I conducted interviews guided by the interview schedules, to gather in-depth information from the participants of the study. The audio-tapes were listened to after the interviews, as well as translated from Xitsonga to English.

According to Polit and Beck (2008:13), a paradigm relates to the manner of gazing at natural phenomenon that encompasses a set of philosophical assumptions that guide one’s approach to enquiry. Grix (2004:25) defines paradigm as an overarching philosophical framework of the way in which scientific knowledge is produced. Antwi and Hamza (2015:218) define a paradigm as a research culture with a set of beliefs, values, and assumptions that a community of researchers has in common regarding the nature and conduct of research. Paradigms are therefore, systems of thinking, guiding a study by defining its nature along three philosophical dimensions. The three philosophical dimensions which can be coined to paradigms are ontological, epistemological and methodological inclinations (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999:6, Crotty, 2003:10, Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:22). Ontology specifies the nature of reality to be studied or a philosophical study of being, which is concerned with the order of reality and human experience of it (Crotty, 2003:10, Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:18).

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007:07) posit that the assumptions of an ontological kind are beliefs which concern the very nature or essence of the social phenomena being investigated. They further indicate that these views hold that objects of thought are merely words and that there is no independently accessible thing constituting the meaning of a word. Ontological assumptions give rise to epistemological assumptions because knowledge is gained within the view of reality. These give rise to methodological considerations which in turn give rise to issues of instrumentation and the gathering of data (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007:5).
In this study, ontology is broadly explained from the subjective views (Crotty, 2003:10; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:18) of a wide array of study participants that include SGBs, SMTs, PMTs, class teachers, mainstream learners and PPLs. In other words, the life and school experiences of PPLs cannot be understood from one angle or viewpoint. For example, mainstream learners and PPLs may never have an experience of school in the same manner. Likewise, different educators view and treat PPLs differently depending on how they define and perceive learners that become pregnant in the process of schooling. True knowledge in this study is therefore, based on the different or subjective narratives of the school publics at the schools under study which were attended by the PPLs.

Epistemology specifies the relations between that which can be known and the researcher. Epistemology is the process in which the investigator comes to know the truth and reality (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:18). Crotty (2003:8) states that in epistemology, researchers are concerned with the meaning that an individual can have of knowledge. Epistemology looks at how one knows reality, the method for knowing the nature of reality, or how one comes to know reality and it also assumes a relationship between the knower and the known (Maree, 2011: 55). According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007:07), the epistemological kinds are assumptions which concern the nature and forms of knowledge, how it can be acquired and how it is communicated to other human beings. With regards to the epistemological standpoint adopted in this study it was important to ensure that the research on this aspect of humanity the process of data gathering, and processing was not biased by my own personal views and perceptions on PPLs to avoid distorting the knowledge as presented by the study participants. In this regard the actual words or verbatim statements were the basis upon which the study generated study findings or knowledge.

Informed by the phenomenologist and interpretivist philosophical approach (Crotty, 2003:8) which this study adopted, as the researcher I however gave inferences or interpretations of what the study participants narrated in the context of the study objectives and questions that the study sought to investigate. While interpretive
knowledge is subjective rather than objective (Crotty, 2003:9), in this study I had to ensure that the validity and relevance of the knowledge generated was selected, contextualised and handled in line with the study objectives. Through the use of interviews and study of school documents, I was able to access relevant knowledge for the purpose of which the study was conducted. In other words, the usefulness of the interventions on PPLs’ educational needs were understood from the viewpoint of the different schools and also the different study participants rather than my own biases and individual attitudes on the subject under study.

4.2.1 The Positivism Paradigm in Research

The positivism paradigm is an empirical methodology in which quantitative data are gathered from experiment and observations (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999:7). Positivism paradigm assumes that knowledge is true if acquired and created using purely scientific methods. The positivist paradigm sees reality as static, external and governed by scientific laws (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999:7). The positivist research is the quantitative approach, which aims to arrive at generalisations on cause and effect on a phenomenon. Positivists inform quantitative research designs, for example, experimental and survey designs and results are statistically generated in numbers rather than narratives from participants' views as in qualitative research, as the case in this study.

Therefore, the positivism paradigm did not apply to my study because this study employed the qualitative approach by exploring the views and experiences of education stakeholders regarding the phenomenon of how PPLs experience schooling and what schools are doing to support them (Maree, 2011:55). As a qualitative researcher, I believe that the world is made up of people with their own assumptions, intentions, attitudes, beliefs and values and therefore knowledge is flexible and subjectively understood rather than objective and rigid (Crotty, 2003:9). Therefore, as opposed to positivism, the study adopted the critical paradigm which is aligned to qualitative approach and emphasises subjectivity and perceives truth as not generalisable but specific to a group of people being affected by a phenomenon, like school girl pregnancy.
4.2.2 Critical Paradigm in Research

Anti-positivists share a resistance to upholding the natural-scientific human behavioural research as held by the positivists. Critical paradigm is also an arm of the anti-positivist because it shares a resistance to upholding the natural-scientific human behavioural research (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:23). The critical paradigm is also referred to as the constructionist paradigm because it sees reality as socially constructed depending on human beings’ socio-political circumstances and conditions such as age, political orientation, gender, religion, culture and one’s philosophy of life. It posits that meanings originate from social interaction and experiences that can however affect an individual or group (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999:9).

This study was also underpinned by the critical paradigm, since it sought to examine the perceptions and views of participants on the effect of school girl pregnancy on the teaching and learning of PPLs in formal education. I strongly believed that people (study participants) had their own living experiences, perceptions, views, assumptions, intentions, attitudes, beliefs and values. The critical paradigm was suitable to the present study because it focuses on societal critique in order to raise consciousness and empower people to bring about change (Patton, 2002:131). This study did not just focus on understanding the school interventions into the effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning needs of PPLs, but aimed to examine, to critique and challenge, to transform and empower the duty bearers in handling the negative effects of school girl pregnancy (Patton, 2002:131). Some scholars have argued that the critical research paradigm looks at how social signs and images have the power to create particular representations of people and objects and these underlie the way people experience them (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999:9).

According to Grix (2004:24) the critical paradigm is an approach to social science that emphasises the need to uncover hidden processes and structures within society. This author further indicated that the critical paradigm is concerned with the critical meanings of experiences as they relate to gender, race, class and other kinds of social oppression.
In the context of this study, it can be noted that PPLs would suffer from stigmatisation and humiliation at school, home and the community at large. Dlamini (2016:26-27) attested that teenage mothers are stigmatised potentially on the basis that society has understood teenage pregnancy as a phenomena associated with deviant behaviour, therefore associating it with personal irresponsibility from the girl’s side.

4.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design relates to the entire process of research from conceptualising a problem to investigating and writing the report on the study (De Vos, 2002:335). According to Creswell (2002:86), a research design is a plan or structure on what is going to be observed and analysed. A design is therefore, a blue-print or detailed plan of how a research study is to be conducted from the beginning to completion. This includes the process of selecting a sample of interest to study, collecting data to be used as a basis for testing the hypothesis or research questions and assumptions, presenting and analysing data into results or findings of the study (De Vos, 2002:335; Creswell, 2002:186). A research design is the plan according to which we obtain research participants (subjects) and collect information from them. Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005:52) define research design as the plan according to which we obtain research participants and collect information from them.

Other authors define research design as a specific outline detailing how a chosen method will be applied to answer particular research questions and it also refers to the plan and the structure of the investigation undertaken to obtain the evidence required to answer the research question(s) (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:94). Put differently, research designs are plans that guide the “arrangement of conditions for the collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure” (TerreBlance & Durrheim, 1999:29). Research design is the planning of scientific inquiry in designing a strategy for finding out something (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:72). Rankapole (2002:49) defines research design as a plan for selecting subjects,
research sites and data collection procedures to answer questions posed by the researcher.

According to Maree (2011:70-78), a qualitative research design has the following six research designs: historical research, action research, ethnography, conceptual studies, grounded theory and case study.

4.3.1 Historical Research

According to Maree (2011:72) historical research is a systematic process of describing, analysing and interpreting the past, based on information from selected sources as they relate to the topic under study. Historical research tends to be descriptive, and attempts to construct a map of the past or the developmental trajectory of an education system, curriculum and concepts. This kind of research attempts to provide the basis for understanding the past by exploring past trends and applying these to current and future trends (Maree, 2011:73). I did not employ historical research because its sources are mainly written words which are secondary in nature, while my study aimed to explore real life experiences of study participants on the topic under study.

4.3.2 Action Research

Action research requires an understanding of the context as well as of possible solutions of the problem. In action research, the researcher act as a mediator to help participants plan and implement an intervention that ought to alleviate the problem experienced (Maree, 2011:74). Maree further indicated that action research is typically cyclical in terms of data collection and analysis, and starts with identifying a problem, collecting data, analysing the data, taking action to resolve the problem and assessing or evaluating the outcome of the intervention (Maree, 2011:74). I did not chose action research because the main focus of action research is the evaluation of the intervention while focus of this study was to explore and examine the effectiveness of the school-based interventions.
used to support PPLs only without going further to test or put into action the recommendations from the study.

4.3.3 Ethnography

Ethnography means the description of community or group that focuses on social systems and cultural heritage (Maree, 2011:76-77). Ethnographers spend a significant amount of time in the field so that they can study the lives of the people from within their naturalistic setting. The main aim of ethnography research is to describe a culture or a way of life from the perspective of a folk or people by making sense of the inherent meanings of gestures, displays, symbols and so forth. Ethnography is not related to my study as it puts more emphasis on cultural of people while this study focused on teaching and learning of PPLs, though in the context of stakeholders’ cultural settings.

4.3.4 Conceptual Studies

Conceptual studies are largely based on secondary sources, they critically engage with the understanding of concepts, and they aim to add to existing body of knowledge and understanding (Maree, 2011:71). In conceptual studies, the data with which we work is concepts and ranges from the more positivist-type concept analysis to hermeneutic, phenomenological, deconstruction or critical analytic. Conceptual studies tend to be abstract, philosophical and rich in their theoretical understanding (Maree, 2011:72). The conceptual study approach was not employed in this study because concepts are central to the quest for abstract knowledge while in this study, lived experiences of study participants are the central quest for knowledge.

4.3.5 Grounded Theory

Grounded theory seeks to develop theory that is grounded in data systematically gathered and analysed. Grounded theory is specific approach to theory development. The approach inverts traditional quantitative approaches by grounding theory in accounts and observations of everyday life (Maree, 2011:77-78). The grounded theory approach argues for initial data collection and preliminary analyses to take place in advance of
consulting and incorporating prior research literature. A key feature of grounded theory is the simultaneous collection and analysis of data using a process known as constant comparative analysis (Maree, 2011:78). In this process, data are transcribed and examined for content immediately following data collection. Grounded theory was not adopted to my study because it is about developing a new theory whereas my study is about exploring and examining the school-based intervention strategies to support PPLs to cope with their schooling. This study employed case study research design, which is discussed in conjunction with the qualitative research approach which was employed in the study.

4.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research methodology is defined as strategies and traditions of enquiry or research approaches used to study a phenomenon (Mcmillan & Schumacher, 2001:314). The methodology defines the practical way in which the researcher goes about doing the research (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999:6). According to Maree (2016:51), research methodology includes the procedures by which researchers go about their work of collecting data, analysing, describing, and explaining phenomena.

4.4.1 Qualitative Research Approach for the Study

Creswell (2010:47), defines the qualitative research method as an approach that is naturalistic and endeavours to comprehend phenomena in context or the real-world setting. According to Grix (2004:121), the qualitative research approach refers to a broad range of designs and methods used to study phenomena of social action of which we do not have an understanding (Grix, 2004:121). The purpose of qualitative research is to ensure in-depth descriptions and understanding of peoples’ beliefs, actions and events in their complexity (Grix, 2004:121). Qualitative research focuses on describing and understanding phenomena within their natural occurring context. Yin (2016:8-10) posits that the allure of qualitative research is that it enables you to conduct in-depth studies about a broad array of topics. It is interested in the nature and essence of an event,
person or case. The goal of investigation is understanding, description, discovery and hypothesis-generation and it employs an inductive research strategy. Findings are seen to be precise, narrow and not generalisable (Grix, 2004:122). The qualitative research approach was suitable for this study because I wanted to understand how school interventions were used to help PPLs cope with schooling. This study was a multiple case study of four secondary schools in Mopani District and I used multiple sources such as school documents and interviews to collect rich data.

In this study, I sought to explore and examine the perceptions and views of participants regarding the teaching and learning of PPLs. The study employed a case study design of the qualitative approach to gather narrative data to answer research questions (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:223; Cohen, Maninon & Morrison, 2007:10). In qualitative research, a natural setting is an uncontrolled, real-life situation or environment and the researcher does not manipulate or change this environment for the study (Grix, 2004:59). In this study, the natural setting was the four secondary schools in which the study was conducted. Participants were interviewed in their naturalistic context; that is in their offices and at their own schools. This natural context enabled me to develop an understanding of the words and statements of the participants.

The qualitative approach helped me to explore deeply and understand knowledge of education policies on the prevention and management of learner pregnancy, formulation and implementation of school-based intervention strategies and also the challenges experienced by school-based stakeholders in supporting PPLs to cope with schooling. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2000:24), the word qualitative implies an emphasis on processes and meanings that are not rigorously examined, or measured in regard to amount, frequency or intensity and frequency. These authors state that the aims of qualitative research methods are to establish the socially constructed nature of reality, to stress the relationship between the researcher and the object of study as well as to emphasise the value-laden nature of the inquiry.
Yin (2016:8-10) distinguishes the key features of qualitative research from the other forms of social research which made me to choose the qualitative research method. I considered the five distinctive features of qualitative research in my decision to use the qualitative approach.

This study was about study participants` lives as experienced under real-world conditions. Their real-world conditions were; the real-world conditions of SMTs, SGBs, PMTs, class teachers and mainstream learners, which is their schools, classrooms and play grounds (school premises). The real-world conditions of some SGBs members (parent components) were schools, homes and communities at large. Since this study was about the views and perspectives of study participants, the major purpose of the qualitative research study was to capture their perspectives. The emerging ideas from this study represent the meanings given to real-world events by the participants who live them and not the preconceptions or meanings held by myself as the researcher.

In this study, the contextual conditions in which the participants` live, were their schools, their homes and their communities. These contextual conditions strongly influence all their human affairs. Throughout this study, I was driven by the desire to explain social behaviour and thinking, through the existing concepts I studied from literature review and emerging concepts from this study. I used multiple sources such as document review, focus group interviews and individual interviews to collect both textual and narrative data. The triangulation of these different sources assisted me to converge lines of inquiry during this study. I also presented and analysed data from these multiple sources. Both the textual and the narrative data complemented each other. This enabled me to present and interpret more appropriate and more richly data as presented in Chapter Five of this thesis.

In my study, I therefore employed both interactive and non-interactive procedures in the form of focus group and face-to-face individual interviews, as well as a study of document evidence on the key participants of the study. This enabled me to capture both the narrative views from participants and at the same time to make a detailed record of their
non-verbal language in a reflective journal, from which I inferred their attitudes, beliefs and emotions.

4.4.2 Case Study as a Research Design for this Study

Since this study sought to examine the impact of the school interventions in the teaching and learning of PPLs, I chose to use a qualitative case study research design to gather data which responded to formulated research questions. According to Creswell (2007:73) the case study design belongs to a qualitative approach where the researcher explores a case or a bounded system as well as several cases or multiple bounded systems or cases over a period of time. This is done through detailed collection of data using multiple information sources such as observation, interviews, reports, documents and reports a case description and a case-based themes.

Creswell (2010:75) defines a case study research method as an empirical inquiry that investigates a current entity in the context in which it resides and in which multiple sources of evidence are used. Yin (2008:18) also defines a case study as a scientific investigation of a contemporary phenomenon in its real environment. Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005:193-194) assert that case study refers to the fact that a number of units of analysis, such as an individual, a group or an institution, are studied intensively. In a case study, the researcher gathers information through document review, interviews, focus group, and in-depth face-to-face semi-structured interviews (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007:348). This study employed a multiple case study of four secondary schools that were selected in Mopani District.

The objective of the case study is to investigate the dynamics of some single bounded system, typically of a social nature, for example an organisation, a family, a group, a community or participants in a project, a practice and institutions (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005:52-53). This study met the above aims of case study in the sense that it focussed only on one specific unit that is study of school girl pregnancy. This study was bounded case study because it was conducted only at four secondary schools and not
conducted in all the high schools in the Limpopo Province or all high schools in the Mopani District. This present study was bounded because there was a setting or context and an end period. This current study was actual or real in the sense that the reality of school girl pregnancy is a prevalent world-wide societal challenge and it was theoretically or academically based on the feminist theories. In this study, the number of people interviewed was specific and limited based on their knowledge of the topic under investigation.

This study was specific and not generalisable in the sense that I was not studying the relationships between the four selected high schools in Mopani District nor teaching and learning in general, but I was studying specific phenomenon, a single entity; the school-based intervention strategies into the effect of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning needs of PPLs. I chose the case study approach because the knowledge acquired through case studies is more concrete, more vivid, and sensory rather than abstract. The knowledge acquired is through understanding of how participants relate and interact with each other in a specific situation and how they make meaning of a phenomenon under study.

4.4.3 The Special Features of Qualitative Case Study

Merriam (2009:43-44) defines case studies by their special features. She listed the special features of qualitative case studies as; particularistic, descriptive and heuristic. This study fits these characteristics because of the following reasons:

**Particularisation** means that a case study focuses on a particular situation, event, programme or phenomenon. This study was specific in that it focused on the school interventions into the effect of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning needs of PPLs.

**Descriptive** means that a case study yields a thick or rich description of phenomena under study. I sampled different categories of participants such as SGBs, SMTs, PMTs,
class teachers, mainstream learners and PPLs and this resulted in obtaining rich, thick
descriptions.

**Heuristic** means that case studies illuminate the reader`s understanding of the
phenomenon under study. Related to heuristic features of the case study, in Chapter One
of this thesis, I explained the problem, the background of the situation and the objectives
of this study. This enabled readers to understand what transpired throughout the
research study, including all the research processes, the findings and conclusions.

### 4.4.4 Advantage of the Case Study Research Approach

According to Maree (2011:75), the advantage of the case study is that it offers an analysis
which reflects the multi-perspective nature of the phenomenon under study. In this study,
I did not only consider the perspective and voice of same participants, for instance; SGBs
or SMTs, but I also took into account the views of the other relevant groups of participants
and the interactions between them. For instance, PMTs, PPLs, class teachers and
mainstream learners. I used different categories of participants such as SGBs as
governors, SMT as managers, PMT in monitors, class teachers and mainstream learners
as class mates and schoolmates in order to have greater insights and understanding of
the dynamics of each secondary school concern, the school interventions implemented
by duty bearers to help PPLs to cope with schooling. I selected four secondary schools
from four different areas and different circuits, namely; Shamavunga, Nsami, Klein Letaba
and Mamaila to obtain different views in order to have a multi-perspective analysis on the
problem under study.

### 4.4.5 The Bounded Case Study Underpinning this Study

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007:255) identify three types of case studies, namely,
interpretative, evaluating and descriptive. An interpretive research design allows a
researcher to interrelate closely with the participants in order to gain insights and form a
clear understanding (Patton, 2002:133). All research is interpretive, it is guided by a set
of beliefs and feelings about the world and how it should be understood and studied (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:24). According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007:117) interpretive case study is used to understand human experiences. An evaluating case study is a study where a researcher examines, judges accomplishment and its effectiveness conducted systematically and empirically through careful data collection and thoughtful analysis (Patton, 2002:10). The interpretative case study develops conceptual categories inductively in order to examine initial assumptions whereas the evaluating case study involves description, explanation and judgement of the phenomena under investigation. Descriptive case study refers to the rich and extensive set of details relating to the phenomena (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007:255). The descriptive case study provides narrative accounts.

This study was an integrated or bounded system of various school-based education stakeholders, namely, SMTs, SGBs, PMTs and class teachers of PPLs. I also included PPLs and mainstream learners. Merriam (2009:40-41) describes a bounded system as a single entity of focus, a unit around which are boundaries. The bounded system, or case, might be selected because it is an instance of some process, issue, or concern. The purpose of this bounded case study was to explore how school-based stakeholders implement school interventions to support the PPLs to cope with schooling. During literature study, I realised that school girl pregnancy is a complex subject which needs to involve all the key duty bearers. This was an incorporated, holistic study of a bounded nature as I obtained information from various sources such as school documents, FGI and individual interviews and literature studies conducted world-wide.

This study was multifaceted in the sense that I conducted the study in the four selected schools and did not only study the impact of school-based interventions on schoolgirl pregnancy, but also the effect of schoolgirl pregnancy on teaching and learning. This means I studied three dimensions or layers in one study, the first layer being the school-based interventions and their effects on schoolgirl pregnancy; the second layer was the effect of schoolgirl pregnancy on teaching while the third layer was the effect of school girl
pregnancy on learning. This shows that the study was multi-dimensional or a bounded case study.

This study was functionally effective because the education school-based stakeholders were available; the challenge of school girl pregnancy prevailing in their schools and evidence were accessible on how the school-based interventions were formulated and implemented and their impact on teaching and learning of PPLs. Relevant participants were available, and they richly responded to the research questions and the objectives of the study.

4.5 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

Data in this study were obtained from school documents such as; attendance registers, pregnancy monitoring registers and also from participants during both individual and focus group interviews. I studied the school documents in detail and then sampled the PPLs, mainstream learners and the class teachers. At first I used the school documents to sample PPLs and I experienced challenges and I used snowball sampling to select PPLs. SGB members were selected by virtue of them being school governors. The SGB members selected were parents. SMT members were selected because of their professional duty as school management and PMTs were selected because of their delegated duty as monitors of pregnant learners. Before conducting interviews, I explained to all the participants that the purpose of the inquiry was to examine the school-based interventions into the negative effects of schoolgirl pregnancy on teaching and learning. I tried to build trust with all participants by having several debriefing meetings with them before the interviews. Anonymity was assured because I wanted all participants to feel free to give their honest views.

4.5.1 Study Population

According to Bertram (2004:64), research population is defined as the total number of people or groups or organisations which could be included in a study. McMillan and
Schumacher (2001:489) add that population is defined as a group of individuals or events from which a sample is drawn and to which results can be generalised. Babbie and Mouton (2001:173) define population as the theoretically specified aggregation of study elements. The population of this study consisted of PPLs who were still attending school full-time, mainstream learners, SGBs, SMTs, PMTs and class teachers of PPLs from secondary schools in the Mopani District of Limpopo Province, South Africa. SGBs, SMTs, PMTs, class teachers of PPLs and mainstream learners were selected as the study population because they affect PPLs’ education.

4.5.2 Sampling Method and Study Sample

This section presents sampling procedures, sampling approaches and their suitability to this study. It also discusses study samples as well as data collection procedures and instruments. Quality criteria measures and ethical considerations are also discussed. Sampling is defined as a process that is employed to choose a fraction of the population for a study (Maree, 2011:79). Sampling refers to the researcher’s process of selecting the sample from the population for the purpose of obtaining data pertaining the phenomenon in such a manner that the population of interest is represented (Grix, 2004:132). According to Bertram (2004:64), sampling involves making decisions about which people, settings, events or behaviours to observe. In this study, I selected participants that were representative of the population that I aimed to draw conclusion from. From each secondary school, I selected one SMT member, five SGB members, two PPLs, two PMTs, two class teachers and five mainstream learners as sample.

The process of sampling started with identifying the four secondary schools which were relevant to the study. After being given approval to conduct the study by the University Higher Degrees Committee at the University of Venda and being granted permission by the Mopani District Department of Education, I visited the district office. I studied the district records on learner pregnancy then I chose the four circuits, namely, Shamavunga, Nsami, Klein Letaba and Mamaila. From the circuit records on learner pregnancy, I sampled one secondary school from each circuit which had a high rate of learner
pregnancy. The selection of research participants at schools of study was done after the identification of research sites.

4.5.2.1 Identification of study sites
The sampled participants were able to provide suitable data for this study. The selection of participants was based on a strictly set criteria. I sampled the four schools from different circuits to able to understand the interventions implemented by different schools from different circuits. I wanted to obtain rich information which enabled me to compare and contrast findings from different schools. I sampled four schools in order to obtain diverse data from different schools which were located from different villages where participants’ attitudes and perceptions towards learner pregnancy were different.

4.5.2.2 Identification and selection of study participants
According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007:110-117), there are two main methods of sampling, namely, probability and non-probability sampling. In probability sampling, the chances of members of the wider population being selected are known, whereas in non-probability sample the chances of members of the wider population being selected are unknown. Non-probability sampling is the selectivity which derives from the researcher targeting a particular group, in the full knowledge that it does not represent the wider population; it simply represents itself (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007:113). This study employed non-probability sampling. Before describing and justifying how I used each of these sampling approaches in my study, it is important to firstly define and characterise what each of them entails. The different types of non-probability sampling commonly used by researchers are briefly discussed below.

4.5.2.2.1 Criterion sampling
Criterion sampling implies that the researcher decides on the design stage of the study the typical characteristics of the participants to be included (criteria to be met) and the number of participants (Maree, 2011:79-80). Criteria include age, place of residence, gender, class, profession and others. The criteria chosen assists in selecting the
participants (Maree, 2011:79-80). The criterion sampling was not suitable to my study because I sampled my study participants based on the knowledge of the topic under study. I sampled the PPLs based on their experiences of being pregnant or parenting while still at school and continuing with schooling full time in formal schools.

4.5.2.2.2 Convenience sampling

Convenience sampling is also referred as accidental or opportunity sampling (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007:113-114). It involves choosing the nearest individuals to serve as participants or respondents and continuing that process until the required sample size has been obtained or those who happen to be available and accessible at the time (Cohen, Manion & Morrison: 2007:113-114). Convenience sampling was not suitable to my study because I sampled study participants based on their lived experiences relating to the topic under study. Participants were sampled based on their knowledge on the subject under study not on the opportunistic availability of participants.

4.5.2.2.3 Snowball sampling

This is also known as chain referral sampling. The researcher identifies a small number of individuals who further link them to others who have the same characteristics and qualify for inclusions. This type of sampling is used to find hidden populations or a group which is difficult to access by researchers through other strategies of sampling (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007:116). I found this kind of sampling suitable to my study because I had limited access to the PPLs because of the sensitive nature of the topic. Although I had permission to conduct research and full access to research sites and direct contact to SGBs, SMTs, PMTs, class teachers and mainstream learners, PPLs were a hidden population. The majority were not willing to participate in the study. Some attended first meetings but withdrew before the interviews, so I had to use snowball sampling. I first contacted the PPLs who were willing to participate in the study who then linked me to other PPLs who were also willing to participate in the study.
4.5.2.2.4 Suitability and applicability of snowball sampling

Besides the purposive sampling, this study also used snowball sampling to select the PPLs. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007:116) state that in snowball sampling, researchers identify a small number of individuals who have the characteristics they are interested in. They further indicate that the first selected people are used as informants to identify or put the researcher in touch with others who qualify for inclusion and these in turn identify yet others. Snowball sampling was suitable for this study because the topic was based on a sensitive topic. At first, I used purposive sampling to select PPLs but I experienced challenges as some PPLs whom I sampled attended the first meeting then withdrew themselves before interviews. I had to go back to sample another PPLs and to re-do the sampling processes and procedures. I ended up considering snowball sampling to select PPLs. I identified only one PPL who decided to come out in public and who then referred me to similar participants who were willing to be part of the research. The snowball sampling upheld the confidentiality of PPLs, who were interviewed individually.

4.5.2.2.5 Purposive sampling

Purposive sampling means that participants are selected because of characteristics which define them as holders of information that is crucial for the study. It is a method of sampling which is adopted in special circumstances in which the sampling is undertaken with a particular purpose of focus. (Maree, 2011:79). The researcher chooses the sample (participants) for a specific purpose. The participants are selected according to pre-selected criteria relevant to a particular research question (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007:116). Purposive sampling was suitable to my study as study participants were selected because of defining characteristics that made them the holders of data needed for this study. Participants were selected because they were presently delegated, elected and serving in the committee or body that plays an important role in implementing education policies on learner pregnancy in schools. The sample was used for the explicit purpose of obtaining the richest possible source of information to answer the research questions. All the selected participants played roles in supporting the PPLs to cope with schooling and therefore were suitable participants in the study.
4.5.2.2.6 The suitability of purposive sampling to study

The four schools were not chosen as quantitative representations, but were selected because they provided rich and relevant data as all of them had high rates of PPLs as recorded in Mopani District. In this regard, the purposive sampling was selected because participants were “likely to be knowledgeable and informative about the phenomenon the researcher is investigating” (Macmillan & Schumacher, 2006:319).

The sampled participants were able to provide suitable data for this study. I was aware that it does not represent a group apart from itself and did not seek to generalise to a wider population (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007:114). Purposive sampling ensures that relevant data are collected for the intended purpose. In this study, I selected participants according to the pre-selected criteria relevant to my research question. From each secondary school the following participants were purposively sampled: one SMT member, five SGB members, two PPLs, two PMTs, two class teachers and five mainstream learners to participate because of their wide experiences and acquired knowledge of the topic under study. The study participants were sampled based on the fact that by virtue of their status, they were presently delegated, elected and serving in the school committee or body that plays significant role in implementing education policies on learner pregnancies and Learners Code of Conduct in schools.

4.5.3 Study of School Documents

Document analysis involves reading lots of written material, relating to some aspects of the social world (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:106). After gathering data from documents inclusive of attendance registers and pregnancy monitoring registers, I sampled the PPLs, mainstream learners and class teachers. In the school documents, I studied issues of concern by PPLs such as school attendance, types of school indiscipline focussing mainly on offences committed such as, absence during morning and afternoon studies, enrichment classes, incomplete or no submission of school work, late coming and others.
The pregnancy monitoring register, attendance register, and records of school discipline were studied between 2017 and June 2018.

At first I planned to use purposive sampling to select PPLs, but later realised that purposive sampling was not effective. Before I changed to snowball sampling, I first selected the PPLs whose names appeared in the pregnancy monitoring register. I noted their ages, grades and the period they were pregnant and when they had given birth. Secondly, I studied the attendance register and noted PPLs whose names appeared most in the attendance register because of absenteeism not during the state or period when they were pregnant or three months after giving birth, but three months after they had given birth. After studying the two school documents, I further studied the records of school discipline. From the records of school discipline, I noted the PPLs whose names appeared most. They committed offences like late coming, incomplete or no submission of school work, not attending enrichment classes etc. The records of school discipline did not absolutely help me to sample the two sampled PPLs at the school because some PPLs were not willing to participate and accepted to participate but withdrew before the interviewing process. After getting one willing PPL, I considered snowball sampling for other PPLs. Regarding the class teachers, I sampled the class teachers who had many PPLs recorded in the pregnancy monitoring register.

The sampled mainstream learners were two class representatives (class prefects or class monitors), a boy and a girl, by virtue of the powers vested in them to manage and maintain order in the class. The other three mainstream learners were selected because their names appeared in the class records kept by class teachers as reported by the class representatives. Their names were frequentoned in the class representative records regarded as minor manageable misbehaviour (conflicting with one or many PPLs) being attended or handled by class teachers. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2001:138), in purposive sampling, the researcher selects particular elements from the population that will be informative about the topic of interest.
According to Maree (2011:79), the success of purposive sampling is when the data review and analysis are done in conjunction with data collection. After gathering information from the documents of the four selected high schools, purposive sampling was used to select the study participants.

4.6 THE STUDY SAMPLE

The study sample was used for the explicit purpose of obtaining the richest possible source of information to answer the research question. During sampling, gender and age of participants were also considered. The reason for this was to compare and contrast their attitudes and perceptions towards learner pregnancy based on gender and age. The participants were selected because of their defining characteristics that made them holders of the data needed for this study.

4.6.1 School Governing Bodies (SGB) Members

The SGBs were sampled because they are duty bearers. The SGB members selected were the parent component. By the virtue of powers vested on them, SGBs are responsible for adopting the Learners` Code of Conduct. The Learners` Code of Conduct makes provisions for management and prevention of learner pregnancy as mandated by SASA 84 of 1996. The SGBs also ensured that the managing of schools took place within the frameworks of SASA and the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. The SGBs participated in focus group interviews (see Appendix 5).

4.6.2 School Management Team (SMTs) Members

Members of SMT include the principal, deputy principal, Head of Departments (HODs), senior teachers and co-opted members. The members of the SMT were sampled because of their professional roles. The SMTs manage the whole school including PPLs on a daily basis. The SMTs are policy implementers. The SMTs must ensure that education policies, legislations, measures are implemented including the policy on
Management Prevention of learner Pregnancy 2007. The SMT implement the Learners Code of Conduct as adopted by the SGB. The SMTs participated in focus group interviews (see Appendix 7).

4.6.3 Pregnant Monitoring Teachers (PMTs)

The PMTs were selected based on the fact that by virtue of their status, they were presently delegated, elected and serving in the committee that plays an important role in supporting PPLs. The PMTs are teachers given the responsibility to monitor pregnant learners. The PMTs play a vital role in implementing education policies and Learners Code of Conduct in schools. The PMTs keep pregnancy monitoring register and they also attend to all the pregnancy-related cases in the school. The PMTs participated in individual interviews (see Appendix 9).

4.6.4 Class Teachers

Class teachers are directly in charge of teaching and interacting with their learners, including the PPLs in class, and also during extra-curricular activities. The class teachers teach and manage their classes in accordance with the Learner`s Code of Conduct. The class teachers are responsible for monitoring and marking class attendance registers on a daily basis. Class teachers participated in individual interviews (see Appendix 8).

4.6.5 Mainstream Learners

Two mainstream learners were selected because they were class representatives (class prefects or class monitors), a boy and a girl by virtue of the powers vested in them to manage and maintain order in the class. The other three mainstream learners were selected because they are classmates of the PPLs. They learn and play together while at school on daily basis. Mainstream learners participated in focus group interviews (see Appendix 6).
4.6.6 Pregnant and Parenting Learners (PPLs)

The PPLs were selected because they had the experience of being pregnant or parenting while at school. They were the most affected participants of the study. They are the reason for this academic study. PPLs participated in individual interviews (see Appendix 10).

The study sample was therefore, comprised of the following categories of participants from each of the four schools:

- Five members from the SGB and mainstream learners participated in focus group interviews because they were not directly affected by the topic under study. The total number of SGB members was twenty.
- Two PMTs were selected to participate in individual interviews because of their individual experiences of the topic under study. The total number of PMTs was eight.
- Two class teachers were selected to participate in individual interviews because of their specific experiences of the topic under study. The total number of class teachers was eight.
- One SMT member was selected to participate in individual interviews because of the sensitivity of the topic under study. The total number of SMT members was four.
- Five mainstream learners were selected to participate in focus group interviews because they were not directly affected by the topic under study. Total number of mainstream learners was twenty.
- Two PPLs from each were selected to participate in individual interviews because of the sensitivity of the topic under study. They were the reason for this academic study. The total number of PPLs was eight.

There was disaggregation by gender done for the study participants to achieve a fair reflection of the views of the male and female domains. Therefore, a distinction was
provided on the views of female and male participants in each one of the categories above, except the category of the PPLs.

**Table 4.1: The Summary of Sampled Study Participants**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Sampling Method</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Data Gathering Instrument</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SGB members</td>
<td>Purposive</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Focus group interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mainstream learners</td>
<td>Purposive</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Focus group interviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMT members</td>
<td>Purposive</td>
<td>04</td>
<td>Individual interviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PMTs</td>
<td>Purposive</td>
<td>08</td>
<td>Individual interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class Teachers</td>
<td>Purposive</td>
<td>08</td>
<td>Individual interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PPLs</td>
<td>Snowball</td>
<td>08</td>
<td>Individual interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>68</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.7 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS AND PROCEDURES

The study employed a combination of focus group interviews, face-to-face interviews and document analysis to gather data in a qualitative case study design. According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2011:171), the basic idea of collecting data in any research study is to gather information to address the questions being asked in the study. The combined use of instruments for collecting data was made to obtain data saturation through broadening the perceptions of participants (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007:133). In-depth interviews through semi-structured questions and focus group interviews were undertaken to gather narrative data from selected study subjects. A review of documents such as Learners` Code of Conduct, learners` attendance registers and pregnancy monitoring register was done to gather textual data. This research was most strongly devoted to capturing the uniqueness of events (Yin, 2016:20).
4.7.1 Document Analysis Guide

McMillan and Schumacher (2006:319) state that an analysis of documents is a method of collecting data which is non-interactive and involving the investigation of cases by reviewing artefacts of collections from archives such as photos, diaries, minutes of meetings, video clips and other types of records in organisations. Document analysis involves reading lots of written material, relating to some aspects of the social world (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:106). This study used the pregnancy monitoring register, attendance register and records of school discipline. From the pregnancy monitoring register, attendance register and records of school discipline, I studied the information recorded between 2017 and June 2018. The attendance register helped me to determine trends in their school attendance before, during and after pregnancy. From the school records, I noted the following: names of PPLs, age, grade, frequency of their names, and nature of their offences, particularly related to absenteeism, incomplete or no submission of school work, late coming, attendance of morning and afternoon studies, enrichment classes etc.

I also studied administrative documents such as the Learners` Code of Conduct of the four secondary schools to get a deeper understanding of what and how school interventions were formulated and implemented at schools. When studying the Learners Code of Conduct, I strongly considered the fact that the Learners` Code of Conduct must have provisions for management of learner pregnancy as mandated by SASA No. 84 of 1996. In the administrative documents or Learners` Code of Conduct under the section which deals with management of learner pregnancy, the following were noted: conditions of managing learner pregnancy, responsible people in managing learner pregnancy, roles of school-based stakeholders, how learner pregnancy is managed, involving of community support systems in managing of learner pregnancy and other related matters (see Appendix 11).

The implementation of policy by the duty bearers such as SMTs, SGBs and educators and policy right bearers (learners including PPLs) crucial as a variable that could influence
the way in which a specific policy might be implemented effectively to realise desired goals. I used those school documents to sample the PPLs and class teachers based on the records from 2017 to June 2018.

4.7.2 Interviews as a Data Collection Instrument

Since my study is qualitative one, I used interviews to gather information from the participants. An interview is a two-way conversation in which the individual that conducts the interview raises questions to gather data as well as learn more about the views, beliefs, behaviours, opinions and ideas of the interviewee (Maree, 2011:87). An interview is a conversation between the researcher and the respondent (Bertram, 2004:86). Kvale (1996:14) describes an interview as interchange of views between two or more people on a topic of mutual interest, sees the centrality of human interaction for knowledge production, and emphasises the social situatedness of research data. Qualitative interviews seek to perceive the world through the lenses of the researched and might be a significant source of data when used appropriately. The purpose is to generate descriptive data that is rich to help the researcher to grasp the way in which the participants construct knowledge as well as social reality (Maree, 2011:87).

Hancock (1998:9) identifies two types of interviews, namely; structured interview and semi structured interview.

4.7.2.1 Structured interview

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007:273) assert that a structured interview is one in which the content and procedures are organised in advance. These authors further say the sequence and wording of the questions are determined by means of a schedule and the interviewer is left with little freedom to make modifications. For this study, structured interviews were not suitable because structured interviews are rigid. Structured interviews do not allow the researcher to be flexible by probing and making some follow up
questions. Structured interviews are based on a tightly structured schedule of questions whereas my study used semi-structured interview which had no rigid questions.

4.7.2.2 Semi-structured interviews

In this study semi-structured interviews were used to gather data. According to Maree (2016:93), semi-structured interviews are usually adopted in research investigations to corroborate information which emerges from other sources of data (Maree, 2016:93). Semi-structured questions are phrased to allow unique responses from each interviewee (Macmillan & Schumacher, 2001:40). The advantage of using a semi-structured interview is that it allows both the interviewer and the respondent the flexibility to probe for details or discuss issues and also allows new questions to be brought up during the interview (Maree, 2011:87).

Semi-structured interviews suited this research as I was studying multiple case studies (four secondary schools) to ensure consistency and they were not overly structured as a result, they allowed probing. I conducted both the focus group and the semi-structured individual face-to-face interviews successfully because throughout the interviewing process, I seriously considered the data gathering techniques. Individual interview schedules were used (see Appendix 7 to Appendix 10) and focus group interviews (Appendix 5 and Appendix 6). Throughout the interviews, I was attentive to the responses of the participants. This enabled me to identify new emerging lines of inquiry that were directly related to this study. This enabled me to deeply explore and probe issues (Maree, 2011:87). The interviews were audio-taped after permission was granted by the participants to use an audio tape. Notes to support the recordings on issues that cannot be captured orally, and observations were noted during the interviews, especially with regard to non-verbal cues.
4.7.2.3  Focus group interviews

I also used a focus group interview to collect narrative data. Focus group discussions are a qualitative data gathering method. According to Robson, Shannon, Goldenhar and Hale (2001:69), a focus group is an interview with a small group of people interviewed together rather than only one person. For this study, I employed focus group interviews with SGBs and mainstream learners, each group consisted of five people. Focus group interviews assisted me to triangulate data collection methods, such as face to face interviews and document analysis used in the study.

The study opted to use focus group interviews as the main instrument for the research as most participants were involved, that is; the SGBs and mainstream learners. As indicated in Chapter Three, teenage girls who become pregnant face humiliation and discrimination in their schools, families, communities and the organisations that are supposed to help them. Because of the negative attitudes of people towards teenage pregnancy, I regarded the PPLs that participated in this study as a group of marginalised individuals devoid of power to use in advocating for their own rights. I therefore, employed focus group interviews to collect information on the experiences and views of people that interacted with them, that is; the SGBs and mainstream learners.

Marshall and Rossman (2006:36) argue that participants in a focus group discussion are people who have been selected because they share certain characteristics which are relevant to the topic to be discussed. In this study, focus group interviews were used to gather views, attitudes and knowledge of members from the SGBs and mainstream learners. Open-ended questions and interview schedules were designed to assist in the interview process (Appendices 5-10). The makeup of each interview group was homogenous with regards to authority differences or status differences. I took care to ensure the various categories of individuals fell into separate focus groups. For instance, SGB members did not mix with the mainstream learners.

The focus group interview was appropriate to the SGBs and mainstream learners because they were not emotionally or personally affected by the issue being studied.
They were able to share their experiences freely. The selected participants served as informants and were able to build on each other’s ideas and comments to provide an in-depth view not attainable from individual views (Maree, 2016:96). This strategy was useful in broadening the spectrum of responses and retrieving hidden details about their experiences.

I attained unexpected comments and new perspectives easily within focus groups. Participants were agreeing, supporting, adding and sometimes opposing each other within the category or opposing themselves during the discussions. The disadvantage of focus group interviews is that participants may fail to congregate in the same place at the same time. I avoided this by continuously phoning the principals and the participants. I reminded each participant three days before the interviews and a day before the interviews.

The other disadvantage of a focus group interview was that the researcher may lack skills to conduct focus group interviews. In this study, I ensured that the focus group discussions were focused, and I managed the participants throughout the interviewing process so that the desired data were obtained. I introduced the topic to the focus group participants. Then I set rules which I explained, and the participants were given time to ask questions for clarity based on the set rules. After discussing the sets rules the participants gave me permission to start conducting the interviews. An example of the rules was speaking turns. Each participant was given enough chance to share his or her views. Participants were told to talk in turns. In this way, I managed the over-talkative or outspoken participants and stimulate the reticent ones without influencing or biasing the group discussions. Throughout the focus group interviews, I used an appropriate, but firm style in managing the focus group interviews. This was easy because we discussed the interviewing process, procedures and what was expected from them during interactive meetings. Having several meetings with participants helped me to manage the focus group interviews. Interview questions were clear, neutral and not leading questions. Throughout the interviewing process, I was following the interview schedules (Appendices 5-10).
4.7.2.4 Face-to-face individual interviews

In this study face-to-face interviews were used to collect narrative data. Creswell (2005:215) states that a face-to-face interview is a data collection process in which the researcher asks questions to and records answers from only one participant in a study at a time. Babbie and Mouton (2001:289) also assert that a face-to-face interview is an interaction between an interviewer and a participant in which the interviewer has a general plan of inquiry but not a specific set of questions that must be asked in particular words and in a particular order. In-depth face-to-face semi-structured individual interviews were employed to generate data from the four SMT members, eight class teachers, eight PMTs and eight PPLs because of the sensitive and personal nature of their experiences on this topic. I used the individualised semi-structured interviews for these categories of participants considering that my topic was a very sensitive in nature.

Open-ended question items and an interview schedule were designed to give guidance in the interview process (see Appendix 7 to Appendix 10). This enabled me to deeply explore the participants’ knowledge, views, ideas, beliefs and attitudes about management of school girl pregnancy and challenges faced in their schools. According to Gledhill, Abbey and Schweitzer (2008:85), accurately conducted interviews result in the researcher obtaining rich descriptive data that helps the researcher to understand the participant’s knowledge and social reality. The participants gave information that I could not have been able to collect in other ways. I was able to see the world through the eyes of the participants. The participants were the valuable source of information.

However, if the interviews are not conducted accurately, they result in several weaknesses. They are time and money consuming. Sometimes the participants may not trust the researcher and they may withdraw, get sick or die before the completion of the study (McNeill & Chapman, 2005:59). In this study, the weaknesses were avoided by doing the following: I clearly explaining to the participants and discussing the purpose of this study with the participants before conducting interviews. Interview questions were clear. Throughout the interviewing process, I was following the interview schedules.
(Appendices 5-10). I was a listener and not a judge throughout the interviewing process. The participants’ non-verbal communication was also noted.

An audio-tape was used for interviews and later transcribed the responses from participants and had to translate them from Xitsonga and Sepedi to English. According to Mcmillan and Schumacher (2006:225), tape recorders ensure completeness of the verbal interaction of the interviews and provide material for reliability checks. There was room for the clarification of questions or issues raised during the interview conversations. During interviews, I asked probing questions where necessary. The probing of the responses of participants added depth and motivated fresh and unique dimensions to be introduced in the conversations. It is essential for research data to be captured accurately. In all the interviews, I made sure there was accuracy in capturing of data through the use of a digital voice recorder. I sought the permission of the participants to record the proceedings of the interviews. Safety of the data was ensured by keeping the raw data in my computer and also in a memory stick to prevent it from any possible loss. I replayed the recorded script after every conversation with participants to allow them to cross check their responses.

I used the semi-structured interviews in this study to validate data emerging from school records. I first collected data from circuits and schools’ official records. I used circuit records to sample the four secondary schools which were having high rate of learner pregnancy between 2014-2017. Thereafter, focus group interviews were conducted thereafter I conducted the individual interviews. Semi-structured interviews allowed for the probing and clarification of answers. This created a better opportunity for me to get deeper insights and understanding of the lived experiences of the participants. I also avoided being side-tracked by insignificant aspects that are not related to the study, throughout the interviews, I guided the participants back to the focus of the interviews.
4.8 DATA ANALYSIS

The purpose of data analysis is to present and critique the data clearly, identify what is typical and atypical of the data, bring to light differences, relationships and other patterns existing in the data, and ultimately answer research questions or test hypotheses (Creswell, 2002:95). The inductive analysis of qualitative data were used because it was appropriate in analysing qualitative data, as it is usually based on an interpretative philosophy that is aimed at examining meaningful and symbolic content of gathered data (Patton, 1990:91). According Maree (2011:102), discourse analysis refers to expressing oneself using words and to the variety and flexibility of language is actually used in ordinary interaction. Discourse analysis is concerned with studying and analysing written text and spoken words to reveal the discursive sources of power, dominance, inequality and bias, and how these sources initiated, maintained, reproduced and transformed within specific social, economic, political and historical contexts (Maree, 2011:102).

Hermeneutic analysis provides the way of understanding or making meaning of textual data (Maree, 20:101). In this study, I gathered textual data from school documents such as attendance registers, pregnancy registers and learners code of conduct. I analysed the textual data to get meaning of what exactly was prevailing the challenges faced by education stake-holders in assisting PPLs to cope with their studies in the four selected secondary schools. I analysed both textual data from the school documents and the narrative data from the audio-recorded interviews. Therefore, in this study, the analysis of data and the related interpretation were intimately related to the data collecting process. Data were transcribed soon after every interview session. The perceptions that emerged from my mind were intrinsically related to the collected data. I also observed the way in which non-interactive information from the records at schools related to interactive data which collected from the conducted interviews.

Themes were generated from the views of the PPLs, mainstream learners, class teachers, PMTs, SGBs and SMTs on how school-based interventions were implemented
to support PPLs cope with schooling. I coded the data and conducted content analysis by looking for specific words from which themes were identified. Data collected were analysed manually by looking for categories of responses emerging from it. I applied content analysis to give meaning to the collected data even though discourse analysis and the hermeneutic approach are generally applicable in inductive data interpretation. According to Maree (2011:101) content analysis concerns a logical approach to data analysis with an ability to identify and summarise the content of the message. It makes inferences on the content of views expressed by study participants. In this study, content analysis included the establishment of codes, breaking down data into themes and categories that could be used to constitute findings of the study (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:174; Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2006:358). Content analysis enabled me to manage huge volumes of verbatim statements, to locate and monitor consistencies as well as changes in the perceptions of participants (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007:197). Hesse-Biber and Leavy, (2006: 358-360) observe that the data coding process involves three main stages of data preparation, exploration and specification.

4.8.1 Data Preparation

This concerns creating a data base to store transcribed data in its initial state (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2006:358). I recorded non-verbal information such as gestures, the atmosphere during interviews and the emotions which emerged in the interaction with the participants. The compilation of field notes greatly assisted me in engaging with the collected data. This was done through listening to the recorded voices and reading and re-reading my field notes. When preparing data, I also kept in mind the research questions and objectives of the study.

I transcribed the entire data of the four schools from voice to word by myself. I deeply engaged with the collected data. I listened to the oral data, studied, read and re-read, transcribed and then translated. Throughout data preparation, I checked that there was correspondence between oral and written words. I took note of the differences and
similarities in the data and tried to identify and understand the hidden information in that data.

4.8.2 Data Exploration

According to Marshall and Rossman (2006: 36), the analysis of data begins at the stage involving an examination of transcribed data to obtain a sense of that data as guided by the questions and objectives of the research. This is concerned with coding of data to establish themes as well as categories. According to Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2006:349), coding is a strategy of analysing data that many researchers employ to help them identify main concepts, patterns, themes and ideas which may exist in the collected data. My research data was organised to form categories and themes. I used open-coding. The written transcripts were open-coded through analysing word for one and line by line in order to identify themes and categories that emerge from the data (Table 5.1).

The general categories of data were based on the general patterns of what the participants had said during the interviews. During coding, I looked at the similarities and differences between the participants in the same category. For example, the views of the PPLs from the same school were equated and compared with the views of the other PPLs from other three schools. Throughout the analysis I considered that my sampled schools were from four different circuits of Mopani district. I also considered participants' social and cultural values that could positively or negatively influence their perceptions. The identified categories and themes helped me to derive conclusions from the research as well as compare the findings of this study with similar studies as discussed in details in Chapter Three.

4.8.3 Data Specification

The use of inductive analysis of qualitative data was appropriate in my study because qualitative analysis of data tends to be rooted in an interpretative philosophy which is focused on the examination of meaningful and symbolic data content (Marshall &
Rossman, 2006:36). Inductive research is a research in which theory is developed from the observation of empirical reality, general inferences induced from particular instances. It involves moving from individual observations to statements of general patterns or laws. It entails moving from the specific to general (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005:54).

In the context of this study, I observed that the rate of school girl pregnancy was high in Mopani District and this high prevalence of school girl pregnancy was confirmed by circuit records. I thoroughly studied school-based interventions on effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning to gain a deeper understanding of how they were implemented. I studied the school documents and conducted the interviews, from the collected textual and narrative data and concluded that despite school-based interventions, school girl pregnancy had negative effect on learning needs of PPLs.

4.9 QUALITY CRITERIA MEASURES

The researcher is a data gathering instrument in qualitative research (Maree, 2011:79; Merriam, 2009:15). In a qualitative study, validity and reliability refer to the research that is credible and trustworthy. According to Lincoln and Guba (2005:991), trustworthiness is the ability of the researcher to persuade the readers that the outcomes of the study are of high quality and that they are worth giving attention. These criteria measures include credibility, applicability, dependability and conformability.

4.9.1 Piloting Interview Schedules as a Quality Criteria Measure

According to Grix (2004:174-175), a pilot study is a small-scale study conducted prior to the main study on a limited number of participants from the population at hand. The purpose of a pilot study is to investigate the feasibility of the proposed study and to detect possible flaws in the methodology of the proposed study. The pilot study enabled me to conduct the interviews successfully. During the pilot interviews, I asked the participants actual questions and allowed them to indicate how they had interpreted the formulated questions. This helped me to make adjustments before the actual interviews to make
sure that I was accommodated as an ordinary person, a mother and a concerned high school teacher rather than a researcher or intruder.

The pilot interview also helped me to position myself as a researcher taking into consideration the participants’ cultural endowment. The pilot study enabled me to improve the interview questions and in some cases to rephrase some of the questions. I was also able to identify unclear or ambiguous instructions. The pilot study enabled me to set enough time for the participants and to manage time during interview proceedings. Piloting also helped to identify non-verbal behaviour on the part of the participants, particularly the PPLs. In addition, I was able to take note of embarrassing questions or questions which made the PPLs uncomfortable, and as a result, I was able to modify the wording of some of the questions.

The four key criteria of trustworthiness of qualitative studies, namely credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability are briefly discussed below.

4.9.2 Credibility of the Study

According to McMillan and Schumacher (2001:102), credibility is the extent to which the results approximate reality and are judged to be accurate and reasonable. Credibility refers to a concern that the conclusion of the study emerges from the collected data. A credible study is one that provides assurance that you have properly collected and interpreted the data, so that the findings and conclusions accurately reflect and represent the world that was studied (Yin, 2016:85). To ensure credibility, I used multiple instruments and sources to collect data inclusive of triangulation as a way of cross-checking the consistency and accuracy of the generated information.

I used a combination of various research instruments and sources of data such as document evidence, participants falling into separate categories, individual interviews and focus group interviews to verify the responses of participants and attain thick descriptions and saturation of data. To improve trustworthiness, these multiple
methods were used to collect data. Triangulation also helped to detect any discrepancies. In a qualitative approach, there is the primary research instrument. To overcome biases, I used multiple methods to collect data. I used school documents to collect textual data such as attendance register, pregnancy monitoring register and learners’ code of conduct. I also used both focus group interviews and face-to-face individual interviews to collect narrative data. I was guided by interview schedule (Appendices 5-10) throughout the interviews.

After conducting the interviews, I also employed member-checking (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:102). Member-checking allows participants to check the accuracy of the data they contributed to the researcher before it is constituted into a final report. Member-checking enabled the participants to make comments regarding data interpretations, findings as well as conclusions on my research findings (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:102). The participants were given the opportunity to listen to the recorded texts to enable them to effect needed adjustments in the form of clarifications, comments, additions and corrections concerning their initial contributions. In addition, verbatim transcription from voice to word scripts was done and participants were allowed to comment on my interpretations of their personal experiences. Follow-up interviews were used to explore themes that I had noted in my field work notes. By the end of the study, my knowledge was expanded on the relevant intervention strategies on the negative effects of schoolgirl pregnancy on teaching and learning were developed.

To safeguard my research credibility, I allowed my promoters to observe and assess my data collection instruments, research procedures, detailed field notes and raw data. These meetings helped me to check for possible biases and contradictions that may have crept into the research endeavour. Their comments from the consultation were recorded and I went back to review or rephrase my research instruments. I tried by all means to avoid bias by maintaining a clear distinction between the responses of the participants and my own interpretation of issues.
4.9.3 Transferability of Study Results

Transferability has to do with transmitting or generalising the results of a study to other contexts (Gay & Airasian, 2003:246). According to Grix (2004:173), transferability refers to the ability to apply the findings in other contexts or to other participants. Since the research was a case study involving only four schools, I am unable to generalise study findings to all the schools in South Africa. However, the findings of this study can be transferred to schools and participants whose descriptions tally with those provided in the study.

To improve transferability, I presented a detailed process of how the study was conducted. A rich description of the four schools, their background, socio-culture and school ethos, the interview rooms and general environment of the schools were discussed. Further, I also outlined a rich description of the criteria that were used to select participants. Findings of the study, as recorded in the tape-recorder, were accurately defined in the form of themes and detailed explanations.

4.9.4 Dependability of the Research Instruments

Dependability refers to how carefully the researcher has selected data collection instruments and research sites to suit the research questions and the objectives of the study (Gay & Airasian, 2003:247). Grix (2004:172) defines dependability as the provision of evidence such that if it were to be repeated with the same or similar participants in the same or similar context, its findings would be the same. According to Durrheim and Wassenaar (2002:64), dependability refers to the extent to which the audience can be convinced that the findings of the study occurred as the researcher actually endeavours to account for them. Following this advice, care was exercised in selecting, describing and applying the research instruments in collecting data to address the research questions and objectives. I also kept a record in my reflective journal in order to ensure accuracy in the collection and interpretation of data. I also employed member checking to improve the quality of qualitative data. The purpose of doing member
checks is to eliminate researcher’s bias when analysing and interpreting the results. I also discussed the gathered narratives with the participants to ensure that they were accurate and dependable (Creswell, 2002:186). During the interviews, the verbal and non-verbal cues of the participants were captured in detail. The maintenance of a reflective journal and careful choice of research instruments helped me to guard against bias for objective presentation of data from participants.

4.9.5 Conformability of the Findings

According to Merriman (2009:217), conformability means ensuring that the data findings truly represent the views of the respondents, perspectives or meanings rather than the views and understanding of the researcher. In the same vein, Grix says conformability relates to the potential for congruency of data in relation to relevance, meaning and accuracy. It is concerned with establishing whether the data represented the views which were obtained from the participants and that the interpretation of the data was not fuelled by the researcher’s imagination and that the data reflects the voice of the participants. Conformability guarantees that the findings, conclusions and recommendations are supported by the data and that there is internal agreement between the investigator`s interpretation and the actual evidence (Grix, 2004:172-173).

Cohen, Manion and Morrisons (2007:133) assert that:

In qualitative data, validity might be addressed through the honesty, depth, richness and scope of the data achieved, the participants approached, the extent of triangulation and the disinterestedness or objectivity of the researcher.

In this study, verbatim transcriptions from audio-recordings to written scripts was one way through which I made sure that the actual views of participants are captured correctly. I explained and emphasised the voluntary involvement of participants prior to engaging in
the data collection process. I made preliminary discussions with the participants to explain the objectives, expected outputs and the nature of the study.

Conformability was ensured by prolonged engagement at the study sites. I first interacted with the selected participants when I gave them consent forms (see Appendix 1 to Appendix 4). I clarified the study purpose to the participants by providing a short problem statement and describing the type of information I was interested in collecting. In this study, I had several meetings with the participants after getting permission from the principals. First I had a discussion meeting with the sampled participants to introduce myself and the research study. I had my second meeting with the participants and handed consent forms to adult participants and parents or guardians of the PPLs and mainstream learners. During the third visit, signed consent forms were collected, orientation and third discussion meetings with the participants were also held. These discussions included building of trust, explaining of the purpose of the study and procedures to be followed when conducting the interviews and ethical considerations.

To ensure conformability, the research findings were scrutinised and analysed, and self-critical accounts were considered. Data were recorded accordingly, interpreted and presented correctly and accurately and then my own perspectives and position were infused in the interpretation.

4.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS IN THE STUDY

Ethics is a matter associated with morality and ethical guidelines which serve as the standard and basis to evaluate one’s conduct. Individuals that are participate in a study should be clear about the generally agreed upon research ethics concerning what is moral and immoral in a research (Creswell, 2002:187-188). Since this study involved human subjects, procedures were followed to obtain ethical clearance for their participation. Below is a detailed discussion of the research ethics that was followed.
4.10.1 Permission to Conduct Research

I requested permission to conduct the study from the Mopani District (DoE), the four Circuit Managers and the principals of the four high schools where the study was conducted. The consent of the adult participants, that is; SGB members, SMT members, PMTs and class teachers were also obtained. Consent of parents or guardians of the selected PPLs and mainstream learners were also obtained before I started with the interviews. Throughout the research process, I followed and abided by ethical guidelines. I abided by the following ethical principles:

4.10.2 Informed Consent and Voluntary Participation

Informed consent is defined as procedures that individuals should consider prior to making decisions regarding their participation in a research project. Informed consent involved four elements, namely, competence, voluntarism, full information and comprehension (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007:52-53). In this study, I observed these four elements of informed consent:

4.10.2.1 Competence of study participants

Competence of the study participants implies that responsible, mature individuals will make correct decisions if they are given the relevant information. All the adult participants (SMT members, SGB members, PMTs and class teachers) were capable of making decisions to participate and consented. They were all mature and did not have psychological impairment. In the case of PPLs and mainstream learners, through the principals, I invited their parents or guardians to make decisions on behalf of their children. I personally explained the details of my study using vernacular language and they had the opportunity to seek clarity. After the, discussions, they willingly consented on behalf of their children.

Before the interviews, all participants were presented with a letter of consent in which the research process and roles of participants were explained. The participants were
also allowed to ask questions to gain clarity and signed the consent form before participating in the interviews. The details of the study were explained to all participants, including parents or guardians of PPLs and mainstream learners. Clarity seeking questions were asked and answered and consent letters to parents or guardians of PPLs and mainstream learners were distributed and PPLs and mainstream learners brought back the signed consent slips from their parents or guardians before their participation (see Appendix 4). Participants were given enough time (three days) to think about their participation before they signed their consent forms.

4.10.2.2 Voluntarism of study participants
Babbie and Mouton (2001:521) say that the norm of voluntary participation is important and no one should be forced to participate in a study. Voluntary participation by study participants entails applying the principle of informed consent and thus ensuring participants freely choose to take part or not in the research and guaranteeing that exposure to risk is undertaken knowingly and voluntarily. To this extent, I clearly explained to the participants that if they chose to participate but change their mind later, they will be allowed to withdraw at any time and stage in the study, without being asked any question. I explained to them in detail the purpose of the study and the procedures to be followed when conducting the interviews, the time to be taken for the interview processes, the use of voice recorder. This was done during our first meeting so that they could decide voluntarily to participate or not to participate in this study.

4.10.2.3 Giving full information to study participants
Bertram (2004:73) says consent of the participants is vital. Participants must all receive a clear explanation of what the research expects of them, so that they can make an informed choice to participate voluntarily in the research. When conducting research, giving full information implies that consent is fully informed. In this study, the purpose of the study, the procedures and the rules to be followed when conducting the interviews, time taken for interview processes, and the use of voice a recorder and other related things were explained in detail. I also explained to the participants their right to voluntary participation and non-participation, withdrawal from the project at any stage.
4.10.2.4 Comprehension by the study participants

Comprehension in research refers to the fact that participants fully understand the nature of the research project even when the procedures are complicated and entail risk. In this study, although I did not anticipate any physical harm, I anticipated some emotional pains. The literature review prepared me to anticipate emotional harm more, especially when interviewing the PPLs. I was so fortunate because the four villages in which I conducted my study had clinics. The clinics had other services such as social workers assigned to that community. Social workers’ offices were stationed at the clinics to render all the social services required by patients and the entire community. In addition to these services, the nurses and the social workers had their own programmes to visit primary and secondary schools around the villages. Before conducting these interviews, I consulted the local social workers and prepared them that I could make referrals if the need arose. In addition, I also ascertained that all the sampled participants gave their express voluntary willingness to participate in this study. Participants were once again reminded that they could withdraw from the study at any time during the process if they wished to do so.

4.10.3 Protection from Harm

The researcher must ensure that all participants in the research process are not exposed to unnecessary psychological or physical harm (Creswell, 2002:189). During this study, I was honest and respectful of the entire group of participants. Some participants required debriefing after an interview which I provided to the satisfaction of the participants. Although I did not anticipate physical harm, I anticipated emotional harm more, especially when interviewing the PPLs. However, no referrals to a professional were made during this research. Interviews were conducted in the office and there was no one else other than the researcher and the participants. I scheduled enough time for the interviewing process because some PPLs were hurt and their emotions were high. I had to pause for a while and asked whether they were willing to continue or not. I took a break and when the participant was ready, I continued.
4.10.4 Privacy, Confidentiality and Anonymity

The right to privacy covers information about an individual’s mental and physical condition, social relations as well as private circumstances that are not in the public sphere (Ethical Guidelines for the Institutional Review Committee for Research with Human Subjects, 1981). All the study participants and their sites or schools remained anonymous. Only the name of the district, which is Mopani, and the circuits, namely; Mamaila, Shamavunga, Nsami and Klein Letaba were known. All the collected data, both textual and narrative were treated in strict confidence. I explained their rights and obligations to confidentiality and non-disclosure of the research, participants and outcomes.

Where the participants needed debriefing, it was provided after interviews and considered member-checking. The participants were availed the chance to verify statements at the stage of drafting the report. In this study, the participants were clear about the confidentiality of the process as well as the findings of the study. All the information which was provided by participants during the study was kept in confidence and the results of the study were presented in an anonymous way to safeguard the identities of the participants.

Confidentiality implies that the researcher will not divulge the identities of individuals that contributed information even though they are able to link the provided data with a particular individual. The identities of individuals will not make the relationship known to the public while the boundaries around the shared secret will be protected. The essence of the matter is the extent to which investigators keep faith with those who helped them (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007:65). The essence of anonymity is that the information provided by participants should in no way reveal their identity (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007:64). I used descriptions which did not lead readers of this work to know exactly who the participants were. The four high schools were code-named as School A, School B, School C and School D, participants as members of School A, School B, School C and School D, learners and class teachers were identified by numbers that is: Class teacher
No.1 of School A and PPL No.2 of School B etc. The descriptions were non-traceable, and the identity of individuals’ responses were unrecognisable.

4.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the research design and methodology used in this study. A discussion of the three philosophical dimensions which are ontological, epistemological and methodological preferences was undertaken (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:22). Positivism, anti-positivism and critical paradigm were discussed as research paradigms. This study was underpinned by the critical paradigm because critical qualitative research focuses on societal critique in order to raise consciousness and empower people (education key duty bearers) to bring about change (Patton, 2002:131). I chose to employ a qualitative research method and a related qualitative research design to guide the collection of data to address the research questions (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007:10; McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:223). This study was a multiple case study of four secondary schools drawn from four circuits; Mamaila, Shamavunga, Nsami and Klein Letaba in Mopani District.

In this study, I used multiple sources such as school documents and interviews to collect rich data. I also studied the Learners` Code of Conduct of the four secondary schools to get a deeper understanding of what and how school interventions were formulated and implemented at schools. From each school, I used purposive sampling to select five SGB members, one SMT members, two PMTs, two class teachers and five mainstream learners. I also used snowball sampling to select two PPLs. I used focus group interview to collect data from SGB members and mainstream learners. I used individual face-to-face interviews to gather data from SMT, PMTs, class teachers and PPLs. I analysed both textual and narrative data. Data collected were analysed manually by looking for categories of responses emerging from the data (see Table 5.1).

I applied content analysis which allowed me to identify, summarise and make inferences on the content of views expressed by study participants. To ensure quality criteria
measures, I conducted a pilot study to help me to investigate the feasibility of the study and to detect possible flaws in the methodology of the study. In this study, credibility was ensured by employing a variety of sources of data as well as multiple instruments of data collection. I improved transferability by presenting a detailed process of how the study was conducted. In ensuring dependability, I carefully selected, described and applied the chosen research instruments and procedures for gathering data to respond to formulated research objectives and research questions. I also employed member checking and ensured conformability by prolonging engagement in the study sites.

Regarding ethical issues, the permission to conduct research was granted by the Mopani District (DoE), the four circuit managers and the principals of the four high schools (see Appendices 15-17). I presented informed consent letters to adult participants which were members from SGB, SMT, PMT and class teachers before the interview started. I also presented consent letters to PPLs and also to parents or guardians of both PPLs and mainstream learners. Regarding voluntary participation, I clearly explained to participants that if they chose to participate in the study but decide to change their mind later, they were allowed to withdraw at any time and stage. Although I did not anticipate physical harm, I anticipated emotional harm, particularly when interviewing the PPLs. No referrals to a professional were made during this study because after taking a break during the course of the interviews, the affected PPL indicated that they are comfortable and ready to continue with interviews. I also made follow-ups on the PPLs during the stage of member-checking and found that they did not have trauma. In this study, I strived to be honest and respectful to all participants. All the study participants and their schools remained anonymous. Furthermore, I explained their rights and obligations to confidentiality and non-disclosure of the research, participants and outcomes.
CHAPTER FIVE

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This study sought to examine the impact of interventions used by school-based education stake-holders that is; School Governing Bodies (SGBs), School Management Teams (SMTs), Pregnant Monitoring Teachers (PMTs) and class teachers of pregnant and parenting learners (PPLs) to manage the teaching and learning of PPLs in the four selected secondary schools of Mopani District in the Limpopo Province. SGB comprises of teachers, parents, support staff and learners (in case of secondary schools). The previous chapter discussed the research paradigms, the research methodology, strategies for generating data as well as data analysis and interpretation. This chapter presents and analyses data that emerged from the study. A qualitative approach in which data were collected through a study of documentary evidence obtained from the four schools’ offence record books and interviews was applied. A summary of study participants, interviewed individually and in focus groups is presented in Table 4.1 in the previous chapter.

I was guided by my research objectives to come up with the emerging themes from the collected data. The specific objectives of this study were to:

- Explore the effects of learner pregnancy on teaching and learning,
- Explore the interventions that schools used to support PPLs cope with their schooling,
- Examine the effectiveness of the interventions used to assist PPLs by schools,
- Explain challenges faced by schools in supporting PPLs cope with schooling.

This chapter consists of the report on the data which were gathered from document records and interviews conducted with the six categories of participants of the study, namely; SGBs (parent component), SMTs, PMTs and class teachers. I also included the
main stream learners as participants because they are also acknowledged as a support system and role players in an education system where the educational rights of PPLs should be upheld and implemented (DoE, 2007:4). Besides the above education duty bearers, I sampled the PPLs because of their experience at school in their pregnant or motherhood condition.

In reporting the data, participants are identified against the actual quoted statements that they made during interviews. Content analysis was employed to interpret data from interviews (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007:197) based on themes and quotations used to illustrate the observations made. Data from interviews were corroborated with observations that were recorded from document evidence that was made available at the four schools.

This chapter presents narrative data from the study participants on how school interventions to address the effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning were implemented. This study identified and examined the school interventions used by the education duty bearers and the effectiveness of these interventions in helping PPLs to cope with their schooling. The study also explained the challenges encountered by the school-based education stakeholders in handling the effect of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning. 

5.2 SUMMARY OF EMERGING THEMES

Qualitative researches approaches were used to present, analyse and interpret the collected data as outlined in Chapter Four. The following six interrelated themes emerged from the gathered data:

- Factors that negatively affect the educational opportunities of PPLs;
- School-based interventions on the negative effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning;
- Effectiveness of the school-based interventions on the teaching and learning of PPLs;
• Challenges faced by duty bearers in supporting PPLs to cope with schooling;
• Support strategies for helping stakeholders to assist PPLs to cope with schooling;
  and
• Benefits for inclusion of PPLs in formal schooling.

The six themes are further broken into sub-themes which are used to expand and give detail on the generated data, as outlined in Table 5.1 below:
### Table 5.1: Emerging Themes from Gathered Data

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5.2.1 Factors that Negatively Affect the Educational Opportunities of PPLs

In order to identify the educational needs of PPLs and how they can be supported, an objective was formulated in this study to investigate the negative effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning. This theme sought to investigate factors that influence the educational opportunities of PPLs at the four schools under study. These factors were categorised into four categories which include the negative attitudes of teachers towards teaching needs of PPLs, inadequate support systems on PPLs, negative attitudes of mainstream learners towards PPLs as well as negative effects of the condition of pregnancy on learning. The presentation revealed how attitudes of both the key duty bearers and the mainstream learners negatively affected the educational opportunities of PPLs.

5.2.1.1 Negative attitudes of teachers towards educational needs of PPLs

Based on the narrative data collected from the School Management Team (SMTs) members, Pregnancy Monitoring Teachers (PMTs) and class teachers, the study revealed that some teachers had negative attitudes towards teaching needs of PPLs. The negative attitudes of teachers towards PPLs contradict with South African Council of Educators (SACE) Act 31 of 2000 which states that the conduct of educator is to acknowledge the uniqueness, individuality, and specific needs of each learner, guiding and encouraging each learner to recognise his or her potentials (SACE, 2000). The attitudes of teachers negatively affected the learning opportunities of the PPLs which resulted in poor academic performance. It was also found that the unfriendly attitudes of teachers also caused psychological problems to PPLs.

For the purpose of gaining deeper understanding on factors that affect the learning opportunities of PPLs. PPLs were asked to describe problems that affect them within school in general. The negative attitudes of teachers towards PPLs were revealed by one PPL from School C who said that teachers made her a laughing stock in class. She complained that:
Some teachers always scold and insult me because I have a child. When I give a wrong answer, teachers remind me about my baby. I also feel so bad when fellow learners laugh at me. I no longer raise up my hand during lessons [PPL 2, School C].

The statement above demonstrates the kind of verbal abuse endured by PPLs which in turn negatively influences PPLs’ learning opportunities. The negative attitudes of teachers demotivated the PPLs, as they were no longer actively participating during lessons because they were afraid to be laughed at by other learners. The undesirable attitudes of teachers resulted in PPLs feeling worthless and thinking of leaving school before completion.

A similar response on the unwelcoming attitudes of teachers towards PPLs was also mentioned by another PPL from School D, who indicated that teachers discriminate her, humiliate and call her names because she was a parenting learner. She lamented that:

When we write a test, when I take time to complete like other learners, they tell me that finish up, “Mama’s Baby”. One day I felt sick, my class teacher said that I am lying, I wanted to breastfeed my child [PPL1, School D].

These utterances revealed that there was unfair discrimination and unequal treatment of learners by teachers PPLs were humiliated in front of their classmates whereby their health issues were shadowed by their early motherhood by their teachers. SMT members mentioned that the negative attitudes of teachers towards PPLs nearly led to the loss of life of PPL.

The distressing effects of negative attitudes of teachers towards the PPLs which nearly caused the suicide of one PPL was raised by an SMT member from School A, who lamented that:

Some teachers make the PPLs to feel unwanted, unworthy and that also causes psychological problems. In 2016, we had a case where a pregnant girl nearly committed suicide. She was called a “useless
person” by a female teacher because of her second pregnancy [SMT, School A].

It was discovered that negative attitudes of teachers caused psychological problems to PPLs which nearly leads to their death. In relation to the educational support given to PPLs, the study found that the attitudes of the male teachers were much better than the attitudes of female teachers.

The cited quotes revealed that PPLs were stigmatised inside and also outside the classroom by both teachers and mainstream learners. Stigma and discrimination perpetuated by teachers is different and more complex because teachers are usually seen as people who are supposed to give educational support and motivating girls to stay in school and perform well academically.

In relation to the negative attitudes of teachers towards PPLs, the Australian Bureau of Statistics indicated even though educational policies aim to ensure that PPLs are not disadvantaged, in reality many girls do not feel supported by the school environment and stop attending (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2009:1).

5.2.1.2 Inadequate Support Systems to PPLs
The Measures for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy by the Department of Education (DoE), which are national policy guidelines states that educators should continue to give educational support to the pregnant and parent learners (DoE, 2007:6). The study revealed that there was inadequate educational support on PPLs as established in the narratives provided by the PPLs. Without adequate support systems from SGBs, the principal, SMTs, PMTs, class teachers as well as subject teachers, PPLs cannot cope with their schooling and their return to school will be educationally meaningless.

PPLs demonstrated that they were viewed as irresponsible by their teachers. In an effort to establish the educational support given to PPLs, during individual interviews, PPLs
were requested to describe how their teachers supported them to cope with their schooling.

Inadequate educational support by teachers whereby PPLs were treated as unwise was shared by a PPL from School A, who revealed that her teacher constantly reminded her about the delivery process. She lamented that:

There is no support given to us, instead, we are treated as irresponsible. When we learn reproduction, my Natural Science teacher always tells me that I will come across delivery process and the whole class laughed at me. I am humiliated and ended-up not understanding the lesson [PPL2, School A].

The comment made by the Natural Science teacher concerning the delivery processes was traumatic and caused discomfort to the PPL because the pregnancy state on its own causes severe anxiety to pregnant learners. The lack of adequate educational support by teachers resulted in PPLs becoming withdrawn during lessons, which negatively affected their learning opportunities.

Class teachers mentioned that they were not trained to teach PPLs in an ordinary school setting when requested to describe the support they gave to the PPLs to help them cope with schooling.

Inadequate educational support by teachers was mentioned by one class teacher from School A, who pointed out that they were not trained to teach PPLs as she said that:

We are not empowered to come up with strategies to improve the teaching needs of PPLs nor maternity duties [CT1, School A].

The statement illustrates that PPLs were not given adequate educational support and teachers seemed not prepared to support the PPLs. I realised that teachers gave an excuse of lack of training of PPLs as the reason for the inadequate support given to PPLs, yet they had no will to help PPLs.
Although I cannot disregard the claim raised by teachers in relation to lack of training to teach PPLs, I considered that not a realistic excuse because PPLs were regarded as Learners with Special Needs just like any other Special Need Learner in their classes (DoE, 2007:7).

According to Bhana (2006), the responsibility of the school is to protect the educational rights of PPLs while providing an equitable and supporting learning environment to PPLs (Bhana et al., 2006:16). The negative effects of inadequate support from teachers was also disclosed by the Australian Bureau of Statistics (2009) which confirmed that although educational policies aim to ensure that PPLs are not disadvantaged, in reality many girls do not feel supported by the school environment and stop attending (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2009:1). In South Africa, available data shows that re-entering the education system by the PPLs decreases when adequate support is not available at home and at school, hence, for every year, that young mother remain outside of the education system` (UNICEF Report, 2009:64; Panday et al., 2009:14; Chilisa, 2002:34; Chigona & Chetty, 2008:276).

5.2.1.3 Negative attitudes of mainstream learners towards PPLs

Apart from negative attitudes of teachers towards the learning needs of PPLs, the study further revealed that mainstream learners also demonstrated negative attitudes towards PPLs. Focus group interviews were conducted to collect narrative data from the mainstream learners who played a vital role in giving educational support towards PPLs as classmates and schoolmates.

According to the guidelines on learner pregnancy management, mainstream learners are recognised as support system, key role players and as partners in the new education system. The role of the mainstream learners is to give educational support as peers to PPLs (DoE, 2007:4). Contrary to the national policy guidelines, the study revealed that some mainstream learners showed negative attitudes towards PPLs. It may be concluded that PPLs and mainstream learners failed to co-exist and benefit from each other as learners because mainstream learners were not prepared to learn and work with
PPLs. The position was demonstrated by one male mainstream learner from School B who complained that: “They are no longer girls, they are mothers. They must be given their own classroom. We don’t want to learn with them” [ML1, School B].

The PPLs on their part mentioned that they did not receive adequate educational support from their fellow classmates and schoolmates and they experienced learning challenges. PPLs were invited to share their experiences on the problems they face in class or at school.

The general negative attitudes of mainstream learners towards PPLs were exposed by one pregnant learner from School B who indicated that boys touch her big belly and she lamented that: “My classmates, especially boys, tend to touch my big belly. Other learners, including girls laugh at me. They make a joke out of me” [PPL2, School B].

The study revealed that PPLs were bullied to an extent that they experienced both physical and emotional pain. It was evident that PPLs were disrespected and devalued by their classmates, especially boys who violated PPLs’ privacy by touching their bellies. Furthermore, it was divulged that boys emotionally abused PPLs than girls.

In the same vein the unwelcome attitudes of mainstream learners towards PPLs was felt by another PPL from School D who mentioned that she was rejected by her fellows as she decried the fact that:

\[
\text{When I was pregnant, my classmates openly turned against me and loudly said that they cannot go around with me because they can also become pregnant just like me} \quad \text{[PPL1, School D].}
\]

The sentiments above demonstrate that PPLs suffered from exclusion in an ordinary school environment. It was evident that PPLs experienced frustration, humiliation and rejection from inside and outside the classroom setting. In the same vein, Chigona and Chetty (2008:263) describe the discourse of contamination that develops from the
perception that the immorality of the teenage mothers would set a bad example to the student body at school.

To get a clear understanding on the problems faced by PPLs, mainstream learners were asked to describe the problems which affect pregnant learners in their class. One female mainstream learner from School C agreed that she had witnessed exclusion and ill-treatment of PPLs by her classmates. She sympathised that:

*During breaks, pregnant learners are left alone in the class. During afternoon studies, mainstream learners claim that they feel sleepy and they can`t concentrate because of the pregnant learners [ML1, School C].*

It was evident that the presence of pregnant learners was used as an excuse to fall asleep by some mainstream learners. Dlamini (2016:25) points out that young mothers were the first group of friends and their knowledge of sexual matters were gained from their friends. However, their friends were no longer available during pregnancy and the parenting period. He further mentioned that feeling isolated intensified as friends kept a distance and terminated communication with young mothers.

5.2.1.4 **The disconnect between PPLs and mainstream learners**

Despite the negative attitudes of some mainstream learners towards PPLs, the study established that there was inadequate educational support given to PPLs by mainstream learners due to the bad relationship between the two groups. The inadequate educational support contributed to poor academic performance and dropping out of school by PPLs.

Mainstream learners indicated that they did not want to learn in the same classroom with PPLs because they were mothers. Mainstream learners further complained that PPLs were favoured by the government who gave them child support grants and the LO teachers who gave them marks without participating in physical education periods.
The disengagement between the PPLs and mainstream learners was revealed through discriminatory statements given by male mainstream learners from School B, who stated that teachers must give parenting learners their own class. He complained that:

*Our class is Nkhensani Hospital, maternity section. Teachers must give parenting learners their own class because their breast milk stinks. We don’t want to learn with them because they are mothers* [ML1, School B].

The above statement indicates that the mainstream learners strongly disagreed with the idea of learning with the PPLs in the same class. The study may conclude that there was no connection between the PPLs and their classmates. The disconnection resulted in unacceptable behaviour whereby mainstream learners claimed that PPLs had an unpleasant smell. This insensitive statement showed the disharmony between PPLs and mainstream learners in a normal school site. Grix (2004) indicated that critical paradigm is concerned with the critical meanings of experiences as they relate to gender, race, class and other kinds of social oppression (Grix, 2004:24-26). In the context of this study, it was revealed that PPLs suffer from stigmatisation and humiliation at school.

Unless serious interventions on inclusion were made, the schooling of PPLs would be fruitless.

The reason for disengagement between the PPLs and the mainstream learners was divulged by one mainstream learner from School A who felt that PPLs were favoured by the Life Orientation (LO) teachers as she lamented that:

*PPLs are already favoured by our LO teachers. Pregnant learners are exempted when we are in the playing ground. Teachers give them marks because they cannot participate. They must also participate in sporting activities to get deserved marks. It’s not fair* [ML3, School A].

The study may conclude that there was an intense separation between the PPLs and their classmates to an extent that the mainstream learners felt that the PPLs were more preferred by their LO teachers. It was indicated that LO teachers regarded pregnant
learners as learners with special needs and gave them special treatment because of their pregnancy during sporting activities, resulting in mainstream learners feeling neglected.

Sharing a similar sentiment on the reasons of separation between the PPLs and the mainstream learners, one mainstream learner from School D described the social life of PPLs as he complained that:

*PPLs are already supported by the government because they are given a child support grant. We become fascinated by what they eat during breaks, so they must stay at home and enjoy their grants. PPLs must be suspended for two years [ML4, School D].*

It was demonstrated that there was no association between PPLs and the mainstream learners because mainstream learners felt that the PPLs were being given special favourites by the government because they were given financial support.

A contradictory statement which demonstrated the necessity to support PPLs was given by another mainstream learner from the same school who explained that some PPLs were over the school-going age and she sympathised with them. He stated that:

*I try to help them when we work in groups, but other group members do not like to work with them. I feel that if we segregate them, they think they are outcasts. I disagree with fellows, suspension is not advisable because some are grown-ups [ML2, School D].*

The above statement shows that some mainstream learners were willing to associate with the PPLs although the association was poor because other classmates were not willing to work with the PPLs.

The narratives show that PPLs were not given adequate educational support by mainstream learners. The study may conclude that inadequate educational support resulted in poor academic performance of PPLs because mainstream learners did not want to work with them in their groups. The statement given by mainstream learner
number 4 from School D is instructive in so far as it illuminates on the expulsion policies and re-entry policies which have eliminated past injustices in the educational system (Chilisa, 2002:22-25).

The disengagement between PPLs and mainstream learners contradicts the national policy guidelines which embrace peer education as an approach which must be emphasised and incorporated in any intervention programme at schools. It was proven that peer education can tackle learner pregnancy issues in an open manner and has the potential to change both attitudes and behaviour (DoE, 2007:3).

The unhealthy relationship between the PPLs and the mainstream learners (their classmates, schoolmates, peers and friends) was also exposed by Makatu who also indicated that young mothers need strong support from their friends and when distance is kept by their friends, it becomes severely painful and more stressful to young mothers (Makatu, 2014:118). An earlier study conducted by Chigona and Chetty further revealed that most young mothers face difficulties because of undue pressure from parents, the father of the baby, peers and teachers as well as receiving inadequate support from the school, home and the entire community (Chigona & Chetty, 2008:162).

5.2.1.5 **Negative effects of the condition of pregnancy on learning**

Apart from the negative attitudes of teachers and mainstream learners which negatively affected the learning opportunities of PPLs, the study further found that the condition of pregnancy had negative effects on the learning needs of pregnant learners. The views presented by class teachers and PMTs as well as the pregnant learners disclosed that there were pregnancy-related conditions which negatively affected the learning needs of pregnant learners.

Class teachers were questioned on the problems which affect pregnant learners in their class. One class teacher from School D mentioned that pregnant learners were always tired due to their pregnant conditions as he explained thus:
Pregnant learners are always exhausted and unsettled, hence it is difficult for them to actively participate in class. Sometimes they complain of headaches. Teachers go into panic mood thinking that maybe the girl is going to give birth [CT2, School D].

The above statement shows that pregnancy-related conditions negatively affected the teaching and learning needs of PPLs. The statement also revealed that teachers were not certain about any signs and delivery procedures, hence they were prone to panicking when pregnant learners complained about any sickness. The study revealed that the pregnancy-related conditions cause serious stressful situations for both teachers and learners. One PMT (number 1) from School A concurred with this view pointing out that that pregnant learners can hardly walk to the toilets due to their swollen legs. She said that:

*Pregnant learners are always absent due to constant fatigue. Their bodies become heavy, some complain of swollen legs and they hardly walk. They are regularly absent [PMT1, School A]*.

This statement demonstrates that the pregnancy-condition negatively affects the teaching and learning of PPLs. Pregnancy is a condition which sometimes has its own complications, hence some pregnant learners were constantly absent while some could hardly walk due to swollen legs. In an earlier study conducted by Chigona and Chetty (2008:100-101), teachers talked about trauma of classroom deliveries and lack of resources in their school such as transport to help pregnant learners when they were in labour.

The pregnant learners attested to and gave reasons for their fatigue. They explained that they were always exhausted due to pregnancy conditions. When requested to describe the problems which affect them as PPLs in class or at school in general. A 15 year old pregnant learner from School A who indicated that her pregnancy was bigger than her expectations declared that:
I am always tired and wondering about child birth because of anxiety. My belly is much bigger than I’ve anticipated. I am failing to concentrate during lessons because my baby is frequently kicking [PPL2, School A].

The above statement shows that there were both physical and psychological pregnancy-related conditions which negatively affected the learning opportunities of PPLs. The physical effects of the pregnancy resulted in PPLs always feeling tired, slumbering, hardly walking and not actively participating in class. The psychological effect resulted in PPLs always feeling restless and unable to focus during lessons. The study also acknowledged that there was need for pregnant learners to be prepared about the whole process of caring a baby because the kicks of the unborn baby disturb their minds resulting in them losing concentration. According to the Western Cape Department of Education (WCDE) policy on management of learner pregnancy in public schools (2003), the pregnant learner must be considered to be a learner with special needs with access to counselling by professionals of the Specialised Learner and Educator Support (SLES) component with the Educational Management Development Centre (EMDC) (WCDE, 2003:1).

5.2.2 School-based Interventions to the Negative Effects of School Girl Pregnancy on Teaching and Learning

On this aspect, the major objective of the study was to explore school-based interventions on the negative effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning. This theme is divided into four sub-themes, namely, school policy guidelines on PPLs, the alignment between national policy and school policy guidelines on PPLs, pregnancy monitoring teachers’ (PMTs) as well as a PPL inclusion strategy and parental involvement to PPLs. This theme outlines the different levels of understanding by participants on the existing policy guidelines within the schools. Based on the narratives provided by the study participants established that the key duty bearers; SGBs, SMTs, PMTs as well as class teachers were playing significant role in handling the negative effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning although some of their intervention strategies were not functionally effective.
5.2.2.1 School policy guidelines on PPLs

The South African Schools Act (SASA) No. 84 of 1996 mandates SGBs to adopt the Learners` Code of Conduct and to make provisions for the management and prevention of learner pregnancy. Therefore, the school policy guidelines on PPLs must be drawn in line with the SASA Act No. 84 of 1996 taking into consideration the principles of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa and content of the Measures for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy 2007 (DoE, 2007:3). The study revealed that the Learners` Code of Conduct did not have a clause on the management of learner pregnancy (see Appendix 11). This sub-theme is presented based on narrative data from different categories of participants.

The study established that the participating schools gave sick leave to PPLs after delivery as an intervention although the number of days on the leave given were different. It was also discovered that School A and School D had stipulated the number of sick leave days whereas School B and School C did not have a stipulated number of days of sick leave days.

PPLs were invited to share their experiences on what their school was doing to assist them to cope with their schooling. The support given to PPLs by schools relating to sick leave as an intervention strategy was shared by one PPL from School D who indicated that they were given a week to stay at home after delivery as she demonstrated that:

When you have recently delivered, they give you one week to stay at home. Then you bring along the letter from the hospital. They did not withdraw you from the attendance register [PPL2, School D].

It was disclosed that PPLs were given one week to stay at home after delivery. It was also reported that the duty bearers were well-informed that PPLs must not be de-registered if they were absent due to illness, giving birth or having a sick child.

This sentiment was shared by another PPL from School A who indicated that they were given two weeks to recover after giving birth as she explained that:
We are given two weeks to recover but it also depends on your condition and that of the baby. You are allowed to return earlier, a week after giving birth, if you feel that you will be left behind with lessons [PPL1, School A].

It was shown that in School A, PPLs were given at least two weeks to recover after giving birth. Considering the health condition of the PPL and her new born baby PPLs had the latitude of returning back earlier if they felt better. The above statement also showed that PPLs were not forced by teachers or parents to return to school early after giving birth as they felt that they would be left behind in their learning. This showed a conflict of interest on the side of the PPLs.

Another experience in relation to pregnant learners before delivery was shared by another PPL from School B who divulged that there was no stipulated sick leave days at their school.

She said that:

*If it is your delivery month and then you feel tired, you just stay at home and deliver your baby. After delivering, if you feel better you come to school any day. There is no leave it depend on how you recovered* [PPL1, School B].

The above statement revealed that in School B, there was no stipulated number of sick leave days given to PPLs. It was found that PPLs were allowed to stay at home before they delivered if they felt exhausted.

One PPL from School C, who described that: “*There is no number of sick leave days given to us. You just deliver your baby and come back any day if you feel better that you can manage to cope attending lessons*” (PPL2, School C). It was divulged that in School C, PPLs were not given the number of sick leave days but were allowed to return to school any day if they felt that they could manage attending.
The study noted that pregnant learners were given sick leave days for delivering and recovering processes in School A and School D although the number of sick leave days varied. It was established that School B and School C did not have a stipulated number of sick leave days, but learners were allowed to stay at home and return when they felt better.

The study showed that pregnant learners were not given a stipulated number of leave days in School B and School C, but learners could just decide to leave and return back any day which led to PPL number 2 from School C to return back to school one day after giving birth. Furthermore, it was acknowledged that School A and School D handled the parenting sick leave better because they stipulated the number of leave days unlike School B and School C. It was also shown that education duty bearers had sound knowledge and complied with the education policies because they did not de-register PPLs during their absence.

It is also evident that School A created a good support of PPLs because pregnant learners attend without restrictions of being accompanied by their parents. It was further disclosed that School A gave parenting learners two weeks sick leave compared to the other participating schools. However, the days may not be enough depending on the health of the pregnant learner. This study revealed that School A handled the negative effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning better than School B, School C and School D.

However, the policy guidelines state that no learner should be readmitted in the same year that they left school due to pregnancy so that they can exercise full responsibility for parenting. The learner must also consider the rights of the new born child (DoE, 2007:5). This shows that although policy guidelines exist on paper, practically they are not implemented. This resulted in young mothers returning to school immediately after giving birth and not yet fully recovered from delivery procedures.
5.2.2.2 Alignment between national policy and school guidelines on PPLs

In order to gain broad knowledge on the school-based interventions on PPLs, a comparative discussion of the alignment between the national policy guidelines (DoE, 2007) and the school guidelines on PPLs was undertaken. This sub-theme outlines the association between the national guidelines that is; Measures on prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy (DoE, 2007) and school guidelines on PPLs. The study revealed that although there was a Learners Code of Conduct, all four participating schools did not have a clause on the management of learner pregnancy. Further, there was no written evidence of school guidelines. This sub-theme is presented and analysed based on the narrative data collected from different participants. The narrative data revealed that there was a link between the national policy and school guidelines because pregnant learners were allowed to continue with schooling before and after giving birth.

To establish the association between national and school guidelines, PMTs were asked to explain the support which they were giving the PPLs to assist them cope with schooling in terms of school policy.

The link between the national policy guidelines and the school policy was described by one PMT from school B who replied that their school allowed pregnant learners to continue with their schooling. She said that:

*We allow pregnant learners to continue learning. We don’t expel them. We have the rule that state that parents must accompany their pregnant children to school to take care of the pregnant learner if she experiences labour problems* [PMT2, School B].

The statement reveals that key duty bearers had sound knowledge of national policy guidelines. It was evident that pregnant learners were allowed to continue with their schooling which confirms a link between the national and school guidelines.
Mainstream learners were also interviewed on what their school was doing to support the pregnant learners. A mainstream learner from School C mentioned that they learnt with pregnant learners in their class which showed the school upheld national policy:

\[\text{They are allowed to come to school. We learn with them in our class but when a girl is pregnant there must be person who should be hired to look after the pregnant girl [ML5, School C].}\]

The study established that pregnant learners were permitted to continue with schooling but there was a rule that there must be parent or delegated person to accompany the pregnant learner to school. It was evident that School B, C and D involved parents as an intervention strategy to allow pregnant learners to continue with their schooling.

A contradiction was however identified in that in School A, parents were not obligated to accompany their pregnant children to school.

A contradictory view was made by a pregnant learner from School A who affirmed that at their school pregnant learners were not accompanied by their parents. She stated that:

\[\text{We are allowed to continue learning until we give birth. We are not accompanied by our parents. Pregnant learners come alone at school. PMTs phone your parents if you feel ill [PPL2, School A].}\]

The study revealed that there was an alignment between national policy guidelines and school policy guidelines in relation to PPLs because pregnant learners were allowed to continue with their schooling before and after giving birth. Similarly, Runhare and Hwami (2014:184) indicated that it is common to see pregnant school girls attending full-time at formal schools in South Africa, yet the school environment has been recognised to be unfriendly, hence they are unable to complete their education.
5.2.2.3 Pregnancy Monitoring Teachers (PMTs) as a PPL inclusion strategy

The study discovered that there were teachers who were delegated the responsibility to monitor PPLs at schools. These teachers were referred to as pregnant monitoring teachers (PMTs). PMTs were established as a PPL inclusion strategy to allow PPLs to continue with their schooling under the monitoring and administration of PMTs. This corroborates the perspective of the national policy which states that pregnant learners must inform a senior educator or someone (designated by the principal). The designated educator should take responsibility for the implementation and management of these measures, on behalf of the school (DoE, 2007:5).

Although the composition of PMTs differed, generally schools delegated either Life Orientation (LO) teachers, senior teachers, or sometimes the principal delegated female teachers using his or her own discretions. Their responsibilities include keeping records of learners’ pregnancy, handling pregnancy-related cases, reporting pregnancy-related matters to the principal as well as communicating with parents or guardians of PPLs. During the interviews, some participants referred PMTs as link teachers.

The study established that amongst the different categories of the key duty bearers, the PMTs were the only duty bearers who demonstrated improved tolerant attitudes towards PPLs. It was disclosed that the establishment of PMTs as a PPL inclusion strategy enhanced the educational opportunities of PPLs even though they also faced challenges when teaching and monitoring PPLs. PMTs were required to express their opinions on what they think must be done in their school to support the PPLs to enable them to cope with their schooling.

The positive attitude of PMTs towards PPLs was displayed by a PMT from School D who raised a concern on the negative comments by fellow teachers towards PPLs. She warned that: “Teachers must stop ill-treating PPLs. This can make the pregnant learner to feel guilty, she may even consider committing suicide” [PMT2, School D].
The statement shows that the PMTs were deeply concerned about the bad comments made by other teachers every day. It was evident that PMTs demonstrated a sincere attitude towards PPLs. They also gave warning to their teachers on the effects of negative comments which could be detrimental to PPL’s schooling and the possible loss of life by the PPLs.

Another PMT from School A, cautioned fellow teachers that:

*Teachers should refrain from passing negative remarks towards pregnant learners. A pregnant learner committed suicide because of people’s negative comments [PMT2, School A].*

The study showed that PMTs were trying to give educational support to PPLs even though it was difficult for them because some teachers were not willing to give obligatory teaching and learning support. The above quotes demonstrated that PMTs were well-informed about the education policies and their delegated responsibilities as policy implementers at school level. The above sentiments show that PMTs were trying to assist and motivate other teachers to help the PPLs. It was also realised that negative comments towards PPLs could cause depression.

Earlier studies revealed that most young mothers face difficulties because of undue pressure from parents, the father of the baby, peers and teachers as well as receiving inadequate support from the school, home and the entire community (Chigona & Chetty, 2008:162). The role played by the PMTs in giving educational support to PPLs is in line with the national policy guidelines. The policy guidelines affirm the critical need for educators continue to offer educational support to learners that are pregnant. It further states that schools should strive to ensure the existence of a climate of understanding and respect in regard to unplanned pregnancies (DoE, 2007:6). The policy guidelines are in line with the liberal feminism theory which aims to eradicate discrimination and to promote gender mainstreaming by ensuring that government laws and policies do not adversely affect women but address women’s’ needs (Lorber, 2010:25).
5.2.2.4 Parental involvement to education needs of PPLs

Apart from the key duty bearers such as SGBs, SMTs, PMTs and class teachers, the national policy guidelines also recognised parents and guardians of PPLs as role players in the support system for PPLs. The national policy guidelines also mandate parents and guardians to take a lead in working with the school to support the pregnant learner (DoE, 2007:6). The study revealed that in School B, School C and School D, parents or guardians of PPLs were compelled to accompany their pregnant learners to school. It was also revealed that in School A, parents were not compelled to accompany pregnant learners to school.

According to the SGBs, SMTs, PMTs and class teachers interviewed, the involvement of parents or guardians was regarded as an intervention strategy to enable learners who are pregnant to be retained in the school enrolment. Parents or guardians or delegated persons wait at the school for the duration of school hours in order to take the pregnant learner to clinic if need arises.

The involvement of parents as a support strategy was mentioned by one PMT from B who indicated that parents of pregnant were compelled to accompany their children to school. He claimed that:

*We adopted a school policy that compels all parents of pregnant learners to accompany their pregnant children to school so that the parent should take her pregnant child to clinic if she experiences labour pains [PMT2, School B].*

This shows that there was a rule which mandated parents to accompany their pregnant children to school. There was a condition on the involvement of parents which was explained by one SGB member from School C who said: “*All parents should accompany their pregnant children to school. If the parent is not at school therefore the pregnant learner is not allowed to attend*” (SGB2, School C). This statement shows that there was a condition or restriction attached to the school rule regarding the involvement of parents.
However, PPLs from School A indicated that there was no involvement of parents as pregnant learners were not accompanied by their parents. Unlike School B, School C and School D, where parents were involved, PPLs from School A indicated that pregnant learners were allowed to attend school without their parents waiting at school. One of the PPLs stated that “If you are pregnant, they take your parents’ contact details. If you feel sick, they phone your parents at home to take you to the clinic” (PPL2, School A). The cited quote shows that in School A, there was no school rule which compelled parents to accompany pregnant learners. It showed that teachers collected information about parents’ details and kept records.

The study found the duty bearers had sound knowledge of education policies which states that pregnant learners must not be expelled in schools. It was evident that School A handled the situation of learner pregnancy by contacting the parents of the pregnant learner if she fell sick. It was also evident that pregnant learners attended freely without restrictions and without conditions unlike in School B, School C and School D where pregnant learners were not allowed to attend without their parents. It is also evident that School A fared much better in supporting PPLs than School B, School C and School D because even orphan pregnant learners or those whose parents were not available, could continue with their learning without restriction.

The study revealed inconsistencies in the implementation of school interventions within schools of Mopani District.

5.2.3 Effectiveness of the School-based Interventions to Teaching and Learning of PPLs

One key objective of the study was to examine the effectiveness of the school-based interventions to teaching and learning of PPLs. This sub-theme was addressed using data obtained from interviews with SGB members, SMT members, PMTs as well as PPLs and mainstream learners. Views on the effectiveness of the school interventions to
teaching and learning of PPLs and the gaps between national policy and practice on teaching and learning needs of PPLs are discussed below.

5.2.3.1 Functional utility of school-based interventions

According to the SGBs, SMTs, PMTs and class teachers interviewed, the involvement of parents or guardians was regarded as an intervention strategy to enable learners who are pregnant to retain with school enrolment. Although the functioning of the PMTs had some unsatisfying practices when they implemented some of the school interventions, the study established that it was helpful to PPLs because they continued with their schooling under the administration of PMTs.

SMT members divulged that there were PMTs who monitored pregnant learners and handled pregnancy-related cases at schools. They also mentioned that the PMTs also form a link between the parents of PPLs and the school. SMT members were asked about the kind of support they gave to PPLs to assist them to cope with their schooling.

The significant role of PMTs was described by an SMT member from School C who demonstrated that PMTs link the parents of PPLs and the school by communicating all the information concerning the pregnant learners by elaborating that:

*Due to the high rate of learner pregnancy, we have established a team of Link teachers to work with pregnant learners. They link the parents and the school. They are delegated to monitor and handle all the pregnancy-related cases [SMT, School C].*

It was clearly demonstrated that learners who were pregnant were allowed to continue with school under the monitoring of PMTs. The role of the PMTs was described as that of monitoring all the pregnancy cases.

The role of the PMTs on the support of PPLs was also described by another class teacher from School A who pointed out that PPLs were supported by the PMTs who act as social workers at school. She said that: “*We have link teachers who act as social workers at*
school. They monitor and support the pregnant learners. Pregnant learners report all their problems to PMTs” (CT2, School A). The above statement showed that PMTs were delegated to monitor and give academic support to PPLs. PMTs were also referred to as Link teachers. It was evident that the support given to PPLs by PMTs was at least partially successful because they faced challenges when executing their responsibilities. It was established that pregnant learners continued with their schooling before and after giving birth although some factors made them to drop-out.

Bhana et al. (2006:18), have indicated that a supportive social environment enables a teenage mother to do well in school. They further indicated that teenage mothers who came from supportive families, and who get support from teachers and friends often do better than those who lack support.

5.2.3.2 Functional weaknesses of the school interventions on teaching and learning needs of PPLs

Although the school interventions were formulated to handle the negative effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning needs of PPLs, functional weakness were identified during the implementation of some school-based interventions by SGBs, SMTs, PMTs as well as class teachers. Among others, the study will present and discuss only one functional weaknesses, which is parental involvement as more of punishment than support.

5.2.3.2.1 Gaps between national policy and practice on teaching and learning needs of PPLs

Despite the fact that there was an alignment between the national policy and the school practice, it was also found that there was gap between the two policy guidelines. This sub-theme identified the gaps between national policy and practice on teaching and learning needs of PPLs. School policy guidelines on PPLs as a school-based intervention was assessed. The Leaners Code of Conduct did not have a clause on management of learner pregnancy.
The narrative data provided by the PPLs, indicated that there was a gap between the national policy and the school practice regarding the number of sick leave days given by pregnant learners for delivery and recovering processes.

PPLs complained that the number of sick leave days given to them were not enough for delivery and recovering processes. This was voiced by a PPL from School C who complained that:

I gave birth by Caesarean-section. I was admitted for seven days after giving birth. I had to return back to school to write June examinations meanwhile I was not fully recovered [PPL2, School C].

This was echoed by a PPL from School D who complained that: “After giving birth, they give you one week to stay at home and recover although a week is not enough” [PPL2, School D]. This statement shows that parenting learners were given one week for delivery and recovery processes. It was discovered that the number of sick leave days were not given depending on how they delivered their babies. It was indicated that the number of sick leave days were given generally for all pregnant learners and no consideration for special delivery cases such Caesarean-section.

Another evidence that sick leave was given was demonstrated by another PPL from School C who stated that: “When I was pregnant, I delivered on Monday night, then Wednesday I returned back to school. I was not yet recovered but I was afraid to miss lessons” [PPL2, School C]. This statement shows that in School C, there was no number of sick leave days, forcing the PPL to immediately come back to school within a day after delivery. The study discovered that pregnant learners were not given a stipulated number of leave days in School C but learners themselves could decide when to leave or come back.

According to the national policy guidelines, no learner should be re-admitted in the same year that they left school due to pregnancy. The reason for this is that learners should
have sufficient time to exercise full responsibility for parenting (DoE, 2007:5). The policy guidelines further state that the parenting learner must also consider the rights of the new born child, which means that the learner must ensure that the new born child is cared for and his safety is guaranteed. The statements proves that although policy guidelines exist on paper, they are not implemented practically, resulting in young mothers returning to school immediately after giving birth instead of waiting to recover fully from delivery procedures.

5.2.3.2.2 Inconsistent intervention approaches

The Bill of Rights protects all individuals from unequal treatment and unfair discrimination (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa [RSA], 1996). However, this study revealed inconsistencies in the implementation of the school interventions in some of the selected schools. It was revealed that in School D, for instance, there was inconsistence in the implementation of intervention which compelled parents or guardians or delegated persons to accompany the pregnant girl to school. According to the SGBs, SMTs, PMTs and class teachers, the school intervention strategy is used to allow pregnant learners to continue with her learning on a full-time basis. This study revealed inconsistencies in the implementation of the school intervention in School D as some pregnant learners were accompanied by their parents while some were not accompanied by their parents within the same year.

Class teachers confirmed that pregnant learners were allowed to attend lessons if their parents accompanied them to school.

In School D, the involvement of parents was described by a class teacher who explained that: “We do not expel pregnant learners. We have advised parents to accompany the pregnant learners. A pregnant learner is not allowed without her parent” [CT1, School D]. This statement shows that learners who were pregnant were not deregistered at school for getting pregnant but were allowed to continue attending classes on a conditional basis. It was indicated pregnant learners were allowed to attend school on condition that they were accompanied to school by their parents.
A contradictory statement to the one given by the class teacher from School D above which shows inconsistent approaches within their school was related by one PPL who indicated that her parent was not required to accompany her to school. She stated that: “Some teachers are good. My mother was not called to come to school. They get my mother’s details so that they can phone her if labour pains” [PPL2, School D]. The above statement shows that parents in one school were not compelled to accompany their pregnant child to school after giving birth. This statement contradicts views by class teacher number 1 from the same school. It was also evident that the PMTs collected contact details for the parents as a strategy of handling the pregnancy situation.

It was evident that this was good practice by PMTs which encouraged pregnant learners to attend school regularly. PMTs created a conducive learning environment for pregnant learners. They did not send pregnant learners home because their parents did not accompany them but they accommodated pregnant learners and kept their parents’ contact details in cases of emergency. This is in line with the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), Article 28, which insists on the state parties to recognise the rights of the child to education by taking measures to encourage regular attendance at school and reduction of dropout rates.

An opposing statement was given by another PPL from the same school who said that:

*We were two pregnant learners in February, the PMTs told us that our parents should accompany us. From there, I’ve never seen parents waiting meanwhile there were another pregnant learner attending. It was in August when I saw parents again* [PPL1, School D].

The above statements are examples of the general feelings of the PPLs which revealed inconsistencies in the implementation of school intervention strategies in School D within the same year. It was also evident that although there was a policy in place the practice was totally different as the policy was not adhered to. This is contrary to the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Number 108 of 1996 which contains the Bill of Rights.
which has a provision for the protection of all persons from unequal discrimination and unequal treatment (RSA, 1996).

5.2.3.2.3 Parental involvement as punishment than support to PPLs

Although the national policy guidelines stated the roles and responsibilities of parents regarding the support which must be given to pregnant learners, the study revealed that in School B, School C and School D, parental involvement was more of punishment to pregnant learners than support. It was exposed that pregnant learners could not attend school in situations where their parents or guardians were not available. The study revealed that the intervention was implemented mainly to reduce work-load for the teachers and to cause the pregnant learner to voluntarily drop out because if there were no parents or guardians to accompany her to school, she would be sent back home.

PPLs indicated that they were sent home to call parents and were denied the opportunity to write a test by the PMTs. Although PMTs were school policy implementers, they encountered challenges in implementing the school rules.

An unhappy experience on the ineffective functioning of the PMTs was displayed by PPL from School C who complained that:

I was taken from the classroom by Link teachers while we were writing Natural Science test. They told me to call my parents to accompany me to school. I did not come back because there was nobody at home and I missed a test [PPL1, School C].

The statement demonstrates the inappropriate operation of the PMTs as this was punishment to the PPL than a form of support because the PPL was taken out while she was writing a test. PMTs felt they were contributing to the drop out of pregnant learners because they were afraid of sending the PPLs home to call their parents. They also felt heart-broken when they sent orphaned pregnant learners to call their parents.
The inconsiderate practices PMTs were also displayed by one PMT from School B who lamented that:

*Immediately an orphan pregnant learner realises that she is pregnant, she stays at home. She is afraid to be sent home to call her parent meanwhile she don`t have parents. We are implementing the school policy [PMT1, School B].*

These statements show that the work PMTs seemed like a push-away-factor because pregnant learners ended-up dropping out. The reason for the voluntary dropping-out of orphan pregnant learners was that they were afraid of being sent to call their parents.

According to Grant and Hallman (2006:19), school girls who fall pregnant are less likely to complete their high school education and their chances of tertiary education are also greatly reduced if they are not given parental support. It was against the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) for PPLs to drop out of school. The CRC, Article 28, which obligates state parties to recognise the right of the child to education.

According to CRC, this can be achieved by taking measures such as encouraging regular attendance at school and reduction of dropout rates. In addition, CEDAW, Article 10 (f) emphasises that governments must ensure the reduction of female student drop-out rates and the organisation of programs for girls and women who have left school prematurely. It has been confirmed from gathered data that pregnant learners still experience gender-specific barriers to basic education in a way that decreases their learning opportunities (Education Rights in South Africa; 2017:163).

### 5.2.3.2.4 Inadequate political will by duty bearers to implement interventions on teaching and learning needs of PPLs

Despite the national policy guidelines which specify the roles of the SGBs and teachers in giving educational support to assist PPLs to cope with their schooling, this study revealed that there was inadequate will by duty bearers to implement interventions on teaching and learning needs of PPLs.
PPLs indicated that teachers were not offering repeat lessons nor giving them notes and hand-outs even when they had a doctor’s letter. They further mentioned that teachers were not giving them an opportunity to ask questions based on the missed lessons. The evidence of inadequate will by teachers was indicated by one PPL from School B who stated that:

*Teachers don’t give repeat lessons. They don’t give you chance to ask questions based on the missed lessons nor to ask for hand-outs or notes given in your absence* [PPL1, School B].

The statement demonstrates that teachers were not willing to give absent PPLs a second chance based on the missed lessons.

Class teachers demonstrated lack of determination, to support PPLs and promoted the expulsion policies, claiming that the number of learner pregnancies increased because pregnant learners were allowed to continue with schooling. One class teacher from School C claimed that the presence of PPLs at school contributed to a high number of school girl pregnancies as he complained that:

*The pregnant learners must stay at home for two years. If the pregnant learners are suspended, the number of pregnancies at school will come down* [CT2, School C].

The views of the class teacher demonstrated the lack of commitment to help PPLs by the teachers. By virtue of their positions, teachers are policy implementers who must promote Education for All and should protect all the educational rights of all learners, including the PPLs. The perceptions of teachers were that the presence of pregnant learners influenced non-pregnant learners to become pregnant (Runhare, 2010:226).

In addition, SGB members as policy bearers also demonstrated inadequate political will on the inclusion of PPLs in normal school situation. One SGB member from School D expressed her disagreement with the inclusion policy thus:
To allow pregnant learners to attend, is valueless. Our school has a high rate of learner pregnancy, it is maternity ward. To see a 15 year old girl having a very big belly wearing school uniform, it is so embarrassing [SGB2, School D].

The statement above illustrates that the SGB members were not willing to allow the PPLs in class but were forced to comply by the national policy, hence they claimed that their school was a maternity ward. The effects of the presence of pregnant learners on other learners was raised by another SGB member from School B who said that:

*Pregnant learners devalue the principles of teaching and learning. The other learners are distracted and start wondering what if the labour pains start in class and the process of child birth. Imagine a fourteen-year old learner sitting next to a heavily pregnant learner?* [SGB5, School B].

This statement clearly shows that SGB members totally disagreed with the inclusion of PPLs and mainstream learners in an ordinary school setting. They claimed that mainstream learners were distracted and wondering about the process of child birth. This was an open excuse of inadequate political will by the SGB members.

The study found out that there was no will by both teachers and SGB members on implementation of the school interventions on teaching and learning needs of PPLs. Runhare (2010:148) attested that PPLs were not given meaningful attention and assistance in the school resulting in low percentage of PPLs who managed to complete grade twelve.

The lack of support from teachers contradicts the South African Council of Educators (SACE) Act 32 of 2000 which proposes that the educator should conduct him/herself in ways that respect the dignity, beliefs and constitutional rights of all learners (this means the that the PPLs are included) and in particular children, inclusive of the right to privacy and confidentiality. Furthermore, the SACE Act strongly affirms the promotion gender equality (SACE, 2000). Earlier researchers also concurred that teenage mothers lack
support from schools, what they get is misunderstanding and pressure (Chigona & Chetty, 2008:276).

5.2.4 Challenges Faced by the Duty Bearers in Supporting PPLs to Cope with Schooling

One of the key objectives of this study was to find out challenges faced by the duty bearers in supporting PPLs to cope with schooling within the four selected secondary schools. The key education duty bearers such as SGB members, SMT members, PMTs as well as class teachers of PPLs, were requested to specify challenges they encountered in governing, managing, monitoring and teaching PPLs. These challenges were categorised into teachers’ problems in teaching PPLs in an ordinary school, PPLs problems learning in an ordinary school, challenges faced by the duty bearers with compliance to the policy guidelines, and challenges encountered by teachers in handling missed lessons as well as inadequate parental support. This theme also outlined the various levels with which participants understood the available policy frameworks within the schools.

5.2.4.1 Teachers’ difficulties in teaching PPLs in an ordinary school setting

Despite the school interventions used by the key duty bearers to address the negative effects of school pregnancy on teaching and learning, teachers had difficulties in teaching the PPLs in ordinary school settings. Some challenges emanated from the PPLs while others were professional challenges. It was also found that teachers encountered challenges in combining PPLs with mainstream learners although the national policy guidelines direct schools on inclusion of pregnant girls and teenage mothers to continue with their education (DoE, 2007:6; Grant & Hallman, 2006:4; Pandor, 2007:4).

5.2.4.1.1 Absenteeism of PPLs

Absenteeism of PPLs was mentioned as a key challenge faced by teachers. Teachers reported that the PPLs were frequently absent. Teachers further stated that whether the PPLs were having valid reasons or not, the effects of non-attendance were that PPLs
lagged behind in their lessons and many PPLs were repeating their grades. In order to establish the effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning, class teachers were requested to state challenges they encountered in teaching PPLs at their schools. A class teacher from School D pointed out that: “Pregnant learners are constantly absent because their bodies are always exhausted due to carrying a baby. Some are absent once or twice a week” [CT2, School D].

The above statement shows that absenteeism by pregnant learners was a major challenge. For instance, a PMT from School C indicated that parenting learners were frequently absent due to non-availability of people to help with baby-sitting she explained that: “Orphan parenting learners are frequently absent because sometimes they don’t have anyone to baby sit their babies” [PMT1, School C].

Repeated absence of orphan parenting learners emanated from lack of strong parental support. It was revealed that orphan parenting learners required a strong family support system in order for them to successfully cope with their schooling. Another reason of continuous absence of parenting learners was given by an SMT member from School A who indicated that:

*When the baby is not well, the parenting learner is admitted in hospital with her sick baby. Parenting learners are always absent, and they miss lessons then fail tests even final examinations [SMT, School A].*

This statement illustrates habitual absence of parenting learners due to parenting responsibilities. It was evident that even though PPLs had valid reason for their absence, their academic performance was negatively affected.

A study by Grant and Hallman found that the availability of adult women in the household to share domestic responsibilities may even be more critical following child birth to an adolescent when care giving demands for the baby would otherwise make the girl’s return to school too difficult (Grant & Hallman, 2006:8). According to the national policy guidelines, the primary role of guardians and parents of PPLs is hinged on providing such
individuals with care to allow them to continue with education during the period of absence from school and when back after child delivery (DoE, 2007:6).

5.2.4.1.2 Lack of training on national policy guidelines

Absenteeism of PPLs was not the only challenge encountered by teachers, they also stated that lack of training and empowerment on national policy guidelines to teach and accommodate PPLs in ordinary school setting was a challenge.

The of lack of training to teach and to support the PPLs and the frustrations which they go through in teaching the PPLs were raised by a class teacher from School C who acknowledged that:

\[
\text{We are not trained nor empowered to develop strategies to enhance the teaching and learning needs of PPLs. We are not trained to teach and accommodate the PPLs [CT2, School C].}
\]

Lack of training as a serious challenge was also raised by a PMT from School A, who demonstrated how lack of training was depressingly affecting duties delegated to them which result in them using their own decisions. He lamented that:

\[
\text{We are not trained to handle the PPLs` cases nor to perform maternity duties. Some pregnant learners come to school until the due date. Anytime labour pains can start in class [PMT1, School A].}
\]

The lack of training was also mentioned by the SMT member from School B who also indicated that even the PMTs were not trained to handle the cases of PPLs by explaining that:

\[
\text{There is nothing we can do to assist teachers because they are not trained to deal with PPLs. They just make their own decisions or refer the cases to the PMTs. Even the PMTs are not trained, we just delegated the responsibility to them [SMT, School B].}
\]
The above statements indicate that teachers were not trained to teach and accommodate the PPLs in normal school setting. The study may conclude that teachers were failing to give adequate educational support to PPLs due to lack of training. It was realised that the negative attitudes of teachers towards PPLs might have been caused by frustrations and incompetency in fulfilling the PPLs` educational needs due to lack of training as claimed by the teachers.

According to the national policy guidelines on training of school-based stakeholders, it is the responsibility of the provincial Department of Education to provide every school with a copy of national policy guidelines and to ensure that all schools comply. It also states that the Department must ensure that the school managers and educators are equipped to deal with the many challenges related to learner pregnancy (DoE, 2007:7). In the case of the four schools on this study, no support strategies were offered to teachers.

5.2.4.1.3 Lack of other professional school service providers
Another major challenge faced by teachers was the lack of school social workers at their schools to give support to PPLs. Teachers mentioned that school girl pregnancy had both physical and psychological complications, hence the unavailability of social workers was identified a key challenge at the four participating high schools.

They further explained that PPLs had academic, psychological and parenting problems which needed social workers to give support to PPLs. PMTs were requested to share their experiences on the challenges in teaching and monitoring PPLs at their schools. They gave various responses and the lack of other professionals at schools was discovered as a main challenge by PMTs.

The need for school social workers was pointed out by PMT from School B. He complained that:

*There is no social worker to help the PPLs. Some PPLs suffered from depression. Some pregnant girls develop suicidal tendencies or think*
of terminating the pregnancy. We cannot help them, they need social workers [PMT1, School B].

Class teachers suggested that PPLs need the help of other professionals because they were having social and family problems. The need for the involvement of other professionals was also mentioned by class teachers from School C who indicated that social workers can give psychological help to PPLs as he acknowledged that:

*Teachers alone cannot give support to PPLs. PPLs also have social and family problems. There is no other professionals like nurses, social workers and counsellors to give psychological support to PPLs [CT1, School D].*

The narrations revealed that there were no school social workers to give support to PPLs at the four secondary schools which were selected for the study. It was noted that PPLs had psychological and motherhood problems which needed social workers and teachers acknowledged that they were not able to offer such support to PPLs. The national policy guidelines provides that the pregnant learner must be considered a learner with special needs, with access to counselling by professionals of the Specialised Learner and Educator Support (SLES) component (WCDE, 2003:1).

**5.2.4.2 Challenges encountered by teachers on handling missed lessons**

Interviews conducted with PPLs discovered that PPLs were not given catch-up lessons. It also revealed that there was no adequate educational support given by teachers when PPLs missed lessons even if the PPL had a doctor`s letter.

PMTs were invited to share their experiences on the challenges in teaching and monitoring PPLs in ordinary school setting. A class teacher from School D justified not giving repeat lessons to PPLs because she followed pace setters, arguing that:

*I cannot repeat a lesson because we are following pace setters. There is no way in which I can sacrifice my whole class by assisting*
One parenting learner and my class fail common tests because I was behind the pace setter [CT1, School D].

One of the PMTs from School B argued that they do not offer repeat lessons because many PPLs were usually absent. She reasoned that:

\textit{PPLs cases are very difficult to deal with. The PPLs are frequently absent from school. How many repeat lessons can I offer in just one week? The policy mandates us to continue giving educational support to PPLs but this is not practically possible [PMT1, School B].}

The excuse given by teachers for failing to give repeat lessons to absent PPLs was attested by a SMT member from School A who stated that: “\textit{It is very difficult to handle missed lessons. I cannot expect teachers to repeat lessons to accommodate PPLs because they are following pace setters}” [SMT, School A]. The above statements illustrate that teachers cannot give repeat lessons to absent PPLs because they followed pace setters.

There was evidence showing that PPLs who were not given catch-up lessons by their teachers resulted in many PPLs repeating their grades. Earlier studies have demonstrated that the majority of school girl mothers have to repeat a grade when they return to school because of missed school work, poor performance and failure in the examination for promotion to the next grade (Panday et. al, 2009:59).

The study also revealed that teachers were well informed that they must continue giving PPLs educational support, but they followed pace-setters. In all the four participating schools, teachers did not give PPLs extra time to catch-up with the missed lessons’ tasks on their return for schooling after child birth. This is in spite of the fact that the policy guidelines (DoE, 2007:6) uphold that educators are mandated to be consistent in rendering support to parenting and pregnant learners. In practice, the national policy guidelines are not always observed in most South African schools.
5.2.4.3 Challenges faced by the duty bearers with compliance to the national policy guidelines on PPLs

Despite the alignment between the national policy and the school policy guidelines the study discovered that there was a challenge encountered by duty bearers with compliance to the national policy guidelines. This sub-theme outlines the challenges faced by the SGBs, SMTs, PMTs and class teachers with compliance with Measures for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy (DoE, 2007). These are the national policy guidelines that allow school girls to return to school after giving birth without restriction. It was discovered that the SGB members, SMT members, PMTs and class teachers of PPLs had sound knowledge of the national policy guidelines but experienced challenges when it comes to compliance with the national policy guidelines in their schools.

The SGB members registered their dissatisfaction by indicating that the presence of PPLs negatively affected the values of their school because pregnant learners could give birth at school. SGB members from School D indicated that the presence of pregnant learners negatively affected the status quo because pregnant learners were allowed to attend school. One SGB member claimed that:

\[ \text{Policy allows the pregnant learners to remain in school but the presence of pregnant learners at school negatively affects the values, vision and mission of our school. This is a serious challenge to teachers because when pregnant learners are due, they can give birth anytime in class [SGB5, School D].} \]

The above statement proved that as the education duty bearers, SGB members, who were mandated to adopt the Learners` Code of Conduct (SASA, 1996) were not willing to accommodate PPLs given that their major concern was inclusion of PPLs against the values of their schools. Apart from the SGB members expressing their discontent about compliance with the policy guidelines, they also expressed their frustrations with the policy guidelines.
The challenge of compliance with national policy guidelines was expressed by an SMT member from School B attested that parenting learners were usually late to school because of their daily mothering routines by indicating that: “Sometimes parenting learners do not have people to look after their kids, they have to first go via crèches to drop them. They usually arrive late at school and frequently absent” (SMT, School B). It was revealed that although the national policy guidelines allow PPLs to continue with their schooling, parenting learners were having their mothering challenges which negatively impacted on their learning opportunities. This shows that the parenting learners were not having adequate support systems at home such as child minders, meaning that they carried all the responsibilities of child caring alone. According to current research on learner pregnancy, PPLs were burdened with the responsibility of taking care of their babies and bear the consequences of adolescent pregnancy while boys who father the children (while still at school) are not called to take responsibility (Runhare & Hwami, 2014:183). Ritzer (2008:469), states that radical feminism is centred on two dominant principles which are; women are of absolute positive value as men and women are oppressed everywhere by the system of patriarchy. In this study, it was revealed that girls had to temporarily or permanently stop going to school due to pregnancy, giving birth or taking care of the baby while the father of the child continued going to school. This is inequality between men and women which feminists want to be totally eradicated (Stromquist, 2007:4).

PMTs were against the implementation of the national policy guidelines arguing that labour pains were unpredictable, and that pregnant learners could experience labour pains anytime even when they were at school which was a challenge to teachers. A PMT from School A, argued that they were not trained to handle post-natal complications. She complained that:

*When pregnant learners are in labour or post-natal complications, we don’t have such experience because we are not nurses, we are not trained but the department expects us to give them full educational support [PMT1, School C]*
It was demonstrated that teachers faced difficulties in dealing with pregnancy-related problems when trying to act in accordance with the national policy guidelines. It was also noted that teachers needed to be trained in order to effectively support PPLs cope with schooling.

Another dissatisfaction with compliance with the national policy guidelines was uncovered by SMT members who claimed that the presence of PPLs makes the school unmanageable because it divides the entire school.

An SMT member from School A expressed their frustration with the presence of PPLs in the school. He argued that:

*The national policy divides the learners. Learners were late, I let a heavily pregnant learner to go to class. One girl said they will all fall pregnant so that they get this special treatment. I had to release all of them without giving them punishment* [SMT, School A]

The study revealed that school management experienced difficulties in combining PPLs and the mainstream learners. It demonstrated that the school management accepted the pregnancy condition of learners, but the other learners felt that the pregnant learners were being given special treatment. The view by an SMT member from School A, which indicated that not only teachers required training on teaching PPLs but also the mainstream learners needed training on learning with PPLs is revealing.

5.2.4.4 Post-natal conditions affecting parenting learners

Apart from other challenges encountered by teachers when teaching PPLs at an ordinary school setting, post-natal conditions was also identified as a major problem which negatively impacted on the learning opportunities of parenting learners. The study revealed that there were post-natal conditions affecting parenting learners.
PMTs also disclosed that some parenting learners gave birth through caesarean, resulting in them being admitted for a long time in hospital followed by several check-ups after delivery. A PMT from School C asserted that some pregnant learners experience complications during child birth which delays them to return to school as she indicated that:

_Some pregnant learners gave birth by caesarean-section and unable to return back to school immediately after delivery. After returning back, she need to undergo medical check-ups. They are regularly absent from school [PMT2, School C]._

This statement shows that there were identified post-natal complications which negatively impacted on educational opportunities of parenting learners.

The challenge of post-natal condition was further elaborated by another PMT from School B who identified the psychological effects of motherhood as experienced by the parenting learners. She explained that:

_The academic performance of some parenting learners dropped because they are spending most of their times with their babies. They celebrate motherhood, and some drop out after giving birth [PMT1, School B]._

The study revealed that the teachers faced challenges caused by post-natal conditions when supporting the PPLs.

It was further found that some parenting learners dropped out of school in order to become full-time mothers for them to experience their natural mother-child bond. Grant and Hallman indicated that pregnancy and motherhood do not always interrupt young woman´s education in South Africa, but also introduced a new set of circumstances that influence future decisions related to schooling (Grant & Hallman, 2006:12).
Inadequate parental support

Although parents and guardians of PPLs were not part of the study, the views of study participants revealed that inadequate parental support is a challenge faced by teachers who taught PPLs in a normal school setting. The study revealed that SMT members, PMTs and class teachers felt that PPLs did not get adequate parental support resulting in PPLs failing to cope with their schooling. It was also revealed that some parents forced their daughters into early marriages when their daughters fell pregnant. The PMTs also divulged that some PPLs had psychological problems due to lack of parental support. The study found that amongst other factors, lack of parental support and forced early marriages contributed to dropping out of PPLs. This is also confirmed by the statement that says girls’ subordinate position in the gender and social hierarchy constrains their ability to make real choices around pregnancy (Jewkes, Morrell & Christofides, 2009:675).

A PMT from School B described the negative effects of inadequate parental support by indicating that some PPLs develop suicidal thoughts due to unsatisfactory parental support. He explained that:

Some PPLs suffered from depression and develop suicidal tendencies or think of terminating the pregnancy because of lack of parental support. Some parenting learners are frequently absent, and some resulted in dropping out because their parents are not helping with baby-sitting [PMT2, School B].

It was found that PPLs were not given adequate parental support which led to some PPLs suffering from depression. It was noted that inadequate parental support promoted regular absenteeism by parenting learners because of the unavailability of family members to assist with baby-sitting. I observed that among other factors, repeated absenteeism resulted in PPLs missing lessons and the majority repeated their grades. It was also shown that some parenting learners dropped out because there was no one to help with taking care of the baby while the mother was at school. Inadequate parental support was mentioned by PPL from School A, who indicating that:
I’m staying with my in-laws because my father chased me. My father does not allow me to visit my mother. I need my mother to baby-sit my child because I can’t read my books when my child is crying besides me [PPL1, School A].

Inadequate parental support completely disadvantaged parenting learners in their educational opportunities as indicated by PMTs. A PMT indicated that some parents forced their pregnant children into early marriages and the marital responsibilities expected by their in-laws negatively affected their learning capabilities. This is illustrated by the statement given by a pregnant learner from School B who complained that:

My parents chased me to stay with my parents-in-laws. When I come back from school, I must cook, clean and even bath the other children. Sometimes I fail to write my homework because I’m always tired [PPL2, School B].

The lack of positive responsibility by parents was also echoed by a PMT from School D who indicated that parents of PPLs forced their daughters into early marriages. She explained that:

Some parents do support early marriages and pregnant learners are unwillingly taken to their boyfriend’s families even at the ages of 13 or 14. Her in-laws expect her to do all the house chores henceforth they are always tired, late and no longer performing well in their studies [PMT2, School D].

It was realised that although the parenting learners willingly went back to school, their presence at school was fruitful because their parents forced them into early marriages. I realised that the demands of matrimonial responsibilities pressurised the parenting learners to compromise their school responsibilities which led to their poor academic achievements. It was further shown that early marriages negatively impacted on the educational performance of PPLs and some PPLs were depressed and had suicidal thoughts. Earlier studies have shown that parents promoted early marriages and some
families contributed to emotional pressure on the pregnant girls by forcing them into early marriages (Chigona & Chetty, 2007:1). Liberal feminism is against forced early marriages by parents. Bryson (2003:139) indicates that liberal feminists argue that as individuals, women are equal to men, and should therefore, be given equal opportunities as men to pursue their self-interests. PPLs were deprived of their self-choices to continue with schooling because their parents forced them into early marriages.

5.2.4.6 PPLs problems learning in an ordinary school setting

The study unveiled that PPLs had problems in learning in an ordinary school setting which negatively affected their learning needs. PPLs experienced the following problems when learning in an ordinary school setting: infrastructure and unsuitable furniture for PPLs and also unsuitable school operations and infrastructure.

5.2.4.6.1 Infrastructure and unsuitable furniture for PPLs

Apart from absenteeism teachers also complained about the lack of suitable furniture which made it difficult to accommodate pregnant learners at normal school settings. For instance, teachers indicated that unsuitable furniture contributed to fatigue as experienced by majority of pregnant learners. Both PMTs and class teachers were questioned on the problems which affected pregnant learners within their school in general. The effects of school infrastructure on PPLs, was raised by one PMT from School A, who mentioned that their school toilets were far from classes and pregnant learners missed lessons when they go to toilet.

She explained that:

They hardly walk meanwhile they frequently go to toilet. They miss lessons even when they are at school because our toilets are far away from the classes [PMT1, School A].

Apart from the challenge presented by lack of infrastructure pregnant learners from School B also mentioned improper furniture as another challenge. One of them explained that:
“I am always tired because of the desk. My belly is big, and the desk is small, I can’t stretch my legs. I don’t sit comfortable meanwhile we sit for two hours before break” (PPL1, School C). The study further divulged that the physical setting of the classrooms, positioning of toilets and furniture contributed to tiredness which negatively affected teaching and learning among PPLs.

5.2.4.6.2 Unsuitable school operations and infrastructure

Apart from the infrastructure and unsuitable furniture as problems faced by PPLs in normal school setting, the study further disclosed that ordinary school arrangements were a disadvantage to PPLs because they did not suit their pregnant and parenting status. The ordinary school operations include long school hours and normal school uniform. It was pointed out that normal school settings did not accommodate PPLs.

PPLs demonstrated that long school hours were not suitable to meet their pregnancy and parenting situations. Although long school hours were beneficial to both teachers and all learners for curriculum coverage it was pointed out that long school hours had unfavourable effects on the health of pregnant learners.

The effects of long school days to PPLs was revealed by a PPL from School B who indicated that she could hardly stand up by the end of school day and complained that:

When I was pregnant, I was always very tired and had swollen legs due to sitting for long hours. We started morning studies at 06:30 and I hardly stand up at 16h00, after school. It’s was so painful [PPL1, School B].

This clearly shows that the negative effects of school hours on pregnant learners.

Regarding normal school uniform, pregnant leaners felt embarrassed to wear school uniform when their bellies became very big due to their pregnancy condition. The feeling
of disgrace when wearing unfit normal school uniform was shared by PPL from School B who complained that:

*I am eight months pregnant and my legs get swollen. I could not put on my school shoes and other learners laugh at me. It`s so frustrating. They don`t understand what I am going* [PPL1, School C].

Another challenge associated with wearing school uniform was also raised by a PPL from School B who complained that: “*My shirts become too small and unfit on account of pregnancy. My big belly is always out, and I feel ashamed around my fellow learners*” [PPL2, School B]. These statements illustrate the negative effects associated with wearing normal school uniforms. Chigona and Chetty (2008:274) have noted pregnant teenagers had to be in normal school uniform and this made them to be ridiculed on their way to and from school resulting in many dropping out of school.

Pregnant learners revealed that they were uncomfortable during oral presentations because they were expected to stand in front of other learners. This sentiment was related by a PPL from School A, who shared her shameful experience when she made an oral presentation in front of the whole class when she was heavily pregnant.

She complained that:

*When I was pregnant, during oral presentations I was so humiliated. It was embarrassing when I stood in front of other learners with that big belly while other learners laughed at me. I felt like dropping out* [PPL1, School A].

Pregnant learners are regarded as learners with special needs and teachers are required to create private spaces to encourage learners to make their oral presentations. The performance of pregnant learners might have been negatively affected because of the embarrassment she felt while standing in front of her classmates. Related to the problems of PPLs, Pillow (2006:10) argued that the quality of learning or the girl’s educational experiences is likewise affected by a pregnancy, since pregnant students
tend to feel tired and lack concentration at school and sometimes are obliged to miss classes for medical reasons.

5.2.4.7 Mainstream learners` challenges of learning with PPLs in a formal school setting

In spite of the recognition of mainstream learners as role players in the support system of PPLs, mainstream learners also experienced challenges in learning with PPLs in normal school settings. Teachers also faced challenges with the combining PPLs and mainstream learners. The study established that the inclusion disturbed the normal smooth running of lessons due to unforeseen circumstances related to pregnancy. Mainstream learners reported that their lessons were disturbed due to pregnancy-related situations. One mainstream learner from School C complained that:

One learner nearly gave birth in class. We were instructed to leave the class while teachers helped her. Our lessons were disrupted that day. Pregnant learners must stay at home, so we can learn without disruptions [ML1, School C].

This statement shows that mainstream learners were reluctant to learn with PPLs because of unpredictable conditions related to pregnancy. The whole situation challenges schools and parents to work together so that teachers have correct estimations of due dates to avoid these traumatic situations to learners. These unpredictable situations demanded the schools to review their learners` code of conduct and give pregnant learners early sick leaves before their actual due dates.

A clear indication that the mainstream learners experienced problems when learning with PPLs was demonstrated by another mainstream learner from School B who complained that PPLs disturbed them due to their pregnancy. She complained that:

We don’t want to learn with them nor grouped with them. They disturb us. Imagine myself discussing in a group with someone who is having such a big belly. As for parenting learners, sometimes you can see wet shirts due to breast milk coming out [ML4, School B].
The quotation above shows serious unwelcoming attitudes by the mainstream learners. It shows that mainstream learners were totally against learning with PPLs. The study revealed that mainstream learners were experiencing psychological problems when learning with PPLs. The study also found that the moody behaviour of PPLs was typified by a pregnant learner who kept quiet, not informing teachers until she nearly gave birth in class, thereby making mainstream learners to be uncomfortable in their class. This is confirmed by Dlamini (2016: 27) who pointed out that support from teachers plays a role in decisions of the young mothers to stay in school. She added that teenage mothers drop out due to lack of support from family, friends (peers) and teachers’ attitudes towards them during and after pregnancy. This is also corroborated by UNICEF (2008:31) which notes that a safer and caring child-friendly school promotes gender sensitivity, equality and equity.

5.2.5 Need for Support Strategies for Helping Stakeholders to Assist PPLs to Cope with Schooling

Having identified and discussed challenges that schools and PPLs face, this study also sought to find out how schools can be assisted to support PPLs achieve their educational goals within an ordinary school setting. The views of participants on educational support of PPLs are presented and discussed under four emerging sub-themes discussed below.

5.2.5.1 Support to teachers for PPLs in an ordinary school

As policy implementers, teachers are required to give continuous proper support to PPLs in order to help PPLs to help them cope with their schooling. It was realised that teachers were not giving maximum support to PPLs because they were not trained, nor empowered to support PPLs in a normal school setting.

Teachers needed proper training and professional continuous support to assist them to fulfil their delegated responsibilities which include teaching meeting the needs of PPLs in an ordinary school setting. An essential support to teachers was proposed by a PMT from
School C who argued that teachers must be offered proper continuous training. He opined that:

*Teachers need proper continuous training. We are just operating on humanitarian grounds therefore it is very difficult for us to teach PPLs. Some teachers are highly emotional when it comes to early motherhood. We need to be trained on how to support PPLs [CT2, School B].*

The importance of training was also emphasised by a class teacher from School D who recommends that:

*Teachers need to be trained on accommodating PPLs in normal classroom situation. We don`t know the strategies to use in inclusive class. We need to be trained on handling PPLs` cases [CT1, School D].*

It was found that teachers used their own discretion which was influenced by their personalities when dealing with PPLs. I noted that the teachers` discretions had resulted in inconsistencies, unfairness and inequalities when supporting, dealing and handling pregnancy situations. This is why the PMT from School C suggested that teachers needed proper training in order to fulfil their delegated duties of giving satisfactory educational support to PPLs.

5.2.5.2 Support to mainstream learners for effective learning with PPLs in an ordinary school

Mainstream learners were also recognised in the national policy guidelines amongst others who required assisted because they are also affected by the pregnancy of their classmates (DoE, 2007:4). The study found that despite the negative attitudes towards PPLs some mainstream learners showed respect and tolerating attitudes towards PPLs. It was found that some mainstream learners showed positive attitudes towards supporting PPLs to cope with their schooling. Mainstream learners suggested that teachers must teach them to love and respect and those who ill-treat PPLs must be severely punished.
One Mainstream learner from School B sympathised with the PPLs and indicated that teachers and the principal must always remind mainstream learners to learn with PPLs in a friendly way. She suggested that:

*Teachers must teach us to love and respect the PPLs. We must have class meetings whereby our class teacher can teach us about learning with PPLs. Principal must also talk to us during assembly and punish bullies* [ML3, School D].

It was found that although some mainstream learners showed negative attitudes towards inclusion of PPLs and mainstream learners in an ordinary school setting, others had positive attitudes towards PPLs. The study acknowledged that mainstream learners were trustful and confident that their principals’ formal announcement at assembly would be powerful to encourage and motivate the mainstream learners to respect PPLs. Class teachers proposed that mainstream learners needed to be trained to support PPLs.

Class teachers from School B suggested that mainstream learners must be trained to learn and work with the PPLs from lower grades. One class teacher proposed that: *Mainstream learners must be trained to learn and work with PPLs in their groups from Grade 8. It very difficult for us if we start to group or pair them in Grade 10 because they reject PPLs* [CT2, School B]. It was suggested that pairing and team-working of mainstream learners and PPLs should start at Grades 8 and 9 rather than grouping them when they reach Grades 10-12. I regarded that as helpful in laying a foundation of teaching mainstream learners to have accepting attitudes towards PPLs.

PMTs pointed out that it was essential for both teachers and mainstream learners to offer training to enable them to give adequate educational support to PPLs. Another suggestion on the support to mainstream learners was made by a PMT from School C who indicated that both teachers and mainstream learners required training on teaching and learning with PPLs and suggested:

*I think both teachers and mainstream learners need training. If we are trained and empowered, then we can train the mainstream learners.*
Other learners cannot able to accommodate and support the PPLs if teachers themselves are not showing support [PMT1, School C].

It was noted that PMTs knew that both teachers and mainstream learners required proper training to support PPLs. It was also disclosed that the attitudes of teachers influenced the attitudes of mainstream learners. Mainstream learners could not show support and accommodate PPLs if teachers were not displaying accommodating attitudes towards PPLs. SGB members also indicated that the mainstream learners should be trained to be able to support PPLs. But still from mainstream learners, it was proposed by an SGB member from School A who suggested that mainstream learners must be trained to show support to PPLs. She suggested that:

*We must teach mainstream learners to respect the PPLs. They should be trained to love, support and work with PPLs. They must be taught that laughing at PPLs may put unnecessary pressure and some may discontinue with their schooling [SGB2, School A].*

It was found that SGBs were well-informed that mainstream learners needed training to support the PPLs. It was observed that amongst the other factors, humiliation was one of the reasons why PPLs dropped out as illustrated by an SGB from School A. It was reported by earlier researchers that all learners are subject to educational policies that oblige them not to discriminate against fellow learners, and which ostensibly provide policy protection for pregnant and parenting learners (Morrell, Bhana & Sheffer, 2008:78). Schools have a constitutional obligational to promote gender equality.

In relation to the tolerance of PPLs by mainstream learners, the African Youth Charter (2006) in Article 13, obligation No.1 affirms that every young person (PPLs included) shall have the right to education of good quality. With specific reference to Article 13(a) which states that the education of young people shall be directed to promotion and holistic development of the young person`s cognitive and emotional abilities of full potential.
5.2.5.3 Support to PPLs to Cope with education in an ordinary schooling setting

Regardless of the negative factors which affect the educational opportunities of PPLs, necessary support can make the continuation and returning of PPLs to school educationally worth doing. This sub-theme aims to present and discuss the educational support illustrated by PMTs and class teachers to assist PPLs to cope with their schooling. The views of the PPLs revealed that they needed educational support from SGBs, SMTs, PMTs, class teachers as well as mainstream learners. The study further indicated that educational support was needed from both their school and home.

5.2.5.3.1 Improvement of coping strategies of PPLs in an ordinary school

The study suggested that if there was an improvement in coping mechanisms, PPLs can successfully cope with their schooling. Strategies were needed for PPLs to cope with their schooling. PMTs maintained that there should be equal treatment of both PPLs and mainstream leaners by all teachers. PMTs were against the neglect of PPLs by teachers. They encouraged showing kindness as a way of enabling PPLs to cope with their schooling. A statement on improvement of treatment of PPLs was proposed by PMT from School D who recommends that:

*The PPLs must be treated like the mainstream learners by all teachers. They are like their peers, they must be treated equally. Mainstream learners must not ill-treat the PPLs. Both teachers and mainstream learners must show respect to PPLs [PMT2, School D].*

The statement above suggests that there was a need to promote a fair and equal learning environment by both teachers and mainstream learners. It was evident that equal treatment of both PPLs and mainstream learners would enhance the coping ways of PPLs. The effect of showing kindness to PPLs was demonstrated by PMT from School B who also indicated that out of goodwill, something good can come out of PPLs. She stated that:

*We must not throw them away, we must still show them a good way and love even if they have made a mistake. It is high time that we always*
be positive to them. Maybe out of our goodwill, something good will come out of these PPLs [PMT2, School B]

The statement demonstrates sympathy of PMTs towards PPLs. It was acknowledged that PMTs still had academic hopes on the life of the PPLs.

5.2.5.3.2 Modification of formal school operations

The study further established the need to modify ordinary school operations as an academic support to help PPLs to cope with their schooling. It was indicated that the ordinary school operations were not appropriate to accomplish the educational needs of PPLs as discussed under sub-theme on PPLs’ problems of learning in an ordinary school setting. PPLs suggested the modification of ordinary school operations, which includes long school hours, normal school uniform, normal lesson presentation and creating privacy for PPLs.

PPLs suggested that the SMT must consider the pregnancy and mothering situations of PPLs by exempting them from morning and afternoon studies. The problem of long school hours was advocated by a PPL from School A, who wished-for special considerations to PPLs by suggesting that PPLs must be exempted from afternoon studies because they were unsuitable for PPLs because of their parenting situations. She recommended that:

The principal must exempt all parenting learners from morning and afternoon studies so that they have enough time to breast feed their children. Pregnant learners must also be exempted because they get tired due to long school hours [PPL2, School B].

It was noted that the PPLs needed to learn the whole day but were uncomfortable because of long school hours. Apart from the long school hours, PPLs also suggested adjustments in relation to requirements for a normal school uniform in order for them to fit into the physical conditions of the pregnant learners and to avoid embarrassment because of the unfit normal school uniform. Adjustments on normal school uniform to suit
pregnant learners when they were highly expecting was suggested by one PPL from School C who advised that:

*The principal must allow pregnant learners to wear white t-shirt or white vest under their white shirts. It so embarrassing to show your big belly because of wearing unfit shirt [PPL1, School C].*

The statement demonstrates that pregnant learners were ready to attend school and their problem was the unfitting school uniforms due to their physical circumstances. This challenges the SGB to review their Leaners Code of Conduct and make some adjustments on school uniform which can accommodate pregnant learners but the adjustment must not compromise on the quality of teaching and learning and must remain in line with the vision and mission of the school.

5.2.5.4 Strengthening the gap between national policy guidelines and practice on PPLs

Taking into consideration of the discrepancy between the national policies and school practice, this sub-theme aimed to strengthen the specified gaps in order to enhance effective educational support to PPLs. PMTs and SMTs suggested that the DoE must conduct training for key duty bearers such as SGBs, SMTs, PMTs and class teachers on the implementation of national policy guidelines at schools.

The effectiveness of the training on the implementation of national policy guidelines was proposed by PMT from School C who stated that the DoE must offer training and support to teachers as he suggested that:

*I think proper training to teachers by the department is seriously needed because teachers’ perceptions and beliefs conflict with compliance to the national policy guidelines. The DoE must conduct workshops to train teachers and SGBs [PMT1, School C].*
Another proposal on training was made by a class teacher from School B who emphasised that DoE must organise workshops on the implementation of national policy for both SGBs and teachers. He stated that:

*It could be easy if the government could organise workshops for both SGBs and teachers on how to implement the national policy because we are not sure how to deal with learner pregnancy at school [PMT2, School B].*

The significance of training was also highlighted by a SMT member from School D who gave advice that all challenges faced by teachers can be solved by proper training and continuous support by recommending that:

*The challenges faced by teachers with compliance to national policy guidelines can be resolved by training. The department must conduct workshops to offer proper training and continuous support to both teachers and the SGBs [SMT, School D].*

The statements suggest that proper training and continuous support on the implementation of national policy guidelines can address the gap between the national policy and practices at schools. It was evident that the key duty bearers expected the DoE to conduct workshops on the implementation of national policy. It was also believed that the proper training and continuous support offered to key duty bearers could close the gaps between the national policy and practices at schools.

### 5.2.6 Benefits of Inclusion of PPLs in Formal Schools

Due to challenges faced by PPLs in ordinary school setting, earlier studies conducted recommends that the DoE should provide separate classes or schools for PPLs so that PPLs can give each other support and to eliminate the community idea that PPLs contaminate the so-called normal learners (Chigona & Chetty, 2008:277). However, other researchers concurred that the presence of PPLs in a formal school requires that mainstream learners and PPLs themselves benefit from the teaching and learning that
goes on in school (Runhare & Vanderyar, 2011:15). They also claimed that without academic benefits for both the mainstream learners and PPLs, inclusion of PPLs could be just a matter of policy compliance by schools. It is for this reason that this study sought to find out the benefits that mainstream learners and PPLs accrued from the inclusion of PPLs at the four schools which were selected for investigation. From the study, while challenges seemed to be more than benefits, not all hope is lost because there are some potential prospects from inclusion of PPLs in formal schools.

5.2.6.1 Neutralising the stigma against PPLs

As indicated earlier, in a study conducted by Chigona and Chetty, in the year 2000, the Gender Commission on Gender Equity stated that the South African Ministry of Education received many complaints from parenting learners regarding the unfair treatment in their schools caused by both teachers and their fellow learners (Chigona & Chetty, 2007:4). The study disclosed that PPLs were stigmatised as a result, some ended up dropping out but the inclusion of PPLs, to some extent served to fight the stigma against PPLs. Although some mainstream learners had negative attitudes towards PPLs, others had accepted the presence of PPLs in formal schools on the understanding that PPLs have their right to education. Some mainstream learners demonstrated the educational support they gave to PPLs as their peers, classmates and schoolmates.

A friendly acceptance of PPLs was demonstrated by one mainstream learner from School B who acknowledged that: *My table mate is a pregnant learner, when she is absent, I give her notes and teach her if she doesn’t understand* [ML2, School D].

This statement is not only encouraging, but also a demonstration of the true spirit of Ubuntu by mainstream learners. There was evidence of sharing, loving, team work and accepting among PPLs and mainstream learners. It was also found that some female mainstream learners ill-treated PPLs less than male mainstream learners. A mainstream learner from School C stated that: *“We support and protect them. We try to intervene when some classmates bully and verbally abuse them. We write their names and report to our class teacher”* [ML3, School C].
This statement demonstrates that some moral support was given to PPLs by some mainstream learners. It was revealed that some mainstream learners protected the PPLs against the ill-disciplined learners. The statement also revealed the positive role played by class representatives or class prefects which included protecting, intervening and reporting abuse of PPLs to their class teachers.

According to Education Rights in South Africa, both schools and learners need to be well informed on how to ensure that pregnant learners are able to get quality education that is free of prejudice and stigmatisation (Education Rights in South Africa. 2017:162). The impact of stigmatisation of PPLs was also noted by other scholars who strongly affirmed that teenagers who become pregnant are stigmatised by the community during or after pregnancy, which leads to depression, social exclusion, low self-esteem and poor academic performance affecting the prospects of employment in the future (Panday et al., 2009:43).

Dlamini (2016:26-27) attested that stigma remains one of the biggest challenges hindering teenagers from accessing the necessary information and resources, hence they feel isolated and may drop-out of school. Related to this study which aims to support the PPLs to cope with their schooling, liberal feminism believes that women have the same legal rights to education and work opportunities as men. Liberal feminism aims to eradicate discrimination and to promote gender equality and mainstreaming by ensuring that government laws and policies do not adversely affect women but address women`s needs (Lorber, 2010:25).

5.2.6.2 Upholding Education as a Human Right

The South African Schools Act (SASA) No. 84 of 1996 endorses the fundamental value of equality and opportunities in a democratic education system, thereby protecting the rights of learners at schools (SASA, 1996). The study revealed that the right to education for PPLs was upheld at schools even though there were challenges and functional weaknesses on some school interventions. Evidence that the schools endorsed the rights of PPLs was also given by an SGB member from School D who explained that they
encourage both teachers and mainstream learners to give educational support to PPLs. He explained that:

*We encourage both teachers and mainstream learners to give educational support to PPLs. We motivate the PPLs to continue with their schooling because if they drop out, they will not get good jobs as a result their children will steal from us* [SGB2, School D].

The above statement shows that SGBs had sound knowledge of their roles as school governors. It was noted that SGB promoted education by motivating learners including PPLs. Evidence of accepting and respecting the presence of PPLs in ordinary school was demonstrated by a mainstream learner from School A who indicated that they understand that PPLs belong in their class and work together. He explained that:

*We love and respect them because they are our friends. We learn together and help them with their schoolwork although some classmates reject them. We understand that they belong in our class and we work together* [ML4, School A].

Another statement which showed tolerance of PPLs was made by a mainstream learner from School B who said that:

*We learn with them in our class. We understand that they are also learners though they have babies. We respect their right to education. Without education, they will suffer* [ML5, School B].

This statement demonstrates that some mainstream learners were tolerant of PPLs. The statement also revealed a clear understanding of inclusion of PPLs and mainstream learners.

The promotion and support of educational rights of PPLs as illustrated is in line with the Constitution of Republic of South Africa Number 108, 1996. This strongly confirms that pregnant learners and teenage mothers’ rights are guaranteed by the constitution in South Africa (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996:1247). Furthermore,
under Article 13 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) which indicates that the state are required to recognise the right of everyone to education, which needs to be focused on the complete growth of the personality of individuals, as directed to the full development of the human personality, a sense of its dignity and stresses respect which needs to safeguard human rights and essential freedoms. In the same vein, Gandari et al. (2012:16), advocates for radical feminism work towards creating alternative social institutions which fulfil the needs of women, at the same time allowing women to make choices on social and health issues that affect them and rejecting pressures that are exerted by patriarchy.

5.2.6.3 Fighting against women abuse in society
Regardless of the learning problems experienced by PPLs in normal school settings, the study found that PPLs were abused in all spheres of their lives, be it the class, school, home or in the community. Although the study focused on the school setting, PPLs also reported that they were abused at home and within communities. Available research reveals that both the school and the home represented and cultivated expectations, attitudes, values and beliefs of the entire community regarding the treatment of learners who are pregnant (Runhare & Vanderyar, 2011:18). In the same vein, socialist feminists demand change by means of making a global solidarity amongst women to combat abuses, their lives, the lives of the communities and the socio-economic environment (Ritzer, 2008:477). From the socialist feminist theoretical view, the input of this research study is to make a favourable environment for the PPLs so that they are not discriminated against in the home, the school, community at large and in any other life chances.

Apart from ill-discipline among learners who display negative attitudes towards PPLs, some mainstream learners mentioned that they supported, respected and protected PPLs against the bullies. The protection of PPLs against abuse was demonstrated by mainstream learner from School A, who stated that:

_We try to protect and fight for them because they are powerless. We report the disrespecting boys to teachers. We encourage our fellows to support the PPLs [ML4, School A]._
The statement demonstrates positive attitudes towards PPLs by some mainstream learners. The statement also shows that apart from being classmates, PPLs were also their friends and sisters. Similar sentiments on the protection of rights of PPLs were made by a mainstream learner from School B who discouraged emotional abuse of PPLs and recommends severe punishment to ill-disciplined learners who abuse PPLs. He proposed that: “We try to support and protect the PPLs against the bullies. We encourage fellow classmates more especially boys to respect the PPLs” [ML3, School D].

The statement demonstrates that some mainstream learners had sound acknowledgement of protection of human rights for PPLs. Some mainstream learners suggested that punishment to ill-disciplined learners showed that they were protecting PPLs against bullies. Another statement on the defence of PPLs against misbehaving learners was also mentioned by a PMT from School D who indicated that they encouraged both teachers and mainstream learners to give support and protection to PPLs as she alluded that:

We strive to support the PPLs considering both their educational and emotional needs. We also encourage both teachers and mainstream learners to give protection to PPLs against misbehaving learners. We also motivate PPLs to report any problem to us [PMT2, School D].

It was revealed that PMTs were fulfilling their duties to encourage and motivate both teachers and mainstream learners to give support to PPLs. However, the study revealed that PPLs were emotionally abused at school, home and within the communities. The study also revealed that society regards school girl pregnancy as immorality. It furthermore revealed that in practice, gender inequality is still prevailing in South African schools. It is confirmed that pregnant learners’ still experience gender-specific barriers to basic education in a way that decreases their learning opportunities (Education Rights in South Africa; 2017:163).
According to related research, teenage pregnancy is still regarded by many societies as a major threat to gains on educational achievement in public schools, hence, societies placed the blame of teenage pregnancy as associated it with personal neglect from the girl’s side and not from both boy and girl (Chigona & Chetty, 2007:4). In the same vein, Lemons (2009:5) concurs that society no longer separates the life of a mother and child, nor does the mother face the life of shame and seclusion, nor does being a child born out of wedlock carry the stigma it once did. Radical feminists would complain that societies regard pregnancy of teenage girls (PPLs included) as culturally, socially and unethically disgraceful and this results in PPLs experiencing educational challenges which leads to drop-out while the father of the baby (if also a learner) unfairly continues freely with his education.

5.3 UNDERLYING CAUSES OF INADEQUATE SUPPORT TO PPLS IN FORMAL SCHOOLS

Apart from main challenges that obstructed SMT members, PMTs and teachers from giving educational support to PPLs, the study discovered some underlying reasons why they did not offer adequate support to PPLs. These had mainly to do with teachers’ influence and cultural influences on PPLs.

5.3.1 Influence of Teachers` Perceptions to PPLs

SMT members, as part of school management, pointed out that teachers` negative perceptions had an influence on the teaching and learning needs of PPLs. The cause of inadequate support to PPLs was identified by an SMT member from School B who indicated that there was no maximum support from teachers due to teachers` perceptions on premature pregnancy. She stated that:

*There is nothing we can do because teachers have their own beliefs, values and religions. There is no maximum support given to PPLs due to teachers' perceptions towards early pregnancies [SMT, School C].*
The influence of teachers` perceptions when dealing with learner cases was exposed by class teachers from School B who indicated that the support given to PPLs was affected because some teachers were sensitive to early pregnancies. One class teacher commented that:

_The academic support given to PPLs is not adequate because it is affected by the personality of the teacher. Some teachers are very sensitive when it comes to premature pregnancy [CT2, School B]._

These statements demonstrate the inadequate support given to PLLs by their teachers. It further exposed the influence of teachers` negative perceptions towards PPLs which resulted inadequate support.

Sharing the same sentiment with class teachers on how personalities of teachers influence the teaching and learning needs of PPLs, an SMT member from School C also divulged that teachers use their own discretion depending on their perceptions in handling PPLs` problems. She stated that:

_There is no maximum support from the teachers due to teachers` perceptions, culture and beliefs. We were just given policy to implement by DoE, no training and teachers have different perceptions on learner pregnancy. They use their own discretions [SMT, School D]._

The statement revealed that teachers used their own discretion which was influenced by their beliefs. It was evident that there was dominance of teachers` negative perceptions which made it difficult to implement the policy guidelines.

Earlier studies revealed that there were attitudes as well as socio-economic perceptions that hinder the complete participation of pregnant learners in engaging with the curricular of the school (Grant & Hallman, 2006:9).
5.3.2 Cultural Influence to PPLs Treatment in Schools

The study also revealed that cultural influences also contributed to the inadequate educational support given to PPLs. The influence of culture in relation to the pregnant learners at schools was raised by an SGB member from School B who indicated that culturally, a pregnant person was not expected to be found everywhere for the sake of her health. She complained that:

*In our culture, a pregnant person must not be found all over the places for the sake of her health and that of the unborn baby. How is she going to take a nap if the unborn baby need to rest inside the class? Pregnant learners must stay at home for the sake of the other learners* [SGB5, School B].

Similar views were shared by another SGB member from School C who indicated that:

*We have our traditional practices which we also need to observe even at schools. School is part of community. Pregnant learners are expected to stay at home until they give birth* [SGB2, School C].

Similarly, an SGB member from School C indicated that some years back, both boys and girls were expelled from school if the girl fell pregnant. He stated that:

*Traditionally, it is disregarded for a girl to fall pregnant. Before democracy, no school girl could dare consider sleeping with a boy. We were expelled from school if you fall pregnant or impregnate a girl* [SGB4, School A].

The sentiments by these SGB members demonstrates the effects of culture on the handling of PPLs matters. It was evident that the SGB members, who were the school governors, were implementing national policy guidelines meanwhile their minds were full of traditional practices. It was established that there were conflicts between the policy guidelines and the cultural practices of SGBs which resulted in inadequate support given to PPLs.
The study established that the cultural backgrounds of learners played a crucial role in handling the negative effects of school girl pregnancy. In the same vein, Runhare and Vanderyar (2011:18), note that the school is a miniature of the bigger society which shows the socio-cultural patterns of how the entire society is organised and functions. The four participating secondary schools were part of the community. PPLs were treated unfairly and the national policy guidelines were not implemented consistently because the thoughts of the key duty bearers were preoccupied by their culture. Chilisa (2002:34) contends that society and school control opinions of pregnant learners and parenting learners through intimidation and stigmatisation that demoralises parenting learners from returning to the school system. According to liberal feminism, the idea that women must obtain equal opportunities and equal rights in society builds a just society as opposed to gender stereotyping and discrimination whereby women access less chances of education, fewer job opportunities and other social dimensions in society (Stromquist, 2005:10).

In this study, the attitude of the key duty bearers on handling school girl pregnancy were strongly influenced by their cultural morals and views and this resulted in improper implementation of education policies or measures on management of learner pregnancy hence PPLs were not given adequate educational support in both schools.

5.4 EVIDENCE FROM SCHOOL DOCUMENTS

This section discusses documents used by key duty bearers to provide school guidelines on PPLs’ attendance at the four participating schools. Textual data were obtained from school documents such as attendance registers and pregnancy monitoring registers. A comprehensive study of Learners’ Code of Conduct was also undertaken.

5.4.1 Evidence from Attendance Registers

Attendance registers were made available at schools and there was evidence which indicated that PPLs were habitually absent as revealed by the SMTs, PMTs and class
teachers during individual interviews. I went through the attendance registers of grade nine, ten and eleven because these were the grades which had many PPLs between 2017 and June 2018. I found that amongst girls, the frequent absent learners were PPLs. I further realised that amongst PPLs, the most frequent absent learners were parenting learners than pregnant learners in both schools. This confirmed the challenge of absenteeism of PPLs as raised earlier by the class teachers and PMTs (See Appendix 12).

5.4.2 Evidence from Pregnancy Monitoring Registers

The pregnancy monitoring registers were made accessible at the four participating schools as evidence of the presence of pregnant learners at their schools. I went through the pregnancy monitoring registers as recorded from January 2017-June 2018. The documents were found to be valid, signed and stamped. I found that some pregnant learners were frequently absent from school for at least once or twice a week due to various reasons as revealed by the class teachers and PMTs. I also noted that most pregnant learners were found in Grade 10. No pregnant learners in Grade 8 were registered during the time when this study was conducted in the four schools (See Appendix 13).

5.4.3 Evidence from Learners` Code of Conduct

According to SASA No 84 of 1996, Learners` Code of Conduct must have provisions on the prevention and management of learner pregnancy. The Learners` Code of Conduct as an administrative document was made available as evidence that the schools had school policy guidelines. I went through the Learners` Code of Conduct specifically on the clause which deals with prevention and management of learner pregnancy. I found that there was no clause which addressed the prevention and management of learner pregnancy in all the four school-learners` codes of conduct. (See Appendix 11).
5.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has presented, and interpreted data collected from the 68 sampled participants for the study. The participants comprised of twenty SGB members, four SMT members, twenty mainstream learners, eight PMT members, eight class teachers and eight PPLs from the four participating secondary schools found in the Mopani District of Limpopo Province.

Data were interpreted and analysed using six interrelated themes, namely factors that negatively affect the educational opportunities of PPLs, school-based interventions on the negative effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning, effectiveness of the school-based interventions on the teaching and learning of PPLs, challenges faced by the duty bearers in supporting PPLs to cope with schooling, support strategies for helping stakeholders to assist PPLs to cope with schooling and benefits for inclusion of PPLs in formal schooling.

The study found that the educational opportunities of PPLs were negatively affected by several factors within the school and their pregnant condition. These include negative attitudes of teachers towards the teaching needs of PPLs which resulted in poor academic performance of PPLs. Inadequate educational support given to PPLs by SGBs, principal, SMTs, PMTs, class teachers and subject teachers contributed to poor inclusion of PPLs in ordinary school settings. In addition, negative attitudes towards PPLs by mainstream learners towards, resulted in PPLs suffering from exclusion from the school system. In relation to school-based interventions, the study revealed that there were a number of school interventions on the negative effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning implemented by the key duty bearers. The establishment of PMTs at schools as an intervention to allow learners that are pregnant to continue with school was found to be helpful. It was revealed that PPLs continued with schooling before and after giving birth. The study also unveiled that some PPLs managed to complete their studies under the monitoring of PMTs. There were however, inconsistencies in the way in which intervention strategies were implemented to improve the schooling of PPLs. This unequal
treatment of PPLs was contrary to the provisions of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. The findings established that mainstream learners faced challenges of learning with PPLs in normal school setting. The study established that the inclusion of PPLs in a normal school setting disturbed the normal school operations due to unexpected conditions related to pregnancy. The review of school documents such as attendance registers and pregnancy monitoring registers confirmed that PPLs were frequently absent from school. This study discovered that the learners’ code of conduct did not have a clause on prevention and management of learner pregnancy (DoE, 2007:3). The next chapter discusses findings from the study. The discussion focuses on establishing and explaining similarities and differences among the four schools which are part of the study sites. The outcomes of this study are also related to other related studies and the theoretical framework which underpinned my study.
CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, a presentation of data that were gathered from the participants of the study was made. This chapter presents a summary of the study findings based on data gathered from focus group interviews and the individual interviews conducted in four secondary schools and the document analysis.

The discussion is basically guided by the six main themes that emerged from the study, namely; factors that negatively affect the educational opportunities of PPLs, school-based intervention strategies on the negative effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning as well as its effectiveness on supporting pregnant and parenting learners (PPLs). The other themes were challenges faced by duty bearers in supporting PPLs, support strategies for helping stakeholders to assist PPLs and strategies and benefits for inclusion of PPLs in formal schooling.

Literature review related to this study enabled me to learn and to discern more insights into ways of addressing the negative effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning, through comparing the existing knowledge, the current practices and what was established in this study.

6.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The main aim of this study was to examine school-based interventions on effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning in four selected secondary schools in the Mopani District in Limpopo Province of South Africa. The study sought to examine the challenges faced by school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning, explore the interventions used by key duty bearers to address the effects of school girl pregnancy on
learning, the effectiveness of the interventions to help the PPLs to cope with their schooling as well as to explore the challenges encountered by key duty bearers in supporting the PPLs at school level.

In the study, focus group interviews were used to collect data from members of the School Governing Bodies (SGBs), parents and mainstream learners. Individual interviews were also used to collect data from the members of the School Management Team (SMTs), Pregnancy Monitoring Teachers (PMTs), class teachers and the Pregnant and Parenting Learners (PPLs). To choose the participants, purposive sampling was employed in this study. These participants could provide rich and relevant information because their schools had a high rate of PPLs as per official records in Mopani District. The findings of the study are presented and discussed below.

6.3 DISCUSSION OF STUDY FINDINGS ACCORDING TO THEMES

In this section, the research findings are discussed as informed by the themes which were drawn from research questions that guided the study. The discussion focuses on the findings generated from the qualitative data obtained from individual interviews, focus group interviews and document analysis. The discussion of the findings was done in order to establish the link of the study with current studies and new dimensions pertaining to the subject of learner pregnancy. In the ensuing sections, the findings of the study are discussed in accordance with the themes discussed in the previous chapter which the research revealed a number of issues in relation to school-base interventions of the four selected secondary schools.

6.3.1 Factors that Negatively Affect the Educational Opportunities of PPLs

The study revealed that there were number of factors that negatively affected the educational opportunities of pregnant and parenting learners (PPLs) at the four schools where the study was conducted. These are discussed:
6.3.1.1 Unsupportive attitudes of teachers towards educational needs of PPLs

The study revealed that there were negative attitudes by teachers towards the teaching and learning needs of PPLs. The attitudes of teachers negatively affected the learning opportunities of the PPLs which resulted in poor academic performance. It was also found that the unfriendly attitudes of teachers caused psychological problems to PPLs. The evidence was illustrated by an SMT member from School A, who indicated that: “Some teachers make the PPLs to feel unwanted, unworthy and that also cause psychological problems”. The negative attitudes of teachers towards PPLs contradict with South African Council of Educators (SACE) Act 31 of 2000 which specifies that educators are mandated to acknowledge the uniqueness, individuality, and specific needs of each learner, guiding and encouraging each learner to recognise his or her potentials (SACE, 2000).

6.3.1.2 Insufficient Support Systems to PPLs

The study revealed that there was inadequate educational support given to PPLs by teachers. Earlier studies affirm that without adequate support systems from SGBs, principal, SMTs, PMTs, class teachers and subject teachers, PPLs cannot be able to cope with their schooling and their return to school will be worthless (Runhare, 2010:148). Inadequate support is not in line with the national policy guidelines which strongly endorse that educators should continue to give educational support. Educators must continue collecting academic information about the learner’s performance and the formal recording of her progress throughout the year that is Continuous Assessment (CASS), whether the pregnant learner is at school or at home. Parents should ensure that their children receive and do their class tasks and assignments so that they are not left behind in their academic work (DoE, 2007:6).

6.3.1.3 Unsupportive attitudes of mainstream learners towards PPLs

The study found out that some mainstream learners showed negative attitudes towards PPLs. It was found that PPLs suffered from exclusion in an ordinary school environment. The exclusion was exposed by one PPL from School D who indicated that, “When I was
pregnant, my classmates openly turned against me and loudly said that they cannot go around with me because they can also become pregnant just like” [PPL1, School D].

In relation to the findings of studies conducted in the previous years it was established that, teenage mothers, like their age mates, may belong to certain groups that are made up of friends hence their knowledge of sexual matters is gained from such gatherings. However, these friends often reject them during and even after pregnancy (Dlamini, 2016:26).

6.3.1.4 Inadequate connection between PPLs and mainstream learners

The study revealed that there was disconnection between the PPLs and some mainstream learners. It was found that the disconnection contributed to poor academic performance by PPLs. This was illustrated by a male mainstream learner from School B, who explained that:

*Our class is Nkhensani Hospital, maternity section. Teachers must give parenting learners their own class because their breast milk stinks. We don’t want to learn with them because they are mothers* [ML1, School B].

The study may conclude that there was no connection between the PPLs and their classmates. The disconnection resulted in immoral behaviour where some mainstream learners claimed that PPLs had an unpleasant smell. This immoral behaviour contradicts the Bill of Rights. The Bill of Rights is the basis of democracy in South Africa as it strongly affirms the democratic values of human dignity, equality and freedom (Malherbe & Beckmann, 2003:3). The comments of mainstream learners claiming that PPLs had unpleasant smell undermines demoralises the dignity of PPLs.

6.3.1.5 Negative effects of the condition of pregnancy on learning

The study disclosed that the condition of pregnancy had negative effects on the learning needs of parenting learners. The effects of the condition of pregnancy was illustrated by PPLs from School A, who complained that, “I am failing to concentrate during lessons
because my baby is frequently kicking” [PPL2, School A]. The study revealed that there were both physical and psychological pregnancy-related conditions which negatively affects teaching and learning opportunities of PPLs. Related to the statement given above, earlier studies also confirmed that teenage pregnancy has health, social, physical and psychological effects (Demographic Health Survey [DHS], 2003; UNAIDS, 2010:127).

6.3.2 School-based Interventions to the Negative Effects of School Girl Pregnancy on Teaching and Learning

The study revealed that there were school interventions on the negative effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning used by the key education duty bearers. The study revealed that the SGBs, SMTs, PMTs as well as class teachers played an important role in handling the negative effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning.

6.3.2.1 School policy on PPLs more informed by practice

The South African Schools Act (SASA) No.84 of 1996 mandates the SGBs to adopt the Learners` Code of Conduct and to make provisions for the management and prevention of learner pregnancy. The study revealed that the Learners` Code of Conduct did not have a clause on the management and prevention of learner pregnancy. It was found that while the policy was available, discrepancies on the implementation were noted. For instance, some schools stipulated the number of sick leave days while others did not. It was further revealed that PPLs voluntarily return to school before they were fully recovered to avoid being left behind in their lessons. This is evidenced from a statement given by one PPL from School C who indicated that: “When I was pregnant, I delivered on Monday night then Wednesday I returned back to school. I was not yet recovered but I was afraid to miss lessons” [PPL2, School C].
6.3.2.2  Non-alignment between national policy and school guidelines on PPLs

The study revealed that there was no written evidence on management and prevention of learner pregnancy on school guidelines of all the four schools. The findings were based on the narrative data collected from different participants during interviews. The study revealed that there was a link between the national policy and school guidelines because pregnant learners were allowed to continue with their schooling before and after giving birth.

6.3.2.3  Pregnancy Monitoring Teachers’ (PMTs) roles beneficial to PPLs

The study established that there were pregnant monitoring teachers (PMTs) in the four schools. The study found out that PMTs were established as a PPL inclusion strategy to allow PPLs to continue with their schooling. The study revealed that PMTs were putting efforts to give educational support to PPLs. The role played by the PMTs is giving educational support to PPLs is in line with the national policy guidelines. The policy guidelines affirm that schools should continuously give educational support to the pregnant learner so that she is not left behind in her academic growth (DoE, 2007:6).

6.3.2.4  Inconsistent application of parental involvement to educational needs of PPLs

The national policy guidelines mandate parents or guardians to take a lead in working with the school to support the pregnant learner (DoE, 2007:6). The study revealed that in School B, School C and School D parents or guardians were compelled to accompany their pregnant learners to school in order to take them to clinic if the need arose but in School A, parents were not compelled to accompany pregnant learners to school. The study showed inconsistencies in the application of parental roles by the schools. This was illustrated by one PPLs from School A, who revealed that: “If you are pregnant, they take your parents contact details. If you feel sick, they phone your parents at home to take you to the clinic” [PPL2, School A].
6.3.3 Effectiveness of the School-based Interventions to the Teaching and Learning of PPLs

The study revealed that there were functional strengths and functional weaknesses on the school interventions implemented by the key duty bearers to help PPLs to cope with schooling.

6.3.3.1 Recognition of PPLs’ right to education by schools

The study revealed that the establishment of PMTs in schools as a strategy to ensure continuation of pregnant learners with their education was found to be worthy. It was reported that PPLs continued with their schooling before and after giving birth and some managed to complete their studies under the monitoring of PMTs. The role of the PMTs on the support of PPLs was described by class teacher from School A, who said that:

*Pregnant learners are supported because we have link teachers who act as social workers at school. They monitor and support the pregnant learners. Pregnant learners report all their problems to PMTs [CT2, School A].*

6.3.3.2 The gap between national policy and practice on teaching and learning needs of PPLs

The study indicated that there was a gap between the national policy and school guidelines. It was revealed that there were gaps between the national policies and school practices regarding the number of sick leave days for delivery and recovery processes given to PPLs.

In relation to sick leave PPL from School A, said that:

*"We are given two weeks to recover but it also depend on your condition and that of the baby. You are allowed to return earlier, a week after giving birth, if you feel that you will be left behind with lessons"*[PPL1, School A].
The study revealed that the national policy guidelines were only on paper but practically they were not implemented at the four participating schools. At most schools, pregnant learners were given sick leave of one week or two weeks to deliver and recover yet other schools did not have a stipulated number of days which resulted in PPLs returning back to school a day after delivery.

According to the national policy guidelines, no learners should be re-admitted in the same year that they left school due to pregnancy so that they can exercise full responsibility for parenting. The policy guidelines further state that the parenting learners must also consider the rights of the new born child. This refers to issues of care and safety of the new born child (DoE, 2007:5).

**6.3.3.3 Erratic intervention approaches**

The study revealed inconsistences in the implementation of the school interventions strategies within the same school. It was disclosed that in School D, some pregnant learners were accompanied by their parents, but others were not accompanied by their parents. According to the SGBs, SMTs, PMTs and class teachers, the school intervention strategy is used to allow pregnant learners to continue with schooling. One PPL from School D, demonstrated the inconsistences within the school. She complained that:

*We were two pregnant learners in February, the PMTs told us that our parents should accompany us. From there, I’ve never seen parents waiting meanwhile there were another pregnant learners attending. It was in August when I saw parents again [PPL1, School D].*

The unequal treatment is contrary to the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Number 108 of 1996 which contains the Bill of Rights which protects every person from unfair discrimination and unequal treatment (RSA, 1996).
6.3.3.4 Functional weaknesses of school interventions on teaching and learning needs of PPLs

The study revealed functional weaknesses during implementation of some school-based interventions by SGB members, SMT members, PMTs as well as class teachers. It was revealed that in School B, School C and School D, parental involvement was viewed more as punishment to pregnant learners than support. It was found that the parental involvement was not supportive to the PPLs as learners were not allowed to attend school if their parents or guardians were not available. The study revealed that in actual fact the intervention was implemented mainly to cause the pregnant learner to voluntarily drop out. This was revealed by a PMT from School B who said that:

“Immediately an orphan pregnant learner realise that she is pregnant, she stays at home. She is afraid to be sent home to call her parent meanwhile she don’t have parents” [PMT1, School B].

The school strategy deprived pregnant girls of their right to education. Contrary, to the Education Rights in South Africa which states that punishing learners because they are pregnant is against the law and the constitution (Education Rights in South Africa, 2017:162-163). Grant and Hallman (2006:19) substantiate that girls who fall pregnant while still at school are less likely to complete their studies of secondary education and their chances of proceeding to tertiary education are greatly reduced due to the social environment especially the family and school.

6.3.3.5 Inadequate political will by duty bearers to implement interventions on teaching and learning needs of PPLs

The study revealed that there was inadequate political will by duty bearers to implement interventions on teaching and learning needs of PPLs. It was exposed that PPLs were not given repeat lessons even when they had a doctor’s letter.

This is illustrated by one PPL from School B who stated that:
Teachers don’t give repeat lessons. They don’t give you chance to ask questions based on the missed lessons nor to ask for hand-outs or notes given in your absence [PPL1, School B].

The study revealed lack of determination by teachers to support the PPLs. According to Chigona and Chetty (2008:268), teachers in most cases are not keen to re-teach lessons that were missed by girls due to motherhood.

6.3.4 Challenges Faced by the Duty Bearers in Supporting PPLs to Cope with Schooling

The study revealed there were challenges encountered by the key duty bearers at the four schools. These include lack of training on national policy guidelines as well as lack of parental support. These challenges hinder the key duty bearers’ efforts of giving maximum educational support to PPLs. The study found that there were challenges which emanated from the Department of Education (DoE) and those which originated within the work of the key duty bearers.

6.3.4.1 Teachers` difficulties in teaching PPLs in a formal school setting

The study revealed that teachers had difficulties in teaching the PPLs in ordinary school setting. Some challenges emanated from the PPLs while some were professional challenges. The challenges were identified and presented as follows:

6.3.4.1.1 Habitual absenteeism of PPLs

The study revealed that PPLs were regularly absent from school due to challenges like fatigue, admission to hospital due to giving birth or sickness or sick child, and lack of help with baby-sitting. This sentiment was corroborated by a class teacher from School D who pointed out that,

Pregnant learners are constantly absent because their bodies are always exhausted due to carrying a baby. Once or twice a week, they are absent that is the reason many repeats their grades [CT2, School D].
In relation to absenteeism of PPLs, it has been observed that teenage pregnancy contributes to absenteeism in the short term while in the long term it resulted in the pregnant learners dropping out of school (Malahlela & Chireshe, 2012:49).

6.3.4.1.2 Lack of training on national policy guidelines

The study found that there was no training of education school-based stakeholders on national policy guidelines in Mopani District. PMTs and class teachers from four schools indicated that they were not trained on their responsibilities to support PPLs. They used trial and error approaches in the implementation of the national policy. Lack of training was confirmed by the SMT member from School B who emphasised that:

There is nothing we can do to assist teachers because they are not trained to deal with PPLs. They just make their own decisions or refer the cases to the PMTs. Even the PMTs are not trained, we just delegated the responsibility to them [SMT, School B].

According to the national policy guidelines, it is the responsibility of the provincial Department of Education to provide every school with a copy of the national policy guidelines and to ensure that all schools comply with it. It also states that the department must ensure that the school managers (principals) and educators are equipped with adequate skills and knowledge to deal with many challenges related to learner pregnancy (DoE, 2007:7).

6.3.4.1.3 Unavailability of professional workers in schools

The study revealed that there were no school social workers to help PPLs. Teachers acknowledged that they were not able to adequately support the PPLs because PPLs had both academic, psychological, social and family problems which needed the services of social workers.
The need for school social workers was pointed out by PMT from School B who complained that:

*There is no social workers to help the PPLs. Some PPLs suffered from depression. Some pregnant girls develop suicidal tendencies or think of terminating the pregnancy. We cannot able to help them, they need social workers [PMT1, School B].*

The national policy guidelines stipulate that the pregnant learner must be considered to be a Learner with Special Needs, with access to counselling by professionals of the Specialised Learner and Educator Support (SLES) component (WCDE, 2003:1).

**6.3.4.1.4 Pace setters limiting teachers on supporting PPLs on missed lessons**

The study revealed that teachers experienced challenges in handling missed lessons. The interviews conducted with PPLs revealed that PPLs were not given catch-up lessons nor were their questions based on missed lessons attended to by their teachers. There was no adequate educational support given by teachers when the PPLs missed lessons even when the PPL had doctor’s letter. A class teacher from School D justified that they did not give repeat lessons because they followed pace setters. She explained that:

*I cannot repeat a lesson because we are following pace setters. There is no way in which I can sacrifice my whole class by assisting one parenting learner and my class fail common tests because I was behind the pace setter [CT1, School D].*

The study found that PPLs were not given repeat lessons but the national policy guidelines (DoE, 2007:6) maintains that schools or educational settings should continue to offer educational intervention to pregnant and parenting learners.

**6.3.4.1.5 Compliance to the national policy guidelines counter effective**

The study found out that school management experienced difficulties in combining PPLs and the mainstream learners. It was revealed that inclusion divide the whole school,
meaning that when SMTs and teachers strived to accommodate the pregnant learners, mainstream learners felt that pregnant learners were given special treatment.

6.3.4.1.6 Negative effects of post-natal conditions on learning needs of PPLs

The study revealed that there were post-natal conditions affecting parenting learners. It was found that some PPLs experienced complications during and after giving birth which resulted in them being absent for a long time. This was illustrated by PMT from School C who said that:

*Some pregnant learners gave birth by Caesarean-section and unable to return back to school immediately after delivery. After returning back, she need to undergo medical check-ups. They are regularly absent from school [PMT2, School C]*.

6.3.4.1.7 Parental pressure on supporting PPLs

The study revealed that there was inadequate parental support for PPLs in the four schools. It was revealed that PPLs had family problems due to rejection by parents and fathers of their babies. It was disclosed that some parents did not help with baby-sitting resulting in some parenting learners’ dropping out. Some parents forced PPLs into early marriages which resulted in PPLs enduring more pressure when striving to balance educational and motherhood responsibilities while some PPLs opted to drop-out. Previous studies established that some families contribute to the emotional instability of pregnant girls by forcing them into early marriages (Chigona & Chetty, 2007:1). Panday et al (2009:35) also viewed parental value as a vital factor that influences the adolescent’s sexual debut.

6.3.5 PPLs Problems Learning in an Ordinary School Setting

The study revealed that PPLs had problems in learning in an ordinary school setting which negatively affected their learning needs. The findings are discussed below.
6.3.5.1 Unsuitable school infrastructure
The study revealed that infrastructure and unsuitable furniture were some of the challenges experienced in accommodating pregnant learners at a normal school setting. Teachers also indicated that amongst other factors, unsuitable furniture contributed towards fatigue experienced by pregnant learners. The study further found that the physical setting of the classrooms, positioning of toilets and furniture contributed to tiredness which negatively effects learning needs of PPLs.

6.3.5.2 Unaccommodating formal school operations and infrastructure
The study found that ordinary school arrangements disadvantaged to PPLs because they did not suit their pregnant and parenting status. The ordinary school operations identified among others were long school hours and normal school uniforms. It was discovered that the normal school setting did not accommodate PPLs.

6.3.6 Mainstream Learners` Challenges of Learning with PPLs in an Ordinary School Setting
The study revealed that mainstream learners faced challenges of learning with PPLs in a normal school setting. It was also found that teachers also encountered challenges in the inclusion of PPLs and mainstream learners. The study revealed that the inclusion of PPLs disturbed the normal smooth running of lessons due to unforeseen circumstances related to pregnancy. This was illustrated by one mainstream learner from School C who indicated said that:

One learner nearly gave birth in class. We were instructed to leave the class while teachers help her. Our lessons were disrupted that day. Pregnant learners must stay at home, so we can learn without disruptions [ML1, School C].

The study may conclude that mainstream learners were unwilling to learn with PPLs because of unpredictable conditions related to pregnancy.
6.3.7 Positive impact of Including PPLs in Formal Schools

This study sought to find out both the benefits and challenges that mainstream learners and PPLs obtained from the inclusion of PPLs at the four participating schools. Researchers concurred that the presence of PPLs in a formal school requires that mainstream learners and PPLs themselves benefit from the teaching and learning that goes on in school (Runhare & Vanderyar, 2011:15). The study revealed that there were some potential prospects from inclusion of PPLs in formal school which were: de-stigmatisation of PPLs negative labels, Inclusion of PPLS as an education human right measure and protection of PPLs in formal school

6.3.7.1 De-stigmatisation of PPLs negative labels

The study revealed that PPLs were stigmatised resulting in some of them dropping out of school but inclusion of PPLs in the school system, to some extent served to fight the stigma against PPLs. Although some mainstream learners had negative attitudes, some tolerated the presence of PPLs in formal schools and understood that PPLs had their Right to Education. Mainstream learners demonstrated the educational support they gave to PPLs as their peers, classmates and schoolmates. A friendly acceptance of PPLs was demonstrated by one mainstream learner from School B who said that: “My table mate is a pregnant learner, when she is absent, and I gave her notes and teach her if she don’t understand” [ML2, School D].

The study revealed that there was true revelation of the Spirit of Ubuntu demonstrated by some mainstream learners. The impact of stigmatisation on PPLs has been noted by other scholars who strongly affirmed that teenagers who become pregnant are stigmatised by the community during or after pregnancy and this often leads to social exclusion, depression, low self-esteem and poor academic performance affecting the prospects of employment in future (Panday et al., 2009:43).
6.3.7.2 Inclusion of PPLS as an Education Human Right Measure

The study revealed that the right of education of PPLs was upheld at schools even though there were some challenges and functional weaknesses in some of the school interventions strategies. The study revealed that the four schools advocate the right to education of PPLs. There was evidence that the schools endorsed the rights of PPLs which was illustrated by one SGB member from School D who highlighted that:

*We encourage both teachers and mainstream learners to give educational support to PPLs. We motivate the PPLs to continue with their schooling because if they drop out, they will not get good jobs as a result their children will steal from us [SGB2, School D].*

The promotion and supporting of educational rights of PPLs is provided for in the Constitution of Republic of South Africa Number 108, 1996 which states that “The state may not unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone on one or more grounds, including race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status” (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996:1247). Article 13 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), compels the government to recognise everyone’s right to education which is imperative for the full growth of human personality and dignity as well as strengthening the respect of human rights and fundamental freedoms.

6.3.7.3 Protection of PPLs in formal school

Although the study focused the school setting, it was revealed that PPLs were also abused at home and within communities. Besides ill-discipline of learners who display negative attitudes towards PPLs, it was revealed that some mainstream learners supported, respected and protected PPLs against bullies at school. The study revealed that some mainstream learners showed positive attitudes towards PPLs. In this regard they supported, respected and protected PPLs against the ill-disciplined learners. The protection for PPLs against abuse was demonstrated by one mainstream learner from School A, who explained that:
We try to protect and fight for them because they are powerless. We report the disrespecting boys to teachers. We encourage our fellows to support the PPLs [ML4, School A].

6.3.8 Erratic use of Documents on PPLs

The study revealed that there were school documents that included attendance registers, pregnancy monitoring registers and Learners` Code of Conduct which were used as school guidelines and tools to monitor PPLs. It was indicated that PPLs were regularly absent from school due to various reasons related to motherhood such as being admitted in hospital, a sick child and others. Furthermore, it was also indicated that there were pregnancy monitoring registers where pregnant learners were recorded. It was revealed that pregnant learners were monitored and marked on daily basis by the PMTs. The study also revealed that the Learners` Code of Conduct did not link with SASA Act No. 84 of 1996, which did not have clause on the prevention and management of learner pregnancy.

6.3.9 Elimination of Causes of Inadequate Support to PPLs in Formal Schools

In this study, it was revealed that there were underlying causes of inadequate support given to PPLs in formal schools. It was found that the support given to PPLs was influenced by teachers` perceptions, beliefs and religions. The study also found that the support given by the SGBs was also influenced by their culture and traditional practices.

6.3.9.1 Influence of teachers` perceptions to PPLs

The study revealed that teachers` perceptions had an influence on the teaching needs of PPLs. It was disclosed that teachers used their own discretion, which was more influenced by their beliefs, perceptions and culture. The evidence of inadequate educational support by teachers due to influence of their perceptions was illustrated by one SMT member from School B who said that:
There is nothing we can do because teachers have their own beliefs, values and religions. There is no maximum support given to PPLs due to teachers’ perceptions towards early pregnancies [SMT, School C].

The educational support given to PPLs was negatively affected by teachers` perceptions because some teachers were sensitive to premature pregnancies.

6.3.9.2 Cultural influence to PPLs treatment in schools

The study also disclosed that cultural influences also contributed to the inadequate educational support given to PPLs. This was illustrated by one SGB member from School A, who stated that:

Traditionally, it is disregarded for a girl to fall pregnant. Before democracy, no school girl could dare consider sleeping with a boy. We were expelled from school if you fell pregnant or impregnate a girl [SGB4, School A].

The study revealed that SGB members were implementing national policy guidelines while their minds were full of traditional practices. It was established that there were conflicts between the policy guidelines and the cultural practices of SGBs which resulted in inadequate support to PPLs.

The research discovered that the cultural background assumed a crucial role in addressing the negative effects of school girl pregnancy. Runhare and Vanderyar (2011:18), indicated that the school represents the larger society and therefore has a responsibility of teaching learners the norms and values that are acceptable. This includes teaching them about the structure and functioning of the society.

6.4 CONCLUSION OF KEY FINDINGS

The study found that there is insufficient support systems to PPLs in schools which contributed to unsupportive attitudes of both teachers and mainstream learners towards
PPLs. It was also found that there are negative effects of the condition of pregnancy and post-natal on learning opportunities. Although the schools have learners’ codes of conduct, there is non-alignment between national policy and school guidelines on PPLs which resulted in school policy more informed by practice. The study found that PMTs` roles are beneficial to PPLs hence there is recognition of PPLs’ right to education by schools. The study reveals that duty bearers experience both professional and administrative challenges in supporting PPLs. It is also revealed that PPLs experience physical problems learning in an ordinary school settings due to unsuitable school infrastructure and unaccommodating formal school operations. The study revealed that mainstream learners experience both honest and attitude-related challenges of learning with PPLs. It was found that there are benefits for both mainstream learners and PPLs because of inclusion of PPLs in formal schools.

6.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter discussed various key issues relating to school interventions on the teaching and learning of PPLs. This chapter presented a summary of the findings of the data gathered during focus group interviews and individual interviews from the four sampled schools. It discussed the findings of the study in relation to the literature review. Factors that negatively affected the educational opportunities of PPLs were explored. It was found that the unsupportive attitudes of both teachers and mainstream learners negatively affected the educational opportunities of PPLs.

Various school-based interventions on the teaching and learning of the PPLs were discussed. The study established that the key duty bearers played an important role in supporting PPLs although the support was inadequate. It was indicated that the school policy on PPLs was more informed by practice while at the same time there were discrepancies between the four schools. The study revealed that there were functional strengths and functional weaknesses on the school interventions.
The study provided insights on some of the challenges encountered by the key duty bearers in supporting PPLs to cope with schooling. These encompassed teachers’ challenges in teaching the PPLs in ordinary school setting. The chapter discussed both work related and policy related challenges as presented by the duty bearers. Post-natal conditions affecting parenting learners and inadequate parental support were also discussed. The study explored PPLs problems learning in an ordinary school setting. Mainstream learners` challenges of learning with PPLs in an ordinary school setting were also found. The chapter also discussed de-stigmatisation of PPLs’ negative labels, Inclusion of PPLS as an education human right measure and protection of PPLs in formal school had a positive impact in the teaching and learning of PPLs. The underlying causes of inadequate support to PPLs in formal schools were also discussed.

In the next chapter the conclusions and the recommendations of the study are presented. These will be informed by the findings revealed in this chapter.
CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The main aim of this study was to examine the school-based interventions on the effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning from the four selected secondary schools. This chapter presents conclusions and recommendations.

The research objectives set in this study were achieved through the review of literature, the data collected from document studies and data collected during interviews from members of the School Governing Bodies (SGBs), School Management Team (SMTs), Pregnancy Monitoring Teachers (PMTs), class teachers and Pregnant and Parenting Learners (PPLs).

7.2 THE RESEARCH PROCESS AND RESPONDING TO STUDY OBJECTIVES

The summary of the research process outlines the main objectives and the specific objectives of the study. It also outlines the assumptions of the study and also the process of gathering data.

7.2.1 Main Objective of the Study

It was the primary objective of the study to examine the effectiveness of the school-based interventions on educational access and participation of girls who choose to continue with school after falling pregnant. This overall objective was achieved because the study was successfully conducted at four selected secondary schools in Mopani District in Limpopo Province of South Africa, which had a large population of enrolled PPLs. In the study the four schools are referred as School A, School B, School C and School D.
The study identified a number of findings. In this section, a summary of findings is presented according to the objectives of the study set in Chapter One.

The specific objectives of the study were answered as follows:

7.2.1.1 Objective One
To investigate the challenges faced by PPLs which affect teaching and learning.

The study revealed that teachers had negative attitudes towards the teaching needs of PPLs. It was also found that SMT were not giving adequate support to teachers to support PPLs. It was revealed that teachers did not show any will to assist the PPLs. Teachers used their own perceptions regarding the educational support given to PPLs. The negative attitudes of teachers adversely affected the learning opportunities of the PPLs which resulted in poor academic performance and withdrawal from class activities. According to Bhana et al. (2006:2) the right to schooling of pregnant girls and learner parents does not automatically translate into better school access, more positive school experience or support.

One of the study findings was that there was inadequate educational support given to PPLs by the key duty bearers. The study concluded that without adequate support systems, PPLs cannot be able to cope with schooling and their return to school will be educationally worthless. According to Runhare and Vandeyar (2012:52), pregnant learners were not given meaningful attention and assistance in the school. As a result, there is a low percentage of girls who managed to complete Grade Twelve.

Another finding was that some mainstream learners showed negative attitudes towards PPLs. It was concluded that PPLs suffered from exclusion in ordinary school environment. The study found that PPLs experienced frustration, humiliation and rejection from inside and outside the classroom setting.
Data revealed that there was a disconnection between the PPLs and some mainstream learners. It was noted that there was no connection between the PPLs and some of their classmates resulting in immoral behaviour being displayed by some mainstream learners saying that, “…their breast milk stinks…” [ML1, School B].

It was reported that the condition of pregnancy also had negative effects on the learning needs of pregnant learners. There were both physical and psychological pregnancy-related conditions which negatively affected learning opportunities of PPLs such as swollen legs, very big tummy, frequent kicking baby and so forth.

Other findings revealed that there were also underlying causes regarding inadequate support given to PPLs in formal schools. It was found that the support given to PPLs was influenced by teachers’ perceptions, beliefs and religion. Support given by the SGBs was also influenced by their culture and traditional practices.

7.2.1.2 Objective Two
To explore the interventions used by school-based education stake-holders in supporting PPLs to cope with schooling.

Data revealed that there was a link between the national policy and school guidelines because pregnant learners were allowed to continue with their schooling before and after giving birth. It was also found this was the policy by practice in all the four schools.

The study established that PMTs were putting effort to give educational support to PPLs in the four schools. It was found that PPLs continued to attend school before and after giving birth and some of the PPLs managed to complete their studies under the monitoring and support of the PMTs.

Another finding of the study was that in Schools B, C and D, parents or guardians were compelled to accompany the pregnant learners to school. However, in School A, parents
were not compelled to accompany pregnant learners to school. School A created a conducive learning environment for pregnant learners without restrictions.

7.2.1.3 Objective Three
To examine the effectiveness of the interventions used by the school-based education stakeholders to help the Pregnant and Parenting Learners (PPLs) to cope with their schooling.

Apart from functional weaknesses of the school interventions, the study revealed that there were functional strengths of the school-based interventions.

One strength revealed by this study was that the educational support given by the PMTs to PPLs was beneficial and helpful to PPLs. It was found that PPLs were allowed to continue with schooling under the monitoring of PMTs.

The findings emanating from focus group interviews with the mainstream learners revealed that there were some potential prospects from inclusion of PPLs in a formal school. For instance, some mainstream learners supported, respected and protected PPLs against the bullies at school.

Although it was found that there were functional strengths on the school interventions implemented by the duty bearers, the study revealed that there were functional weaknesses on the school interventions.

In this study, it was noted that the Leaners’ Code of Conduct did not have a clause on the management of learner pregnancy, meaning that it was a policy by practice. The study revealed that there were gaps between the national policies and school practices. It was found that in School D, there were inconsistencies in the implementation of school interventions which compelled parents or guardians to accompany a pregnant girl to school. It was revealed that some pregnant learners were accompanied by their parents, but some were not accompanied by their parents within the same school.
Other findings revealed that regardless of the availability of the school interventions at schools, there were some functional weaknesses in the implementation of school-based intervention in School B, School C and School D and parental involvement was viewed as more of punishment than support. It was also revealed that some pregnant learners dropped out of school because their parents were not available to accompany them to school. It was further revealed that many orphaned pregnant learners opted to drop out.

Data revealed that the Learners` Code of Conduct in all the four schools, did not have a provision on the management and prevention of learner pregnancy. It was noted that school policy guidelines were policy by practice. The Learners Code of Conduct did not link with Measures for the Prevention and Management of learner pregnancy (DoE, 2007) and SASA No.84 of 1996.

7.2.1.4   Objective Four
To explore the challenges encountered by school-based education stakeholders in supporting the PPLs to cope with their schooling.

One of the findings from this study was that teachers faced challenges in teaching the PPLs in an ordinary school setting. It was also found that teachers encountered challenges in mixing of PPLs and mainstream learners. Habitual absenteeism, lack of training on national policy guidelines, lack of school social workers, handling of missed lessons, compliance with the national policy guidelines, post-natal conditions affecting parenting learners and inadequate parental support were some of the challenges associated with mixing PPLs and mainstream students.

Findings emanating from the individual interviews with PPLs revealed that PPLs had problems in learning in an ordinary school setting. It was found that infrastructure and unsuitable furniture were some of the challenges experienced in trying to accommodate pregnant learners in the ordinary school system. It was also revealed that ordinary school operations such as long school hours and normal school uniform disadvantaged PPLs.
Apart from the benefits of inclusion of mainstream learners and PPLs, the study revealed that mainstream learners faced challenges of learning with PPLs in a normal school setting. It was reported that the inclusion disturbed the normal smooth running of lessons due to unforeseen circumstances related to pregnancy. It was noted that mainstream learners were unwilling to learn with PPLs because of unpredictable conditions related to pregnancy.

This study identified gaps in implementation of education policies, involvement of community support structures and staff development. To close this gap, I suggest a Multi-Sectoral Support System Model for PPLs to be adopted by schools in giving support to PPLs. The recommends model fits well into the present practice of accommodating PPLs in ordinary school setting. Figure 7.1 summarises the current and prevailing manner and the shortcomings in which the schools are managing the educational needs of PPLs that they enrolled.
Figure 7.1: The Status-quo: Cultural and Traditional Influences on PPLs
Figure 7.1 illustrates the *status-quo* on the teaching and learning of the PPLs. The figure summarises the present and predominant manner and the weaknesses in which the four schools are managing the educational needs of PPLs. The figure shows that the Department of Basic Education (DBE), which comprises of national, provincial, district and circuit levels, is the supreme body in governing schools. The figure illustrates that there are school-based stakeholders and the community support system, which however, are not connected. The DBE, as government, formulates education policies which must be implemented at schools by the school-based stakeholders. However, there is lack of dialogue on national policy between the DBE and the school-based stakeholders and the community support systems.

The School Governing Bodies (SGBs) are the duty bearers mandated by SASA No 84 of 1996 to formulate and implement a Learners` Code of Conduct to make provisions for prevention and management of learners' pregnancy at their particular schools (SASA, 1996). The model indicates that SGBs adopted a Learners` Code of Conduct which did not have a clause on how to prevent and manage learner pregnancy in their schools. The model further shows that the SGBs did not involve community structures and other professionals who should constitute Pregnant and Parenting Learners’ (PPLs) support system such professionals like social workers, counsellors and nurses to serve PPLs. The community stakeholders such as nurses, counsellors, educational psychologists, social workers, community leaders, religious leaders and others are not linked to the school, an indication that they are not utilised by the SGBs to give support to the PPLs.

The model further shows that the School Management Team (SMT), as school management and as policy implementers do not protect the educational rights of PPLs since the SMT does not provide training opportunities for teachers to give educational support to PPLs. In addition, it illustrates that there is no advocacy for PPLs` teaching and learning needs by the SMT. The model also indicates that in their current operations, teachers do not give adequate educational support to PPLs or guide mainstream learners (ML) to educationally coexist with PPLs. It also shows that there is no political will to serve PPLs, hence there is hate speech uttered by some
teachers and mainstream learners towards PPLs. In addition, it indicates that teachers were not trained on national policy guidelines to enable them to teach and accommodate PPLs and their negative perceptions towards early motherhood contributed to inadequate support given to PPLs. Added to this, the figure illustrates that mainstream learners (ML), who are peers to PPLs, gave inadequate support to PPLs which is dominated by hate speech. It also indicates that there was little tolerance for PPLs as there was very little partnership with PPLs which strained the working relationship between the ML and the PPLs.

The model illustrates that parental involvement was influenced by fear of loss of access to schooling for their PPL children than justice. It also shows that parents or guardians of PPLs were not offered counselling to support PPLs which resulted in inadequate parental support being given to PPLs.

Generally, at the centre of the model is the reflection that the implementation of policy on PPLs by school-based stakeholders is negatively affected by traditional and cultural beliefs that stakeholders hold on PPLs and teen motherhood, particularly when it occurs out of wedlock (Runhare 2010:230). In addition, it illustrates, that lack of training for all the school-based stakeholders on educational needs and policies that affect the education of PPLs. Without any formal guidance, it can be concluded that teachers use trial and error approaches to implement any interventions. It indicates that there is no link with the Management of Learner Pregnancy (DoE, 2007) (MPMLP) and South African Schools Act (SASA) No 84 of 1996. All schools where the study was conducted did not have their own home-brewed written school policies to guide their practices on managing the education of PPLs that they enrolled. The current model shows the inadequate support given to PPLs.

7.3 SCHOLARLY CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

There are number of studies that have been conducted on learner pregnancy primarily focusing on issues like its prevalence, causes and effects to education (Chilisa, 2002; Chigona & Chetty, 2008; Grant & Hallman, 2008; Panday et al., 2009; Runhare, 2010).
It is also evident that South Africa is one of the countries that have democratised educational access by learners who fall pregnant while at school (Runhare, 2010:3; Runhare & Vandeyar, 2012:51; Runhare & Hwami, 2014:186). However, the extent to which schools are providing relevant services in accordance with the state policy pronouncements pertaining to the expected responsibilities and support to PPLs who are enrolled in schools (DoE, 2007:6) has not been examined in scholarship. Since the advent of democracy in South Africa, many educational policies have been formulated, among them is the guidelines on prevention and management of school girl pregnancy (DoE, 2007:1), but South Africa has had the challenge of putting in place many white paper policies which it struggles to successfully implement. It is therefore, not surprising that this study revealed that school-based stakeholders were found inadequately knowledgeable, untrained and ill equipped to implement relevant and necessary interventions to the negative effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning. This study has established that what schools are doing to assist PPLs cope with schooling is generally not uniform, more informal, uncoordinated and there is inadequate support to schools by central, provincial, district and circuit education structures to empower and strengthen schools on the teaching and learning of PPLs.

While observations from research indicate that South Africa is doing well to adopt the continuation policy for pregnant school girls (Runhare & Hwami, 2014:186; Grant & Hallman, 2006:4), data from this study has revealed that there is no adequate support system in schools for PPLs due to factors such as lack of political will by duty bearers, lack of training on how to manage school girl pregnancy, inadequate knowledge on relevant policy guidelines on PPLs and inconsistent intervention approaches. In addition, it was also noted that parental involvement is more a result of fear of punishment than inward support and there was no link between school documents and education policies and no involvement of community structures and other professionals. There were also no written school brewed policy measures and guidelines on supporting PPLs. All this resulted in challenges in inclusion of PPLs in ordinary school setting which negatively impacted on the educational needs, aspirations and outcomes of girls who choose to continue with schooling after falling pregnant or giving birth.
The value of this study is therefore not only to indicate that South African schools only provide the basic access for PPLs to continue with their education but has gone further to reveal that the PPLs may not be academically benefiting because of the policy and practices related weaknesses that still exist in schools. Based on the challenges currently faced by schools, which are summarised in Figure 7.1, the study recommends that there should be Multi-Sectoral PPLs Support Systems (Figure 7.2) to provide some information that could redress the shortcomings of what the national, provincial, district, circuit and school educational structures can do to support and strengthen the inclusion of PPLs in conventional or ordinary schools.

7.4 RECOMMENDATIONS DRAWN FROM THE STUDY

The experiences of PPLs have been documented in the findings of this study. There are however, a number of suggestions emanating from these findings that may call for the attention of the Department of Basic Education (DBE), school-based stakeholders, mainstream learners, parents or guardians of PPLs and community support structures. The recommendations made in this study are in line with the research questions, the review of literature as well as the findings of the study. The recommendations are meant to improve the support given to PPLs in schools.

7.4.1 Recommendation to the Department of Education

One of the challenges found in this study was that teachers were not trained on national policy guidelines in the four schools. The study recommends proper training of all key education stakeholders on Measures for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy and South African Schools Act (SASA) No. 84 of 1996 (DoE, 2007). In this study, data gathered revealed that the Learners’ Code of Conduct in all the four schools did not have a provision on management and prevention of learner pregnancy. The Learners Code of Conduct did not link with SASA No. 84 of 1996 and Measures for the Prevention and Management of learner pregnancy (DoE, 2007). The study revealed that
there were gaps between the national policies and school practices. The study therefore, recommends that DoE conducts workshops to train SGBs on how to draw Learners’ Code of Conduct which must have provisions of management of learner pregnancy. DoE must give continuous training to key duty bearers and make follow-ups on the implementation of education policies at schools.

7.4.2 Recommendation to School Governing Body (SGB)

One of the findings from this study was that the Learners’ Code of Conduct was not drawn in line with SASA Act No. 84 of 1996 because it does not have a clause which provides for the prevention and management of learner pregnancy. Therefore, the study recommends that the SGB must adopt lawful Learners’ Code of conduct. It is further recommended that the SGB must form inclusive PPL support systems and that there must be collaboration between the school, parents and community support systems to form part of PPLs support system. According to Chigona and Chetty (2007:07) principals and the SGBs are accountable to all learners’ rights to education, and this include PPLs.

7.4.3 Recommendation for School Management Team (SMT)

Another finding was that there were negative attitudes by teachers towards the teaching needs of PPLs. It was also found that SMTs were not giving adequate support to teachers to support PPLs. Teachers used their own perceptions in giving educational support to PPLs. Based on this finding, the study recommends that SMTs must assist teachers to give educational support to PPLs. SMTs must ensure proper implementation of education policies. The study further recommends that SMTs must empower teachers on national policy guidelines through regular staff meetings dealing specifically with learner pregnancy. SMTs must protect the learners’ rights to education including PPLs. The study also recommends the training of both mainstream learners and PPLs on national policy guidelines. According to Bhana (2006:16), it is the responsibility of the school to protect the educational rights of PPLs while providing an equitable and
supporting learning environment. Chigona and Chetty (2007:13) recommend that teacher training should be provided on how to support teenage mothers in schools.

7.4.4 Recommendation for Community Support Systems

The study revealed that teachers alone cannot be able to support PPLs because PPLs have both educational, psychological, health and social problems which need community support system such as nurses, social workers and counsellors to intervene. As a result, the study recommends that the SGB must include community support systems such as social workers, counsellors and nurses to form part of PPL support system. It recommends that community support systems must regularly visit the schools to give support to PPLs. The policy guidelines provide a framework for amongst other things, involving all the relevant role players, and integrating these measures with available systems and structures. Role players include parents, learners, educators, communities, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), the South Africa Police Services (SAPS), and the Department of Education, Health and Social Development (DoE, 2007:7). The role players will give inclusive support to PPLs by creating links between the school and the community, developing and sharing vision regarding the well-being of community’s children and supporting healthy lifestyle (DoE, 2007: 3-4).

7.4.5 Recommendation for Support to PPLs

The study revealed that PPLs had problems in learning in an ordinary school setting which negatively affected their learning needs. The study also revealed that infrastructure, unsuitable furniture and unaccommodating normal school operations were challenges experienced in accommodating pregnant learners at a normal school setting. As a result, the study recommends that PPLs must be supported by both school-based and community-based stakeholders. PPLs must be offered training on policy guidelines by teachers. Both teachers and other professionals must offer proper continuous training to PPLs on coping strategies during and after pregnancy. Parents and guardians of PPLs must organise transport to save PPLs from walking long distances. This challenges the
SGB to review their Leaners Code of Conduct and make special adjustments on school uniform which will accommodate pregnant learners but the adjustments and recommendations must not cause academic loss.

7.4.6 Recommendation to Parents and Guardians

It was reported that one of the challenges encountered by teachers was inadequate parental support. It was found that some parents or guardians did not help with babysitting. It was also revealed that some parents send their pregnant children into early marriages. The study recommends active parents’ involvement in all matters related to the PPLs. SGBs should hold parents’ meetings on a quarterly basis to motivate parents or guardians of PPLs to play their roles in supporting the PPLs.

It was found that there was no counselling offered to parents or guardians of PPLs, hence there was no adequate parental support given to PPLs. Another recommendation is that workshops on parental involvement should be conducted in order to equip parents with the required knowledge on how to support the PPLs. Training parents in learner pregnancy will enable them to have knowledge on supporting PPLs and to encourage PPLs to continue with their schooling. Parents or guardians play a pivotal role in the education of their children. The study therefore, recommends that there should be parental-school partnership.

7.4.7 Recommendation to the Teaching Profession

The study revealed that teachers had negative attitudes towards the teaching needs of PPLs. It was revealed that teachers did not show any political will in serving the PPLs, hence, they regularly use hate speech against PPLs.

It was found that teachers were not striving to give guidance to mainstream learners and PPLs to harmonise their co-existence. The study recommends that teachers teach mainstream learners about supporting PPLs and should teach PPLs about coping strategies. It is recommended that teachers should refrain from ill-treating and degrading
PPLs and that they must give full academic support to PPLs, including giving repeat lessons to absent PPLs if they provide medical certificates.

It was revealed that there was no understanding between teachers and the PPLs and there was no understanding between the mainstream learners and the PPLs. It is therefore, recommended that there should be a mutual understanding between the teachers and PPLs so that they can reduce the negative effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning. It is also recommended that teachers should change their attitudes towards unequal treatment of learners since this increases the challenges of PPLs dropping out from school.

In addition to the findings stated above, it was also reported that teachers were not trained by the DBE on education policies. Taking this finding into serious consideration, the study recommends that teachers should acquaint themselves with the SASA Act, Measures for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy (2007) and all statutes and regulations on management of learner pregnancy through workshops, inviting experts to their schools, teachers` forums as well as teachers unions.

The study revealed that there was no staff development for teachers. Teachers reported that they were not trained even at school level on education policies. It is therefore, recommended that the South African Council of Educators (SACE) as a statutory body, must (as one of its three primary functions), provide professional development for educators, the maintenance and enhancement of professional standards and also equip teachers with SASA No. 84 of 1996, the Constitution of South Africa and other educational policies, rules and regulations on learner pregnancy.

7.4.8 Recommendation of Multi-Sectoral Support System for PPLs Model

The status-quo model, (Figure 7.1) shows no communication between the DBE at all levels included, be it national, provincial, district and circuit level and the school-based stake-holders and the community support structures. It also indicates that the community
support system is available but is not used by the SGB to also give support to PPLs. There is no inclusive support systems to assist the PPLs to cope with schooling. In addition, there is no connection between the parents or guardians and the community support system. It further illustrates that the support given to PPLs by the school-based stakeholders is influenced by cultural and traditional beliefs.

I developed the Multi-Sectoral Support System For PPLs Model (Figure 7.2) based on the knowledge acquired from education policies in South Africa, literature review and findings from this study. According to SASA No 84 of 1996 the SGBs are mandated to adopt the Learners’ Code of Conduct and to make provision for the management and prevention of learner pregnancy. SASA No 84 of 1996 upholds the rights of all learners (SASA, 1996:1). The policy guidelines provide a framework for involving all relevant role-players, and integrating these measures with available systems and structures. Role-players include parents, learners, educators, communities, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), the South Africa Police Services (SAPS), and the Department of Education, Health and Social Development (DoE, 2007:1).

The role players will give inclusive support to PPLs because literature indicated that teenage pregnancy has health, social, physical and psychological effects (Demographic Health Survey [DHS], 2003; UNAIDS, 2010:127). According to the Western Cape Department of Education (WCDE) policy of 2003 on management of learner pregnancy in public schools, the pregnant learner must be considered to be a learner with special needs, with access to counselling by professionals of the Specialised Learner and Educator Support (SLES) component with the Educational Management Development Centre (EMDC) (WCDE, 2003:1). During interviews, the significant need to involve other community-based stakeholders was also acknowledged by teachers that they were not able to adequately support the PPLs because PPLs had both academic, psychological, social and family problems which needed the services of other professionals such as social workers, psychologists, counsellors, nurses and others.
Therefore, the study recommends the Multi-Sectoral Support System For PPLs Model. I called this model a Multi-Sectoral Support System because it involves or includes all the community support systems such as social workers, nurses, counsellors and the whole society in supporting PPLs. It also includes the parents or guardians of PPLs in supporting PPLs to cope with schooling. This model promotes an inclusive support system. The recommended model will improve the present practice in accommodating PPLs in an ordinary school setting. Figure 7.2 shows the model recommends for PPLs support.
Figure 7.2: The Multi-sectoral Model for Interventions on Educational Needs of PPLs
Figure 7.2 illustrates a model recommended for a support system to PPLs, called the Multi-Sectoral Support System For PPLs Model. This model is bounded in the sense that the surroundings cover school-based stakeholders, mainstream learners, community support system, parents or guardians and society at large. The bounded categories also include the Department of Basic Education (DBE) and the society at large as they are also essential in giving adequate support to Pregnant and Parenting Learners (PPLs). The DBE includes all levels of education, be national, provincial, district and circuit. The DBE is divided into two arms, that is, the school-based stakeholders and the community support system such as social workers, nurses and counsellors. The model illustrates communication between the DBE (at all levels) and the school-based stakeholders and community support system. Furthermore, it indicates the dialogue between the school-based stakeholders and the community support system. Both arms play a significant role in giving support to the PPLs. The model also suggests dialogue on national policy between the DBE and the school-based stakeholders and the community support systems.

The model suggests that the School Governing Body (SGB) must adopt lawful Learners` Code of Conduct which must make provisions to avert and manage learner pregnancy. In addition, the SGB must form an inclusive PPL support system by involving community members such as nurses, social workers, councillors and society at large. The model suggests that the School Management Team (SMT), as school management and as policy implementers must advocate for the educational rights of PPLs. It also suggests that SMTs must assist teachers to help the PPLs to enable teachers to fulfil their roles and responsibilities in supporting PPLs as stipulated in the national policy guidelines (DoE, 2007:6). The model also proposes that teachers must give adequate educational support to PPLs. Another role of teachers that is recommended in the model is to guide mainstream learners (ML) to give educational support to PPLs. It suggests that the ML must accommodate the PPLs and give educational support to PPLs as their peers.
The model further suggests that parents or guardians must play their parental role by actively involving themselves in the education of their children without fear of losing access to attending schooling by their children. It also suggests that parents or guardians must give adequate parental support to PPLs. The model proposes parent-school partnership as a way of improving the support given to PPLs and suggests that the Department of Health must allocate school nurses to provide for the medical needs of PPLs. It also suggests that school nurses must offer health education to all school communities. Taking into consideration that the study found that PPLs had both educational and social problems, the figure also recommends that there must be school social workers to give psycho-social support to PPLs and also to the whole school community. In addition, school social workers will also offer life skills sessions to all learners and this will supplement the lessons on life skills given by Life Orientation (LO) teachers. Furthermore, it suggests that there must be school counsellors to give emotional support as well as offer coping strategies to PPLs and the whole school.

At the core of the model is the suggestion that there must be moral regeneration which embraces the redressing of stigma on PPLs to promote a friendly learning environment for PPLs. It further recommends positive attitudes towards PPLs from school-based stakeholders, mainstream learners, community support systems, parents or guardians of PPLs and the whole society. It also illustrates that moral regeneration will be enhanced by inclusive school policies and practices which promote the educational rights of the PPLs.

The model further proposes that school-based stakeholders, mainstream learners and all support systems categories must be trained on national policy to be well equipped on their roles in supporting the PPLs. It also suggests that school policy must link with the SASA Act No 84 of 1996 and MPMLP (DoE, 2007) to protect the educational rights of PPLs. In addition, it proposes that schools must have their school brewed policies on PPLs to handle the negative effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning. I believe that if the suggested model can be used at schools, PPLs will be able to cope with schooling.
7.4.9 Recommendation for Further Studies

I acknowledge that this study could have been conducted in the whole of South Africa, but I did not do so. Instead, I chose the case study approach whereby four schools in rural Mopani District in the Limpopo Province with high rates of pregnancy were selected. A larger case study which involves community support structures as part of a PPL support system could be conducted.

In relation to the methodology used in this study, I acknowledge that I could have used the quantitative research method but I couldn`t. I used a qualitative study because I wanted to explore the lived experiences of the study participants in order to unveil and understand a phenomenon, the process involved, perspectives as well as the world views of the researched (Merriam, 2009:30). I recommend that other researchers could conduct a quantitative study to gather views from large number of community members and other professionals on how to improve the coping strategies of PPLs in normal school setting.

Regarding the instrument used to collect data in this study, I acknowledge that I could have used a quantitative data collection instrument such as questionnaires to collect data from large number of people rather than from selected schools and selected participants. This study recommends further quantitative studies which will use questionnaires to collect data from many respondents.

The study also acknowledged that parents or guardians of PPLs play a significant part in supporting the PPLs to cope with their schooling but were not included in this study. I selected only the SMTs, SGBs, PMTs, class teachers, PPLs as well as mainstream learners as study participants because the focus was only on school-based education stakeholders although it was also revealed in this study that parents or guardians of PPLs also play an important role in supporting their pregnant and parenting children (DoE, 2007:6). As a result, the study recommends that further studies be conducted on how parents and guardians can effectively play their role in giving educational support to PPLs.
7.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The main limitations of this study relate to the size of the sample used in this study which involves only four secondary schools in the Mopani District of Limpopo Province in South Africa. Due to time constraints the study was therefore conducted at these four schools in Shamavunga, Mamaila, Klein Letaba and Nsami Circuits. The number had to be small so that I could be in a position to get detailed information from the few sampled participants. The limited number of sampled schools however enabled me to visit the four secondary schools and obtain detailed descriptions of valuable information. As in case studies, the findings of this research study might therefore, not be generalisable because the four schools which participated may not be a true representative of what happens at all schools in South Africa, or even in the Mopani District (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007:170). However, the results may be applicable at schools facing similar challenges as those found at the study sites of this research.

One of the limitations was that two PPLs, one from School B and another one from School D whom I sampled and attended the first meeting, withdrew from the study before interviews commenced. The PPL from School B indicated that her husband was against her participation in this study because he does not like their personal life (as wife and husband) to be exposed. The other PPL from School D reported that her classmates laughed at her as soon as the PMT called her. In both cases, I had to go back to select another PPLs. I had to study the school documents and follow procedures of sampling. It added four more days than I had planned, two days for each PPL. It was time-consuming and costly.

Another limitation was that this research was based on a sensitive topic. As such, when I used purposive sampling to select PPLs, I did not get a large number of people who voluntarily accepted to participate. I only got one PPL from each school who decided to come open in public. I overcame this by considering the snow ball sampling technique. I also overcame this by conducting individual face-to-face interviews to guarantee confidentiality. This increased the time allocated for field work.
Another limitation was that during the focus group interviews some mainstream learners’ interviews from School C were too vocal while others were silent. In order to motivate those who kept quite in the focus group interviews, I had to find time to talk to them individually in order to ascertain that their silence was a sincere act.

Another limitation was that schools do not normally keep records unless demanded by the DoE. I had to wait for the circuits to urge schools to submit their reports on learner pregnancy. I studied the submitted school records at circuit levels then I used the purposive sampling strategy to select one secondary school from each circuit which were rich in information. This added more time on the sampling processes.

One more limitation was that the school documents were not completely marked and updated. The attendance registers were not marked and submitted in time to the principal by the class teachers. Pregnancy monitoring registers were not updated by the PMTs. I had to secure another appointment in order to give enough time to class teachers and PMTs to update their registers. This also meant more time on field work.

A further limitation was that I had to rely only on the views of participants because the Learners Code of Conduct did not have a clause which provided for the management and handling of learner pregnancy in both schools. During the data presentation and analysis processes, I had to re-listen to the audio-tapes, re-visit and make a follow-ups on study participants in order to confirm and verify whether the statements given concerning school policy guidelines were correct. This added three more weeks to my research project.

7.6 CONCLUSION

The aim of the study was to examine the impact of the school-based interventions on teaching and learning of PPLs from four selected secondary schools in the Mopani District of the Limpopo Province in South Africa. Study participants comprised of SGBs, SMTs, and PMTs, class teachers, mainstream learners and PPLs. Focus group
interviews were conducted with SGBs and mainstream learners. Data were analysed thematically.

The study revealed that PPLs were not given adequate educational support. As a result, PPLs could not cope with schooling due to lack of educational support from their teachers, mainstream learners and their parents or guardians. The study revealed that school interventions in School B, School C and School D which compelled parents to accompany pregnant learners resulted in some learners dropping out. The study also revealed that school policy guidelines is based on practice but not documented in the four schools. Learners` Codes of Conduct were not linked to SASA Act No. 84 of 1996. It was further revealed that lack of training on national policy guidelines and lack of school social workers were major challenges faced by duty bearers. Recommendations to different stakeholders such as the DoE, teachers, parents or guardians were made. The study also made recommendations for further studies and a model which could help to redress challenges in implementation of interventions to educational needs of PPLs. The study concluded that there must be a collaboration between the school, parents and community support systems to form a PPLs support system. Community support systems such as social workers, counsellors and nurses must be co-opted to be part of the PPL support system.
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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

INFORMATION SHEET AND CONSENT FORM FOR SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

INTRODUCTION

I am Rifununi Nancy Mathebula, a Doctoral Student at the University of Venda. I would like to request your school to be part of my research study, which focuses on the school-based interventions on effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning.

I am requesting for permission to select participants from your school to participate in this study by expressing their views on the topic.

Who are the study participants?
The participants who will be taking part in this research study are; School Management Team (SMT) members, School Governing Body (SGB) members, Pregnant Monitoring Teachers (PMTs) or senior teachers, mainstream learners, Pregnant and Parenting Learners (PPLs) and class teachers of PPLs.

What is the purpose of the study?
The main objectives of this study are to:

- Investigate the challenges faced by PPLs which affect teaching and learning.
- Explore the interventions used by school-based education stake-holders, that is; SGBs, SMTs, PMTs, senior and class teachers to handle the effects of school girl pregnancy on learning.
- Examine the effectiveness of the interventions used by the school-based education stakeholders to help the Pregnant and Parenting Learners (PPLs) to cope with their schooling.
• Explore the challenges encountered by school-based education stakeholders in supporting the PPLs to cope with their schooling.

It is believed that the research study will result in helping the PPLs to cope with their schooling.

**What are the rights of voluntary participation in this study?**
The decision to take part in the study is totally voluntary, that is, to say participants are free to accept or refuse to take part in the study, if they have some doubts or think that participation will leave them emotional and psychological disturbed. Furthermore should they agree to participate but change their mind later, they will be allowed to withdraw at any time and stage in the study, without being asked any question. I will explain in details the purpose of the study, the procedures and the rules to be followed when conducting the interviews, time taken for interview processes, the use of voice recorder and other related things during our first meeting so that they can decide voluntarily to participate or not to participate in this study. They have the right to voluntary participation and non-participation, withdrawal and re-joining the project at any stage if they wish so. They are free to choose to take part or not in the research and they must know that exposure to risk is undertaken knowingly and voluntarily.

**What is Informed Consent in this study?**
I present to you this letter of consent before I start with interviews so that you can consent. I will explain in details the research process and roles of participants using their vernacular during our first meeting if you agree to give me permission to conduct interviews. I will allow participants to ask questions so they can gain clarity before I give them the consent form. I will give the participants enough time (three days) to study the consent letter, to think about their participation and then they will sign the consent form before participating in the interviews. I will remind them that they can withdraw at any time during the process if they wish to do so.
How to ensure Safety in participation?
Since the participants will only answer the questions on the topic being studied, there are no foreseeable physical injuries that could result from the study. If participants think they have anything important on this study, that they cannot say it out, they can write it and put it in school suggestion box, without indicating their names.

Also be informed that the study is not about participants` private life, but their views on the school-based interventions into effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning. However, if there are some questions that they do not want to answer during the interview, they have the right not to answer it.

How to ensure Privacy and Trust of participants?
As stated above, participants will not be interviewed about their private life, but will only express their views on school-based interventions into effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning. All information gathered in the study will be handled in a strictly confidential manner.

Firstly, participants will not be required to mention their names and their school during interview and no information gathered will be related to any name in the study. They will be given numbers and also letters will be used for their school. For example; they will be identified as SGB Number 3 from School B. I will use descriptions which did not lead readers of this thesis to know exactly who they are. I will also use gender, age, grade and other description to conceal their identity and the descriptions will be non-traceable.

Secondly, information gathered will only be used to the study or not be disclosed to any unauthorised people. Lastly, participants will be allowed to cross check information before and after it is put into the report. This will be done into another meeting, which will be between the participants and me.

I will strive to be honest and respectful to the participants. All their names and that of their school will remain anonymous. I will only reveal the name of the district and the name of your circuit. And if they require debriefing after an interview, I will provide that to satisfy
them. I will conduct the interviews in the office and I will be alone with the participant. I will schedule enough time for the interviewing process so that they can express themselves freely.

**How will the interview process conducted?**

If you allow your school to take part in the research study, I will request their permission to audio record the interview. This will help me to listen to the interview again at a later stage, and if I need the assistance of the second person in a form of a transcriber, then that person can also listen to the recorded interview, however, transcribers are also not allowed to share the information he/she listened to, to anyone. The audio recordings and the transcripts will be kept in a safe place. The final report shall be available to the participants before public and be accessed through the University of Venda.

**Have the study got permission from authority?**

The written permission to conduct the study was granted by the University Higher Degrees Committee (University of Venda) and the Department of Education; Mopani District and Circuit Manager. However, this does not mean that participants will participate in the study against their will.

If you have any queries about the information sheet, please feel free to contact me or my supervisor.

Rifununi Nancy Mathebula  
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Email address: Rifununi.mathebula@gmail.com  
Prof Tawanda Runhare (Supervisor)  
Telephone number: 015 962 8318   Cell: 079 216 3502 / 083 387 9903  
Email:Tawanda.Runhare@univen.ac.za

Kind regards  
Mathebula R.N.
INFORMED CONSENT DECLARATION FORM

In terms of the ethical consideration of the University of Venda, I now ask you to complete this form as an indication for permission to allow participants from your to voluntarily participate in the study.

I ………………………………………………………………………………………………….hereby confirm that I have been fully informed about the purpose, procedure and activities of the study. The rights and the risk of the study to the participants has been fully explained to me. I was given enough opportunity to ask and understand that participants can withdraw at any stage of the study without giving any reason.

Consent
I, therefore, hereby freely give my consent to participants from my school to voluntarily take part in the project as outlined.

Tick

I, therefore, hereby freely do not give my consent to participants from my school to voluntarily take part in the project as outlined.

Tick

Principal’s Signature: ……………………………………    Date:…………………………

Researcher’s Signature:  ……………………………………..     Date: …………………….  

© University of Venda
INTRODUCTION

I am Rifununi Nancy Mathebula a Doctoral Student at the University of Venda. I would like to request your school to be part of my research study, which focuses on school-based interventions on effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning.

I am requesting the permission to select you to participate in this study by expressing your views on the topic.

What is the purpose of the study?

The main objectives of this study are to:

- Investigate the challenges faced by PPLs which affect teaching and learning.
- Explore the interventions used by school-based education stake-holders, that is; School Governing Body (SGB), School Management Team (SMT), Pregnancy Monitoring Teachers (PMTs) or senior teachers and class teachers to handle the effects of school girl pregnancy on learning.
- Examine the effectiveness of the interventions used by the school-based education stakeholders to help the Pregnant and Parenting Learners (PPLs) to cope with their schooling.
- Explore the challenges encountered by school-based education stakeholders in supporting the PPLs to cope with their schooling.

It is believed that the research study will result in helping PPLs to cope with their schooling.
What are the rights of voluntary participation in this study?
The decision to take part in the study is totally voluntary, that is, to say participants are free to accept or refuse to take part in the study, if they have some doubts or think that participation will leave them emotional and psychological disturbed. Furthermore, should they agree to participate but change their mind later, they will be allowed to withdraw at any time and stage in the study, without being asked any question. I will explain in detail the purpose of the study, the procedures and the rules to be followed when conducting the interviews, the time taken for the interview processes, the use of voice recorder and other related things during our first meeting so that they can decide voluntarily to participate in this study. They have a right to voluntary participation and non-participation, withdrawal and re-joining the project at any stage if they wish so. They are free to choose to take part or not in the research and they must know that exposure to risk is undertaken knowingly and voluntarily.

What is Informed Consent in this study?
I present to you this letter of consent before I start with interviews so that you can consent. I will explain in details the research process and roles of participants using their vernacular during our first meeting if you agree to give me permission to conduct interviews. I will allow participants to ask questions so they can gain clarity before I give them the consent form. I will give the participants enough time (three days) to study the consent letter, to think about their participation and then they will sign the consent form before participating in the interviews. I will remind them that they can withdraw at any time during the process if they wish to do so.

How to ensure Safety in participation?
Since the participants will only answer the questions on the topic being studied, there are no foreseeable physical injuries that could result from the study. If participants think they have anything important on this study, that they cannot say it out, they can write it and put it in school suggestion box, without indicating their names.
Also, be informed that the study is not about participants` private life, but their views on the school-based interventions into effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning. However, if there are some questions that they do not want to answer during the interview, they have the right not to answer it.

**How to ensure Privacy and Trust of participants?**

As indicated above, participants will not be interviewed about their private life but will only express their views on school-based interventions into effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning. All information gathered in the study will be handled in a strictly confidential manner.

Firstly, participants will not mention their names and their school during interview and no information gathered will be related to any name in the study. They will be given numbers and also letters will be used for their school. For example; they will be identified as SGB Number 3 from School B. I will use descriptions which did not lead readers of this thesis to know exactly who they are. I will also use gender, age, grade and other description to conceal their identity and the descriptions will be non-traceable.

Secondly, information gathered will only be used for the study and will not be disclosed to any unauthorised people. Lastly, participants will be allowed to cross check information before and after it is put into the report. This will be done into another meeting, which will be between the participants and me.

I will strive to be honest and respectful to the participants. All their names and that of their school will remain anonymous. I will only reveal the name of the district and the name of your circuit. And if they require debriefing after an interview, I will provide that to satisfy them. I will conduct the interviews in the office and I will be alone with the participant. I will schedule enough time for the interviewing process so that they can express themselves freely.
How will the interview process conducted?
If you allow your school to take part in the research study, I will request for their permission to audio record the interview. This will help me to listen to the interview again at a later stage, and if I need the assistance of the second person in a form of a transcriber, then that person can also listen to the recorded interview, however, transcribers are also not allowed to share the information he/she listened to, to anyone. The audio recordings and the transcripts will be kept in a safe place. The final report shall be available to the participants before public and be accessed through the University of Venda.

Have the study got permission from authority?
The written permission to conduct the study was granted by the University Higher Degrees Committee (University of Venda) and the Department of Education; Mopani District, Circuit Manager and School Principal. However, this does not mean that participants will participate in the study against their will.

If you have any queries about the information sheet, please feel free to contact me or my supervisor.

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Email:Tawanda.Runhare@univen.ac.za

Kind regards

Mathebula R.N.
INFORMED CONSENT DECLARATION FORM

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I …………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………hereby confirm that I have been fully informed about the purpose, procedure and activities of the study. The rights and the risk of the study to the participants has been fully explained to me. I was given enough opportunity to ask and understand that participants can withdraw at any stage of the study without giving any reason.

CONSENT

I, therefore, hereby freely give my consent to voluntarily take part in the project as outlined.

Tick

I, therefore, hereby freely do not give my consent to voluntarily take part in the project as outlined.

Tick

Participant’s Signature: ……………………………………… Date:…………………………

Researcher`s Signature: ……………………………………… Date: ……………………………
APPENDIX 3

INFORMATION SHEET AND CONSENT FORM FOR THE PREGNANT AND PARENTING LEARNERS (PPLS)

INTRODUCTION

I am Rifununi Nancy Mathebula a Doctoral Student at the University of Venda. I would like to request your school to be part of my research study, which is based on the school-based interventions into effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning.

I am requesting the permission to select you to participate in this study by expressing your views on the topic.

What is the purpose of the study?
The main objectives of this study are to:

• Investigate the challenges faced by PPLs which affect teaching and learning.
• Explore the interventions used by school-based education stake-holders, that is; School Governing Body (SGB), School Management Team (SMT), Pregnancy Monitoring Teachers (PMTs) or senior teachers and class teachers to handle the effects of school girl pregnancy on learning.
• Examine the effectiveness of the interventions used by the school-based education stakeholders to help the Pregnant and Parenting Learners (PPLs) to cope with their schooling.
• Explore the challenges encountered by school-based education stakeholders in supporting the PPLs to cope with their schooling.

It is believed that the research study will result in helping the PPLs to cope with their schooling.
What are the rights of voluntary participation in this study?
The decision to take part in the study is totally voluntary, that is, to say participants are free to accept or refuse to take part in the study, if they have some doubts or think that participation will leave them emotional and psychological disturbed. Furthermore, should they agree to participate but change their mind later, they will be allowed to withdraw at any time and stage in the study, without being asked any question. I will explain in details the purpose of the study, the procedures and the rules to be followed when conducting the interviews, time taken for interview processes, the use of voice recorder and other related things during our first meeting so that they can decide voluntarily to participate in this study. They have right to voluntary participation and non-participation, withdrawal and re-joining the project at any stage if they wish so. They are freely to choose to take part or not in the research and they must know that exposure to risk is undertaken knowingly and voluntarily.

What is Informed Consent in this study?
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How to ensure Safety in participation?
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Also be informed that the study is not about participants` private life, but their views on the school-based interventions into effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning. However, if there are some questions that they do not want to answer during the interview, they have the right not to answer it.

**How to ensure Privacy and Trust of participants?**

As expressed above, participants will not be interviewed about their private life but will only express their views on school-based interventions into effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning. All information gathered in the study will be handled in a strictly confidential manner.

Firstly, participants will not mention their names and their school during interview and no information gathered will be related to any name in the study. They will be given numbers and also letters will be used for their school. For example; they will be identified as SGB Number 3 from School B. I will use descriptions which did not lead readers of this thesis to know exactly who they are. I will also use gender, age, grade and other description to conceal their identity and the descriptions will be non-traceable.

Secondly, information gathered will only be used to the study or not be disclosed to any unauthorised people. Lastly, participants will be allowed to cross check information before and after it is put into the report. This will be done into another meeting, which will be between the participants and me.

I will strive to be honest and respectful to the participants. All their names and that of their school will remain anonymous. I will only revealed the name of the district and the name of your circuit. And if they require debriefing after an interview, I will provide that to satisfy them. I will conduct the interviews in the office and I will be alone with the participant. I will schedule enough time for the interviewing process so that they can express themselves freely.
How will the interview process conducted?
If you allow your school to take part in the research study, I will request their permission to audio record the interview. This will help me to listen to the interview again at a later stage, and if I need the assistance of the second person in a form of a transcriber, then that person can also listen to the recorded interview, however, transcribers are also not allowed to share the information he/she listened to, to anyone. The audio recordings and the transcripts will be kept in a safe place. The final report shall be available to the participants before public and be accessed through the University of Venda.

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CONSENT

I, therefore, hereby freely give my consent to voluntarily take part in the project as outlined.

Tick

I, therefore, hereby freely do not give my consent to voluntarily take part in the project as outlined.

Tick

Participant`s Signature: …........................................ Date:.........................

Researcher`s Signature: .................. Date: ................
INTRODUCTION

I am **Rifununi Nancy Mathebula** a Doctoral Student at the University of Venda. I would like to request your school to be part of my research study, which is based on the school-based interventions into effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning.

I am requesting the permission to select your child to participate in this study by expressing your views on the topic.

**What is the purpose of the study?**

The main objectives of this study are to:

- Investigate the challenges faced by PPLs which affect teaching and learning.
- Explore the interventions used by school-based education stake-holders, that is; School Governing Body (SGB), School Management Team (SMT), Pregnancy Monitoring Teachers (PMTs) or senior teachers and class teachers to handle the effects of school girl pregnancy on learning.
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- Explore the challenges encountered by school-based education stakeholders in supporting the PPLs to cope with their schooling.

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How will the interview process conducted?
If you allow your school to take part in the research study, I will request their permission to audio record the interview. This will help me to listen to the interview again at a later stage, and if I need the assistance of the second person in a form of a transcriber, then that person can also listen to the recorded interview, however, transcribers are also not allowed to share the information he/she listened to, to anyone. The audio recordings and the transcripts will be kept in a safe place. The final report shall be available to the participants before public and be accessed through the University of Venda.

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INFORMED CONSENT DECLARATION FORM

In terms of the ethical consideration of the University of Venda, I now ask you to complete this form as an indication for permission to allow participants from your to voluntarily participate in the study.

I……………………………………………………………………………………………………………… hereby confirm that I have been fully informed about the purpose, procedure and activities of the study. The rights and the risk of the study to the participants has been fully explained to me. I was given enough opportunity to ask and understand that participants can withdraw at any stage of the study without giving any reason.

CONSENT

I, therefore, hereby freely give my consent to my child to voluntarily take part in the project as outlined.

Tick

I, therefore, hereby freely do not give my consent to my child to voluntarily take part in the project as outlined.

Tick

Parent`s Signature: ……………………………………    Date:………………..........

Researcher`s Signature: …………………………………..     Date: ……………………..
APPENDIX 5

FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SCHOOL GOVERNING BODY

INTRODUCTION

My name is Mathebula R.N. I am studying how your school is assisting pregnant and parenting learners (PPLs) to remain in school, participate, access educational opportunities and complete their education.

I thank you for accepting to take part in this discussion. Please feel free to say anything. However should you feel that there are certain things you do not want to say in the presence of others, you can write and forward to me after the discussion. The views expressed here are only going to be used for this study and all views are important will be kept in confidential. Also, you do not have to say who you are because only the ideas and not your name are important.

Thank you for your time

1. What are your challenges in governing the school which has pregnant and parenting learners?
2. Explain the problems which affect pregnant learners in your school?
3. Describe the problems which affect the parenting learners in your school.
4. How do teachers to support pregnant learners?
5. Explain what you are doing as SGB of the school to assist teachers to support parenting learners cope with schooling.
6. How effective is your support to PPLs is helping them to cope with their schooling?
7. What do you think must still be done by the SGB in your school to help the PPLs to cope with their schooling?
APPENDIX 6

FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR MAINSTREAM LEARNERS

INTRODUCTION
My name is Mathebula R.N. I am studying how your school is assisting pregnant and parenting learners (PPLs) to remain in school, participate, access educational opportunities and complete their education.
I thank you for accepting to take part in this discussion. Please feel free to say anything. However should you feel that there are certain things you do not want to say in the presence of others, you can write and forward to me after the discussion. The views expressed here are only going to be used for this study and all views are important will be kept in confidential. Also, you do not have to say who you are because only the ideas and not your name are important.
Thank you for your time

1. What problems affect pregnant learners in your class?
2. Explain the problems which affect the parenting learners in your class.
3. Explain what you do as fellow classmates or schoolmates to support pregnant learners to cope with their schooling.
4. Explain what you do as fellow classmates or schoolmates to support parenting learners to cope with their schooling.

5. How effective is your support to PPLs is helping them to cope with their schooling?

6. What do you think must still be done by you as fellow classmates or schoolmates to support the pregnant and parenting learners to cope with their schooling?
APPENDIX 7

INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SCHOOL MANAGEMENT TEAM

INTRODUCTION

My name is Mathebula R.N. I am studying how your school is assisting pregnant and parenting learners (PPLs) to remain in school, participate, access educational opportunities and complete their education.

I thank you for accepting to take part in this discussion. Please feel free to say anything. However should you feel that there are certain things you do not want to say in the presence of others, you can write and forward to me after the discussion. The views expressed here are only going to be used for this study and all views are important will be kept in confidential. Also, you do not have to say who you are because only the ideas and not your name are important.

Thank you for your time

1. What are the challenges you as SMTs faces in teaching pregnant and parenting learners?
2. Describe the problems which affect pregnant and parenting learners in your school.
3. What do you do as SMT to assist teachers to support pregnant learners?
4. How effective is your support to PPLs is helping them to cope with their schooling?
5. Explain the administrative measures you take as SMT members if the pregnant or parenting learner missed lessons due to giving birth.
6. As SMT, what do you think must still be done to support the pregnant and parenting learners to cope with their schooling?
APPENDIX 8

INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR CLASS TEACHERS

INTRODUCTION
My name is Mathebula R.N. I am studying how your school is assisting pregnant and parenting learners (PPLs) to remain in school, participate, access educational opportunities and complete their education.

I thank you for accepting to take part in this discussion. Please feel free to say anything. However should you feel that there are certain things you do not want to say in the presence of others, you can write and forward to me after the discussion. The views expressed here are only going to be used for this study and all views are important will be kept in confidential. Also, you do not have to say who you are because only the ideas and not your name are important.

Thank you for your time

1. What challenges have you experienced in teaching pregnant and parenting learners in your class?
2. Indicate the problems which affect pregnant and parenting learners in your class.
3. Explain what you are doing as class teachers to assist teachers to support pregnant learners in your class to cope with schooling.
4. As class teacher, what measures do you put in place if the pregnant or parenting learner missed lessons due to giving birth?
5. How effective is your support to PPLs is helping them to cope with their schooling?
6. As class teachers, what do you think you must still do to support PPLs to cope with their schooling?
7. Explain the challenges you face as class teachers in supporting PPLs to cope with schooling.
INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR PREGNANCY MONITORING TEACHERS

INTRODUCTION
My name is Mathebula R.N. I am studying how your school is assisting pregnant and parenting learners (PPLs) to remain in school, participate, access educational opportunities and complete their education.
I thank you for accepting to take part in this discussion. Please feel free to say anything. However should you feel that there are certain things you do not want to say in the presence of others, you can write and forward to me after the discussion. The views expressed here are only going to be used for this study and all views are important will be kept in confidential. Also, you do not have to say who you are because only the ideas and not your name are important.
Thank you for your time

1. What challenges do you face as monitoring teacher for pregnant and parenting learners?
2. As a monitoring teacher for PPLs, indicate the problems which affect pregnant and parenting learners in your school?
3. As the monitoring teacher for PPLs explain what you are doing in the school to assist teachers to support these learners with their schooling.
4. As Pregnancy Monitoring Teacher, what do you do if the pregnant or parenting learner misses lessons?
5. As Pregnancy Monitoring Teacher what support are you giving the PPLs to assist them to cope with their schooling?
6. How effective is your support to PPLs is helping them to cope with their schooling?
7. As Pregnancy Monitoring Teacher, what do you think you must still do to support PPLs to cope with their schooling?

8. As Pregnancy Monitoring Teacher, what challenges do you face to support PPLs to cope with their schooling?
APPENDIX 10

INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR PREGNANT AND PARENTING LEARNERS

INTRODUCTION

My name is Mathebula R.N. I am studying how your school is assisting pregnant and parenting learners (PPLs) to remain in school, participate, access educational opportunities and complete their education.

I thank you for accepting to take part in this discussion. Please feel free to say anything. However should you feel that there are certain things you do not want to say in the presence of others, you can write and forward to me after the discussion. The views expressed here are only going to be used for this study and all views are important will be kept in confidential. Also, you do not have to say who you are because only the ideas and not your name are important.

Thank you for your time

1. What are some of the problems that affect you in class as a pregnant or parenting learner?
2. Indicate the problems that affect you at school as a pregnant or parenting learner?
3. Explain what the school is doing to assist you as a pregnant or parenting learner.
4. How do teachers do to you as a pregnant or parenting learner when you miss lessons?
5. Describe how your classmates support you to cope with your schooling.
6. Describe how your teachers support you to cope with your schooling.
7. Describe how the SMT support you to cope with your schooling.
8. In your opinion, what do you think must be done by your classmates to assist the pregnant and parenting learners to cope with their schooling?
9. As pregnant and parenting learner, what support do you need from your teachers to assist you to cope with your schooling?

10. As pregnant and parenting learner, what support do you need from the SMT to assist you to cope with your schooling?
APPENDIX 11

SCHOOL POLICY OF SCHOOL C

HIGH SCHOOL

SCHOOL POLICY

INTRODUCTION AND PREAMBLE

According to the section 33 of the constitution of 1996 of the Republic of South Africa, all the persons are to be treated fairly and in accordance with proper legal procedure. Children have the right to Education. Recognising that effective, skills-based, holistic education depends on a school environment in which there is a culture of learning and teaching. This right to education cannot be separated from the responsibilities of learners towards their own education and rights and responsibilities of educators, parents and the wider community.

On admission to school, learners will be provided with a copy of this Code, which will also be made available by the school on request at any time.

THE SCHOOL’S VISION

We at Secondary commit ourselves to providing QUALITY public education that will promote and sustain ACADEMIC and SKILL EXCELLENCE. Aimed at developing a learner who is responsible, competent, innovative and independent in his life-world.

THE MISSION STATEMENT

IN IMPLEMENTING AND PROMOTING OUR VISION, WE AS SECONDARY PROMISE THE FOLLOWING:

I. QUALITY

1.1 By offering effective and exciting teaching and learning every working day.
1.2 Conducting progressive quality assessment accompanied by high moderation standards.
1.3 Adding value to subject matter through progressive consultation, sharing ideas and supporting one another as educators.
1.4 Encouraging educator upgrading and workshops in order to maximize our potential and attain excellence.
1.5 Giving recognition to educators who have made a remarkable contribution to learner development.
1.6 Encouraging continuous consultation with parents to ensure support for the learner even at home.

II. ACADEMIC EXCELLENCE

2.1 To create non-threatening learning environment.
2.2 Encourage maximal learner involvement in learning.
2.3 To reward academic achievement in the form of merits and insignia (badges, etc)
APPENDIX 12
ATTENDANCE REGISTER OF SCHOOL D

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Note: Attendance records for each student are listed across the columns for the specified dates.
APPENDIX 13

PREGNANCY REGISTER OF SCHOOL B

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APPENDIX 15

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH: MOPANI DISTRICT

TO: MATHEBULA R.N

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH: SCHOOL BASED INTERVENTIONS INTO EFFECTS OF SCHOOL PREGNANCY ON TEACHING AND LEARNING IN MOPANI DISTRICT, LIMPOPO PROVINCE S.A.

1. The above matter refers.

2. The Department wishes to inform you that your request to conduct research on the above mentioned topic has been approved.

3. Your focus should only be limited to schools listed below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>KLEIN LETARA</th>
<th>MAMAILA CIRCUIT</th>
<th>NSAMI CIRCUIT</th>
<th>SHAMAVUNGA</th>
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<td>Kheoti High</td>
<td>Mbabaneke High</td>
<td>Malenga High</td>
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</table>

4. The following conditions should be considered:

4.1. Arrangement should be made with affected schools.

4.2. The research should not be conducted during Examinations especially the 4th term.

4.3. During research, applicable research ethics should be adhered to, in particular the principle of voluntary participation (the people involved should be respected).

4.4. Upon completion of the research study, the researcher shall share the final product of the research with the Department.

4.5. The research should not have any financial implications to the Department of Education Limpopo Province.

4.6. Furthermore, you are expected to produce this letter to schools and offices where you intend to conduct your research since it will serve as proof that you have been granted permission to conduct the research.

6. The Department appreciates the contribution that you wish to make and wishes you success in your research.

[Signature and Date]

DISTRICT DIRECTOR

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

DATE

The heartland of Southern Africa – development is about people

312
APPENDIX 16

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH: MBHANGAZEKI HIGH SCHOOL (NSAMI CIRUUIT)

ENQ: NTSANWISI M E
TEL: 015 812 1842

TO: MRS MATHEBULA R N

SUBJECT: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH : MBHANGAZEKI HIGH SCHOOL

1. Permission has been granted to yourself to do research at Mbhangazeki High school at Nsami Circuit for your PHD with the University of Venda as per your request.

2. Hoping that you will get the required assistance as expected at our school.

CIRCUIT MANAGER

DATE 29/05/2018
APPENDIX 17
PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT KHEODI HIGH SCHOOL (MAMAILA CIRCUIT)

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Enq: Makhuvha L.C
Tel No: 015 310 6015/16/17

P O Box 3952
Giyani
0826

29 May 2018

Dear Madam

RE: APPLICATION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH STUDY

The above matter alluded.

1. You are hereby granted permission to conduct your research at your selected school, Kheodi which is based in Bellevue.
2. We therefore plea with you that your research should not interfere with the lessons, you must make proper arrangement with the principal of the school so that the lessons are not interrupted.
3. Will be sure to inform the principal of Kheodi about your request in time.
4. Upon completion of your sessions with the school you must inform the office of the circuit manager.

We wish you the best luck during your research and your studies, and we hope that the information that you will gather at Kheodi High School will be relevant and helpful.

(C)

CDS/Circuit Manager (Dr Makhuvha L.C)

2018 29 1

Date
APPENDIX 18

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AT MALENGA HIGH SCHOOL (SHAMAVUNGA CIRCUIT)

LIMPOPO
PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
SHAMAVUNGA CIRCUIT
MOPANI DISTRICT

To: Ringani TP/Rivisi T.N
Tel: 015 812 1131
25 May 2018
Mrs Mwabeula R.N
P O Box 3952
Giyani
0826

Madam

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AT MALENGA HIGH SCHOOL: SHAMAVUNGA CIRCUIT.

1. The above matter bears reference.

2. Congratulations on your study and the circuit wishes you well. Kindly adhere to the Research Ethics and the Guidance by the district office.

3. Kindly note that your request for permission to conduct educational research at Malenga High School has been granted.

4. Thanking you in advance.

DR CHAUKE TM
CIRCUIT MANAGER

The heartland of Southern Africa – development is about people
PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT EDWARD HOMU SECONDARY SCHOOL (KLEIN LETABA CIRCUIT)

1. The above matter refers.

2. The circuit wish to inform you that your request to conduct research at Edward Homu Secondary School has been approved.

3. The circuit would like to remind you to comply with all the conditions stated by the district office.

4. We wish you well in your research.

Circuit Manager

Enq: Machumele M.M
Cel: 062 808 9085

To: Mathebula R.N

Klein Letaba Circuit
GEMPCC
P/Bag 9654
Giyani
0826
Tel: (015) 812-1793
Fax: (015) 812 1141
APPENDIX 20

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH FROM THE PRINCIPAL OF SCHOOL A

Dear Madam,

Re: Permission to Conduct Research.

It is our great pleasure as a school above to grant Mrs Mathebula R.N. permission to conduct research in our institution.

Our only condition is that she must abide by policies of the District and Department of Education as outlined in the governing of public schools.

We wish her success going forward.

Yours Faithfully

(School Manager)
APPENDIX 21

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH FROM THE PRINCIPAL OF SCHOOL B

7 June 2018

Mrs Mathebula R.N
P.O. Box 3062
GIYANI
0826

Madam

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AT HIGH SCHOOL.

1. Kindly be informed that your request for permission to conduct educational research at High School has been approved.

2. Further note that participants will voluntarily take part in the project, and will not be forced or coerced to participate.

3. Thanking you in advance.

(PRINCIPAL)

DATE

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
HIGH SCHOOL
OFFICE OF THE PRINCIPAL
2018-06-27

P.O. BOX 3062, GIYANI, 0826
LIMPOPO PROVINCE

we strive for educational excellence
APPENDIX 22

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH FROM THE PRINCIPAL OF
SCHOOL C

CONTACTS:
0726667304/0785143425
.....@yahoo.com

HIGH SCHOOL
Stand No 31
Box 260
Giyani
Village

Mdam

RE: Permission to conduct research

The above school hereby grants Mrs Mathebula RN permission to conduct her research as
requested by her supervisor, provided she abide by the District and Departmental policies
governing research in schools.

We wish her success with her endeavor.

Kindest regards

(Principal)
APPENDIX 23

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH FROM THE PRINCIPAL OF SCHOOL D

HIGH SCHOOL
FMIS NO: 0970520108
P. O. BOX 5126
MOLOTOTSI
GWI 7975577757

CONTACT:
079 928 1850
______@gmail.com

Madam

RE: Permission to conduct research

The above school hereby grants Mrs Mathebula R.N permission to conduct her research as requested by her supervisor, provided she abide by the District and Departmental policies governing research in schools.

We wish her success with her studies

Regards

(Principal)
APPENDIX 24

UHDC APPROVAL LETTER

UNIVERSITY OF VENDA
OFFICE OF THE DEPUTY VICE-CHANCELLOR: ACADEMIC

TO: MR/MS R.N MATHEBULA
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

FROM: PROF J.E. CRAFFORD
DEPUTY VICE-CHANCELLOR: ACADEMIC

DATE: 28 AUGUST 2017

DECISIONS TAKEN BY UHDC OF 24TH AUGUST 2017

Application for approval of Thesis research proposal in Education: R.N Mathebula (11628665)

Topic: “School based interventions into effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning in Mopani district Limpopo province, South Africa.”

Promoter UNIVEN Prof. T. Runhare
Co-promoter UNIVEN Dr. T.N Mafumo

UHDC approved Thesis proposal

[Signature]

Prof J.E. CRAFFORD
DEPUTY VICE-CHANCELLOR: ACADEMIC

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APPENDIX 25

UNIVERSITY ETHICAL CLEARENCE LETTER

NAME OF RESEARCHER/INVESTIGATOR:
Mrs RN Mathebula

Student No:
11628885

PROJECT TITLE: School-based interventions into effects of school girl pregnancy on teaching and learning in Mopani District, Limpopo Province, South Africa.

PROJECT NO: SEDU/18/ECE/01/1204

SUPERVISORS/ CO-RESEARCHERS/ CO-INVESTIGATORS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME</th>
<th>INSTITUTION &amp; DEPARTMENT</th>
<th>ROLE</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prof T Runhare</td>
<td>University of Venda</td>
<td>Promoter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prof TN Matumo</td>
<td>University of Limpopo</td>
<td>Co - Promoter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mrs RN Mathebula</td>
<td>University of Venda</td>
<td>Investigator - Student</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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ISSUED BY:
UNIVERSITY OF VENDA, RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

Date Considered: July 2018
Decision by Ethical Clearance Committee Granted
Signature of Chairperson of the Committee: ...
Name of the Chairperson of the Committee: Senior Prof. G.E. Ekosse

UNIVERSITY OF VENDA
DIRECTOR RESEARCH AND INNOVATION
2016 -07- 3 1

University of Venda
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APPENDIX 26

EDITOR’S LETTER

University of Venda
Department of Communication and Applied Language Studies,
School of Human and Social Sciences
Private Bag X5630 Thohoyandou, 6950
Tel: +27159282824/Fax: +2715924149

17 July 2019

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: EDITING OF MATHEBULA RIFUNUNI NANCY DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
THESIS, STUDENT NUMBER 11628885

This letter serves to confirm that I edited Mathebula Rifunnuny Nancy’s Doctor of Education
Thesis titled “School-Based Interventions Into Effects of School Girl Pregnancy on Teaching and Learning in
Mopani District, Limpopo Province, South Africa”.

My work entailed identifying and correcting grammatical, typographical, formatting and related
editorial errors in the document.

I have recommended a number of corrections related to formatting, grammatical, typographical
and sentence construction errors in the document. The responsibility to ensure that ALL the
recommended changes are correctly effected is that of the author of the document.

Should there be any queries regarding the editorial aspects of the document please do not hesitate
to contact me.

Yours sincerely

[Signature]

Dr T. Chari, (PhD Wits), Senior Lecturer, Department of Communication & Applied Language
Studies
Cell: +27838620747