SCHOLASTIC PERFORMANCE OF ADOLESCENT PREGNANT LEARNERS

by

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MARCH 2012

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DECLARATION

I, Tshiwandalani Patricia Mafhara, (Student Number 8600232) declare that the dissertation entitled: **Scholastic Performance of Adolescent Pregnant Learners,** is my own work, and has not been submitted for a degree at another university before. All the sources that has been used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

TP Mafhara

22/08/2012

Date

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DEDICATION

This research study is dedicated to my husband, Lazarus Malovhele, words cannot express my gratitude for your constant support, love, unfailing faith in me and your encouragement over the years. Thank you for giving me the space I needed to complete this study even though I sacrificed so much family time. You are very special to me. I love you.

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ABSTRACT

This study looked at the scholastic performance of senior phase (Grades 7-9) pregnant learners from Vhumbedzi circuit of Vhembe district in Limpopo province of South Africa. A self-administered questionnaire was completed by 87 respondents. The respondents were selected from 1 primary and 2 secondary schools through purposive and stratified random sampling. A focus group discussion with six educators teaching the respondents prior and during their pregnancy was conducted. Purposive sampling was utilized to select educators for the research schools. The general finding was that there is a significant difference on the scholastic performance of pregnant learners compared to that of non pregnant learners. There is also a significant difference in the scholastic performance of male learners with pregnant girlfriends compared to male learners with non pregnant girlfriends/no girlfriends. Pregnant learners significantly performed poorly compared to non pregnant learners. Male learners with pregnant girlfriends also performed poorly as compared to male learners with no girlfriends/non pregnant girlfriends. The findings are significant especially in South Africa where teenage pregnancy is in the rise and recommendations are essential in guiding on how to support learner and educators in such schools.

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CHAPTER ONE

ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

1.1. BACKGROUND

Teenage pregnancy, which is detrimental to the health of the mother and child is a common public health problem worldwide (Dangal, 2005). This is a problem that affects nearly every society, developed and developing alike. According to Dangal (2005), it is one of the key issues concerning reproductive health of women not only in developing but also in developed countries.

As they mature, young people are increasingly exposed to reproductive health risks such as sexual transmitted infections and unintended pregnancy (Mashigo, 2009). Mashigo (2009) went on to say that these risks do not only hamper their education but minimizes their chances of participating meaningfully in the reconstruction and redevelopment of their country. Young girls need good decision and goal-setting skills to enhance their future and the development of their country. A teenage girl needs to participate as sexual being that has the ability to make choices and express love and intimacy consistent with own values (Males, 1993a).

Education is central to the development of young people as it prepares them for the world of work and for life (Panday, Makiwane, Ranchod & Letsoalo 2009). Panday, et al (2009) went on to say that young people spend longer periods in education as part of their natural course of development; sexual experimentation and maturity coincide with their schooling. For the unlucky few, the experimentation results in unplanned pregnancy (Panday, et al, 2009)). As long as the public and policy makers harbour beliefs that schools can devise magical solutions to teenage pregnancies, measures

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necessary to reverse the increasing failure of adults at both personal and governmental levels to meet their obligations to ensure youth well-being will continue to suffer (Males, 1993b).

Child bearing among teenagers has grown in significance as a social construct and to represent one of several indicators of burgeoning adolescent delinquency, sexual permissiveness and moral decay (Panday et al, 2009). It is common knowledge that youth often jeopardise their health by engaging in behaviours with serious short- and long-term consequences such as substance abuse and sexual risk behaviour that can result in HIV and unintended pregnancy. Jehovah's Witnesses Official Web Site (2004) cites teen pregnancy as an epidemic. The tragic proportions of this problem are best seen when the impact of a pregnancy upon one frightened teenage is considered (Jehovah's Witnesses Web Site, 2004). According to Jehovah's Witnesses Web Site (2004), teenage pregnancy involves a number of complex social and emotional issues and this will deeply impact not only on herself but also her family and loved ones.

Each year, almost one million teenage women- 11% of those aged 15 become pregnant, representing 20% of those who have had sexual intercourse (World Population Awareness, 2000). The nation's children are its future workers, citizens and leaders (American Psychological Association, 2011). Education remains the major tool by which people become empowered. Analysts are warning that our society is being hit by a pregnancy tsunami (Ramphele, 2011). Every year in the South African[1] schools, thousands of learners become pregnant (Boulden, 2011). Most schools allow pregnant learners to continue attending classes as long as they can, making young girls with bulges under their uniform a common sight (Khumalo, 2011).

[1] Will be referred to as SA hereafter

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It is common knowledge that historically as well as culturally, sexuality of teenage girls has been both acknowledged and celebrated. The modern day bombardment of teenagers by media and advertisers with highly sexualized images of themselves creates and reinforces messages that teenage girls are sexual beings and successful teenage girls will be seeking and having boyfriends (Jewkes & Christofides, 2008), while ignoring the consequences of irresponsible sexual activities. Some youth seemingly do not grasp the connection between sex and pregnancy (Jehovah's Witnesses Web Site, 2004).

The South African schools are also beset by the problems that plague schools globally, like violence, drug abuse and teenage pregnancy (South Africa Web, 2009). Pregnancy is amongst the major concerns that pose a serious threat to gains achieved in public schools thus far (Panday et al, 2009). The analysis of EMIS[2] data on teenage pregnancy shows an increase in learner pregnancies between 2004 and 2008 in SA. Limpopo is amongst the three SA provinces with a concentration of learner pregnancies (Panda et al, 2009). Media reports claimed a dramatic increase in the number of SA school girls falling pregnant and this has sparked a national debate (Irin/PlusNews, 2010).The SA Basic Education Minister, Mrs A.M. Motshekga said the education system is showing signs of reduction in the high levels of pregnancies (Africa News, 2009). Citing the results of a recent study on teenage pregnancy, the minister said the country's teenage pregnancy has dropped further as a result of measurers deployed since 2007 to tackle the menace, which threatened the quality of education (Africa News, 2009). Teenage pregnancy undermines the Department's efforts to ensure that girl children remain in schools, in order to contribute towards a quality life for all, free of poverty (Panday et al, 2009).

Despite the reported decline in teenage fertility rates, the high propotion of teenange pregnacy in SA remains a serious public health issue (Markham, Flesher, Addy, Baumler & Tortolero, 2009) and has increased in all race groups except Indians

[2] Education Management Information System

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(Makiwane & Udjo, 2007). Makiwane and Udjo (2007), suggest that overall fertility has been accompanied by a shift in child bearing towards younger women. Teenage pregnancy is not a challenge facing only the Department of Education, it has become a tragedy for public and private sector partners including schools, media, health care providers, religious institutions, community leaders and more important, parents and the learners themselves (Dangal, 2005; Panday et al, 2009).

Although many studies (Mpanza, 2006; Chigona & Chetty, 2007; Chigona & Chetty, 2008; Panday et al, 2009; Matshotyana, 2010, Runhare, 2010) have been conducted on teenage pregnancy in SA, the issue of scholastic performance of pregnant learners has not received sufficient attention. Furthermore, fewer studies have addressed the effects of teenage pregnancy on the performance of learners. Thus in this study I aim to empirically research the scholastic performance of younger adolescent pregnant learners.

1.2. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In their daily lives, adolescents are exposed to mixed and confusing information about sexuality from their peers, media, educators, parents (not common in the African culture for parents to talk about sex with their children) and religious leaders. They need this information to develop their own sexuality and behaviour. In trying to resolve their confusion, they tend to expose themselves in risk-taking behaviors such as unprotected sex. Unprotected sex may have serious repercussions like unplanned pregnancy which may interfere with their schooling. The reality is that problems associated with the scholastic performance of adolescent pregnant learners may be greater than many realize. Therefore, this study explores the scholastic performance of adolescent pregnant learners.

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1.3. OBJECTIVES

This study is directed at both primary and secondary objectives.

The primary aim of this study is to investigate the scholastic performance of adolescent pregnant learners.

1.3.2. The study is also directed at the following secondary objectives.

- To assess if educators' lack of pregnancy managerial skills impact negatively on the scholastic performance of learners.
- To examine if there were differences between adolescent pregnant learners and those who are not pregnant in regard to their scholastic performance.
- To establish whether male learners whose girlfriends are pregnant were affected in their scholastic performance
- To examine whether the behavior of pregnant learners affect their scholastic performance.
- To assess if there is significant differences in the scholastic performance of male learners with non pregnant girlfriends and male learners whose girlfriends are pregnant.

1.4. HYPOTHESIS

- Pregnancy affects the scholastic performance of learners.
- Educators' lack of pregnancy managerial skills impact negatively on the scholastic performance of learners.
- There is a significant difference between adolescent pregnant learners and non pregnant learners as regards to scholastic performance.
- Pregnant learners' behaviour affects their scholastic performance
- There is a significant difference in the scholastic performance of male learners with non pregnant girlfriends and male learners whose girlfriends are pregnant.

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1.5. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions were formulated and they were tested later in the study:

- Is there an association between teen pregnancy and their scholastic performance?
- Do educators' lack of pregnancy managerial skills impact negatively on pregnant learners' scholastic performance?
- Would there be gender difference in scholastic performance between pregnant learners and male learners whose girlfriends are pregnant?
- Does school behavior of pregnant learners impact negatively on their scholastic performance?
- Would there be a difference in scholastic performance of pregnant learners and non pregnant learners?

1.6. PRELIMINARY LITERATURE REVIEW

1.6.1. Theoretical Perspective

This study is informed by Lawrence Kohlberg's (1927-1987) developmental theory and Erik Erikson's psychosocial theory. Kohlberg described three stages of moral development which described the process through which people learn to discriminate right from wrong and to develop increasingly sophisticated appreciation of morality (Oswalt, 2008). According to Kohlberg, moral development is a lifelong task and many people fail to develop the more advanced stages of moral understanding. High risk behaviours of early sexual initiation among adolescents can therefore be related to individual's development of Kohlberg's stages of moral understanding such as pre conventional mind, the conventional mind and the post conventional level. Erik Erikson accepted the basic Freudian psychological processes of perceiving, remembering,

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problem solving, and defensive activity (Oswalt, 2008). According to Erikson (1968), the concept of identity or its failure (identity crisis) involves the inner but conscious, sense of uniqueness or individuality; a feeling of inner wholeness and synthesis; a feeling of continuity with the past and present; and a feeling of solidarity in ideas and values with a group from which a person receives support. An adolescent need support and approval from the significant others (members of the family, relatives, peers, educators, etc). Erikson (1963) described eight stages of development and each stage has its own developmental characteristics and crisis. Each crisis is brought about by increasing physical maturity along with demands placed upon the adolescent by parents and society. Erikson viewed adolescent as a time of turmoil, stress and feelings of vulnerability which may lead to risk-taking behaviour.

This study examined the global incidents of teenage pregnancy (Dangal, 2005; IdeaCONNECTION, 2007; Makiwane & Udjo, 2007). The causes of teenage pregnancy such as adolescent behaviour, contraception, age discrepancy in relationships, sexual abuse, dating violence, socioeconomic factors as well as childhood environment (Schuster, Bell, Berry & Kanouse, 1998; Higson-Smith, 2001; Maree & Ebersohn, 2002 Dangal, 2005; Jewkes & Christofides, 2008, Harrison, 2008; Macgregor, 2007; Visser & Moleko, 2008; Medical News Today, 2009) and media influence (Collins et al, 2002; Blake et al, 2003)on teenagers' early sexual initiation was examined.

The study again looked at the outcomes of teenage pregnancy such as medical and physiological outcomes, impact on the mother, impact on the father, the impact on other members of the family and on the scholastic performance of pregnant learners and teenage fathers (Males, 1993a; Males, 1993b; Dangal, 2005; Sookha & Cole, 2007; Markham et al, 2009; Mashego, 2009 ; Panday et al, 2009; IRIN/PlusNews, 2010; Runhare, 2010; Khumalo, 2011; Matshotyana, 2010; Mpanza. 2006; Chigona & Chetty, 2007; Chigona & Chetty, 2008; Abbas, 2009; Hurbbard et al, 2009; Bhana et al, 2010,

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Cronje, 2011; Shacklock, 2000; Seacat, 2006; Rolison, 2002, Stengel, 2005; Spavins, 2007, Marcy, 2003; Cronje, 2011; Kiselica, 2011, Walton & Cohen, 2007)

Lastly measures for the prevention and management of learner pregnancy was looked upon (Schuster et al, 1998; Dangal, 2005; Department of Education, 2007; Han & Bennish, 2009; Boulden, 2011)

1.6.2. Clarification of concepts

1.6.2.1 Adolescent

Adolescent period covers the age of 10-19 years. This is the period of transition from childhood to adulthood characterized by development of sexual feelings, efforts towards construction of identity (Dangal, 2005). For the purpose of this study, the terms teenage and adolescent will be used interchangeably.

1.6.2.2. Learner pregnancy

Learner pregnancy is pregnancy in a girl who becomes pregnant while still at school aged 10-19 years. For the purpose of this study, the term learner pregnancy, teenage pregnancy and adolescent pregnancy will be used interchangeably throughout the study.

1.6.2.3. High-risk behavior

For the purpose of this study, the term "high risk behavior" refers to unprotected sexual engagement that may result in sexual transmitted diseases including AIDS, and unintended pregnancy.

1.6.2.4. Scholastic performance

For the purpose of this study, scholastic performance refers to the performance of pregnant learners in relation to attendance, concentration, behavior, assertiveness, motivation and moral support and assessment results.

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1.7. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

1.7.1. Research Design

A research design is a plan of what data to gather, from whom, how and when to collect the data and how to analyse obtained data (BJA Center for Program Evaluation and Performance Measurement-Glossary, 2010). Empirical research design can be divided into two broad categories: quantitative and qualitative research design. This study utilised a mixed methods approach. Triangulation of methods means mixing both qualitative and quantitative styles of research and data for a fuller or more comprehensive study. I preferred to use triangulation because it leads to an enriched explanation of the research problem. Triangulation can provide insight of the underlying research problem which cannot be attained from one approach (de Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport, 2002:341). According to Moody (2002), the two types of methods have different, complementary strength and when used together can lead to a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon. Surveys as well as interviews were used to collect data from the respondents.

1.7.2. Research Methods

This study followed the mixed methods approach, i.e. it was conducted from a combined qualitative and quantitative approach. The two methods were utilized concurrently.

- The term qualitative approach is referred to a collection of methods and techniques which share a certain set of principles or logic (Babbie & Mutton, 2006:270). This study utilize qualitative methods of gaining access to subjects (purposive sampling), qualitative methods of data collection (unstructured interview with a focus group and I as a facilitator) and qualitative methods of data analysis (data from interviews with a focus group was transcribed and discussed).

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- The quantitative approach uses a deductive form of reasoning, which implies that I use exsisting theoretical knowledge as a conceptual frame of reference and collect empirical information from a sample of a larger population to draw conclusions and generalizations (Moody, 2002). According Kruger (2006:200), the aim of quantitative research is to measure the social world objectively through scientific explanation.

- A random stratified sampling with strata from their grade levels was utilised and data from the respondents was analysed.

1.7.2. 1. Population

After determining the unit of analysis, I have to define the population of interest. For the purpose of sampling, population has a specialized meaning. Brynard and Hanekom (1997:43) refer population as all objects, subjects, phenomena, cases, events or activities which a researcher wishes to research in order to establish new knowledge. The target population for this study is senior phase (Grades 7-9) pregnant and non pregnant boys and girls and their educators.

1.7.2.2. Sample

According to Brynard and Hanekom (1997:44), a sample should be representative of the large population and should include all elements of the population. From the target population of all senior phase learners in Limpopo, 87 grade 7-9 learners (pregnant learners, non pregnant learners, boys with/without pregnant girlfriends, between the ages of 10-15 years and older and 6 educators were selected from 1 primary and 2 secondary schools in the Vhumbedzi Circuit of Vhembe District in Limpopo province of South Africa. Stratified random sampling and purposive sampling were utilised. The stratified random sampling was used to select learners, the strata were based on learners' grade level variable. Purposive sampling was used to select pregnant learners using the pregnant learner register found at schools. A focus group of senior phase

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educators who have direct experience of teaching the same learners before and during their pregnancy was also selected through purposive sampling. The educators were from the 3 schools. Their role as educators brings them into contact with issues related to the scholastic performance of adolescent pregnant learners and makes them valuable key informants on the subject.

1.7.2.3. Data collection Procedures

Data collecting procedures comprise of both quantitative and qualitative research instruments such as self-designed questionnaires and focus group schedule.

- Quantitative research instrument.

The questionnaire was designed and piloted to 20 learners to ensure items were unambiguous and easily understood b respondents. After feedback received, difficult items were reworked. The design of the questionnaire was informed by the research questions because I wanted to address them. The self-administered questionnaire was completed by 87 respondents (pregnant and non pregnant boys and girls) from three schools, (1 primary and 2 secondary schools).

- Qualitative research instrument

Focus group interview schedule with structured open ended questions was utilized. Focus group data was recorded verbatim using a tape recorder. Six educators from one primary and two secondary schools were interviewed. I choose focus group discussions because educators share the same characteristics as regards to the scholastic performance of learners. Issues surrounding their performance before and after they fell pregnant and all aspects relevant to the topic were discussed. In this study, focus group served as a guide to ensure if the results from the two methods converge and support one another (Kruger in de Vos, 2002:306), thus giving greater credibility to the findings.

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1.8. DATA ANALYSIS

- The quantitative approach was utilized when the scholastic performance of pregnant learners was appraised through the questionnaire using Attitude Scales: Likert-type. The quantitative data (data collected through questionnaires) was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 17.
- Qualitative data (data from the focus group) was transcribed verbatim from the tape recording, then translated from Tshivenda to English, analysed and discussed to identify sub categories, categories and key themes.

1.9. DELIMITATIONS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

1.9.1. Delimitation of the study

The research focused on pregnant learners and only senior phase learners were used in the study. The focus was on learners between the ages of 10- 15 years. The study was conducted in 1primary and 2 secondary schools around Vhumbedzi Circuit in the Vhembe District (Limpopo Province).

1.9.2. Limitations of the study

The problem of teenage pregnancy, which threatens the quality of education, beset the whole of the South African schools and schools globally. Because of time and money constraints, was limited to Vhumbedzi area in the Vhembe district (Limpopo Province).

1.10. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

In this study, human beings were used as subjects. Whenever human beings are the focus of the investigatonn, ethical implications must be looked closely (Leedy, 2006).

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For the purpose of this study, the following ethics were taken into consideration even though I make no claim to comprehensiveness:

- Permission to conduct research was sought from the Department of Education in the Limpopo Province, parents and the principals of the schools.
- Protection from harm. The participants were not exposed to undue physical or psychological harm that is, there would be no risk of losing life, limb or would they be subjected to stress, embarrassment and loss of self-esteem.
- The participants were informed of the nature of the study to be conducted and be given choice of either participating or not participating. Participants and participants' parents were requested to fill in the consent form to confirm their willingness to participate in the research.
- Participants' right to privacy was respected. No names or any form of identification was used. Anonymity of the information gathered was upheld.
- The research instrument design and procedures adhered to the ethical features, which contributes to the credibility of the research.
- As pregnancy is of sensitive nature, I had a life orientation educator on stand-by to refer learners who might be emotionally affected by the research.

1.11. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

In recognizing that teenage pregnancy is a social problem that covers all regions of the SA Provinces, this study may have a vital role to play in:

Giving adolescent learners a better understanding of the relationship between early pregnancy and the role it plays in their scholastic performance. It might also add knowledge which could help educators to use inclusive education strategies that can enhance the scholastic performance of pregnant learners. Perhaps the results might

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also give insight to the Department of Basic Education to realise that educators' lack of pregnancy management skills impact negatively on the pregnant learner's scholastic performance. The results might help the DoE to bring skilled staff and pregnancy friendly facilities in schools that would enhance the scholastic performance of learners.

1.12. RESEARCH STRUCTURE

Chapter One:

In chapter One, the background to the research problem was outlined through the statement of the problem, research objectives, research questions and hypothesis, research methodologies and approaches utilised.

Chapter Two

Chapter Two provided the review which establishes important links between existing knowledge and the research problem being investigated, that is, in this study, I sought to establish whether the scholastic performance of adolescent pregnant learners were affected by their pregnancy.

Chapter Three

In chapter Three, the research designs, methods, instrumentation and sampling were discussed.

Chapter Four

Chapter Four addressed the interpretation and analysis of the data collected through both quantitative and qualitative methods.

Chapter Five

Chapter Five addressed the major findings of the study from both questionnaires and focus group interviews. Conclusions were also drawn from empirical data. Limitations of

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the study, recommendations relating to further studies were suggested followed by concluding remarks.

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CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a thorough understanding and insight to previous work on the consequences, contributory factors of teenage pregnancy, the impact of learner pregnancy on the scholastic performance of female pregnant and male learners whose girlfriends are pregnant as well as the scholastic performance of non pregnant learners and male learners whose girlfriends are not pregnant.

[Havha vhana ndi ndenwa,ku swiye ku swiye lo tuwa, a ya mulamboni ha vhuyi, la ya khunini a li vhuyi. Vhana vha zwino ndi ndenwa, tshikoloni ha divhi. A vula bugu ndi u bonya, la vula bugu lo lala, wa li kaidza ndi thambo, wa li kaidza ndi u lila, wa li kaidza ndi u nala. Havha vhana a vha pfi, a vha pfi pfunzo ya vhathu, a vha pfi na vhabebi.

Ripoto ya hone ndi nwana. Nwaha na nwaha ndi dumbu. Vhabebi, mahosi, vharangaphanda na muvhuso idani ri kaidze vhana vha ye tshikoloni, vha shavhe Aids. Pfunzo ndi mahala…….. Ndo neta nga u lela, nwaha na nwaha ndi nwana, Vhana vha zwino vha funesa zwa vhatukana. Na u kaidzwa avha pfi!]]

[These children are spoiled, all they want is their freedom, they do as they please, If they go to fetch water, they take forever to return. Today's kids are spoiled, their school work is lagging behind. When reprimanded, they threaten to commit suiucide, they do not listen to anyone. Not even their parents.

Their school report is a baby, they keep giving birth year after year. Come final year end assessment, the results are pregnancies. Parents, traditional and modern leaders and the government, come lets join hands to work together to help with this crisis. Let's warn them, get them to go to school and make them aware of HIV/Aids.

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Education is free……..I am tired of being a baby sitter. Kids of today love all that has to do with men (boys). They do not listen anymore!] (A song by Masimbe)[3]

According to the Department of Basic Education, teenage pregnancy has been declining for the past fifty years, for many years it is much lower today than it was in the 1950s and early 1960s when teenagers married and began their families young (Panday et al, 2009), it is the learner pregnancy which has earned the term epidemic (Institute of American Values n/d). SA continues to be plagued by high teenage rate especially among school going learners, despite recent reduction (Panday et al, 2009), the communities on the ground are complaining that there is too many teen pregnancies, specifically with school learners (Parliamentary Monitoring Group, 2009).

The song by Masimbe indicates that even in African cultures where teenage pregnancy is welcomed (Jewkes & Christofides, 2008), it is now seen as becoming more and more a barrier to girl's education (Chigona & Chetty, 2007). According to Chigona and Chetty (2007), teenage pregnancy has militated against the educational success of girls in SA. Statistics show that four out of ten girls become pregnant before the age of twenty (Chigona & Chetty, 2007). Pregnancy among school girls is reaching crisis propotions in some South African schools (Chigona & Chetty, 2008). A report in a Cape Town school (Sunday times, 2007) and a recent report at Mavalani High in Limpopo (BuaNews, 2011) detailed the cases of 144 and 57 pregnant learners in each school respectively. According to Macleod (2001), an unwanted pregnancy at this stage of a child's development is an overwhelming burden which, unless properly handled may result in permanent personality damage and disastrous long-term for the rest of the child's life.

[3] Masimbe is an emerging Venda young Artist. The song is for 2010 album entitled "Bola Yo Fhela" referring to the 2010 Soccer World Cup

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2.2. THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY.

This study was informed by Lawrence Kohlberg's (1927-1987) developmental theory and Erik Erikson's psychosocial theory. Kohlberg sees the development of moral reasoning as an aspect of the formation of personal identity (Nicolson & Ayers, 2004). He described three stages of moral development which described the process through which people learn to discriminate right from wrong and to develop increasingly sophisticated appreciation of morality (Oswalt, 2008). According to Kohlberg, moral development is a lifelong task and many people fail to develop the more advanced stages of moral understanding. High risk behaviours of early sexual initiation among adolescents can therefore be related to individual's development of Kohlberg's stages of moral understanding such as pre conventional mind, the conventional mind and the post conventional level. Kohlberg has found that in early teens, girls are what he calls level three of moral development (Oosthuizen in Macleod, 2001). At this stage adolescent girl obeys rules, seeks approval and conforms to her peers and this may put her at risk of possible pregnancy (Oosthuizen in Macleod, 2001). If she progresses to stage four, she becomes dutiful and respects authority.

Traditionally, the male is seen as sexually dominant over the female so this stage may also be risky (Minkler in Macleod, 2001). Oosthuizen in Macleod (2001) found that 81% of 13-14 year olds are at level three where approval is sought and conforming to the group is important. The teen girl is subject to a developmental blue print which sees her progressing through various invariant stages of moral development and cognitive development (Macleod, 2001). According to Macleod (2001), it is this process which renders her vulnerable either to external influences such as peer pressure and male authority or to ignorance: this puts her at risk for the unnatural occurrence of teenage pregnancy (Macleod 2001).

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Erik Erikson accepted the basic Freudian psychological processes of perceiving, remembering, problem solving, and defensive activity (Oswalt, 2008). According to Erikson (1968), "the concept of identity or its failure (identity crisis) involves the inner but conscious, sense of uniqueness or individuality; a feeling of inner wholeness and synthesis; a feeling of continuity with the past and present; and a feeling of solidarity in ideas and values with a group from which a person receives support". An adolescent need support and approval from the significant others (members of the family, relatives, peers, educators, etc). Erikson (1963) described eight stages of development and each stage has its own developmental characteristics and crisis. Each crisis is brought about by increasing physical maturity along with demands placed upon the adolescent by parents and society. Erikson viewed the adolescent phase as a time of turmoil, stress and feelings of vulnerability which may lead to risk-taking behaviour. Erikson believes that by the time a girl reaches puberty, she has feelings of uncertainty about what she previously learned.

At puberty a teenage girl finds it difficult to accept herself and the obvious physical bodily changes which occur. As a result, she seeks clarification of which she is (identity) and thus according to Erikson, she reflects a blunt ego image on the male partner. The feedback which she gets is of prime importance to the clarification of who she is as a sexual being (Oosthuizen in Macleod, 2001). According to Macleod (2001), the female enters the domain of the experimenter but is uncertain rather than restless or searching, she seeks clarification concerning her deficient ego state rather than experimenting with ways of being. Instead of resolving the conflict through exploration of her relationship with the environment, she does so as the passive recipient of information from the male (Macleod, 2001)

Due to stigma attached to teen pregnancy, I postulate that lack of moral and educational support from educators, members of the family, peers as well as the community negatively affect their scholastic performance. Moreover, a pregnant girl who is still

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eager to obey rules, seeks approval and conforms to her peer group may feel isolated by her peers, unacceptable to her educators, family and community. I therefore assume that the feelings of immorality may have an adverse impact in the teen girl's scholastic performance.

2. 3. DETERMINANTS OF TEENAGE PREGNANCY.

For the purpose of this study, the contributing factors that may determine teenage pregnancy will be explored by looking into intrapersonal and interpersonal factors.

2.3.1. Intrapersonal factors

Intrapersonal factors are, as discussed by Bronfenbrenner in Panday, et al (2009) the individual attributes that increases his /her likelihood of engaging in risky behavior by influencing how he/she interacts with the other contexts and the influence that those contexts bring to bear on him/her.

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2.3.1.1. Sexual behavior

Sexual behavior of adolescents has the potential to confer significant risk to adolescents' pregnancy (Panday et al, 2009). Early sexual initiation is more likely to be unprotected (Oladosa, 1993) leading to early pregnancy and early childbearing (Oladosa, 1993; Panday et al, 2009). Adolescents embark on sexual escapades without using any form of contraceptives (Oladosa, 1993) and inconsistent condom use significantly increases the risk for unplanned pregnancy (Panday et al, 2009). Negative perceptions about contraceptives play a significant role in whether adolescents will use them (Oladosa, 1993)

Early sexual debut remains an area of intractability in adolescents' sexual behavior in SA (Panday et al, 2009). The government's decision to allow children to decide on

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matters of sexual health (Sections of the Children's Act No 38 of 2005) allow children to make life changing decisions about issues affecting them without their parents' consent- the new regulations allow a 12 year old to have access to condoms, other contraceptives and an HIV test) has sparked reaction ranging from outright shock to support (Sookha & Cole, 2007). Childline director Joan van Niekerk welcomed the changes reporting that the best interest of children were being taken into considerations (Sookha & Cole, 2007). Although childline supports the view to delay sexual activity for as long as possible, the reality is that children are getting sexually active at a much earlier age and denying them access is putting them at risk (Sookha & Cole, 2007).

Multiple sexual partnerships are common among the youth and comprised another important sexual risk factor (Kaufman et al, 2007). References to sleeping around, hooking up with different partners at different parties or for girls who are pregnant or mothers not knowing who the father is, are common references to multiple partnerships (Kaufman, 2007). The more frequently the young women have sex, the more frequently they are at significantly increased risk of early pregnancy (Jewkes et al, 2001). Adolescents who struggle to meet material needs make tradeoffs between health and economic security (Ritcher & Mlambo, 2005; Panday et al, 2009).

2.3.1.2. Sexual intentions and attitudes towards teenage pregnancy

There is a direct relationship between adolescents' sexual behavior and their sexual intentions (Lin, Guarino, Gorell & Vazin, 2006). Sexually experienced teenagers are more likely to express an intension to have sexual intercourse in the near future (intensions to engage in sexual behaviours are related to actually engaging in sexual behaviours (Nahom, Wells, Gulmore, Hoppe, Morrison, Archbald, Murowchick, Wilson & Graham, 2001; Lin et al, 2006). Adolescents who express low intensions and desire for childbearing are less likely to experience teenage pregnancy (East et al in Panday et al, 2009).

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Ambivalent attitudes are common among teenagers form disadvantaged background and those who have low future aspirations (Panday et al, 2009). Jewkes and Christofides (2008) concluded that if the child is fathered by a man of some means, becoming pregnant may entail an expectation of some form of on-going financial support. Men and women having long term multiple partners, acknowledged pregnancies are often seen to strengthen bonds (Panday et al, 2009). Seeking love and attention and falling in love are viewed as reasons for pregnancy among teenagers (Archibald, 2008). Harrison (2007) states that in the contemporary SA, the emphasis is no longer on proving fertility as Preston -White hypothesized a quarter century ago, but rather on securing a relationship. In this sense, pregnancy would help to secure an attachment, simultaneously fulfilling expectations of love and romance and also economic security.

Growing up in residential areas where poverty is extreme (informal settlements and rural areas), early pregnancy may be viewed as a means of escape from an unhappy home (Archibald, 2008). Research suggests that African men frequently view fathering as a matter of pride and evidence of masculinity (Jewkes & Christofides, 2008). Teenage women often report that their partners encourage them to get pregnant to prove love (Wood & Jewkes, 2006), but this does not necessarily mean that paternity would be accepted (Jewkes & Christofides, 2008).

2.3.1.3. Substance use

Within the context of substance use, teenagers are faced with sexually risk situations continually (Kaufman et al, 2007). International (Anderson & Mueller, 2008) and local (Panday et al, 2009) research state that many youth are at dual risk from both substance use and sexual behaviours. Strong associations exist between sexual activity and alcohol and drug use (Dunn, Ilapogu, Naney, Blackwell, Wilder & Givens, 2008; Anderson & Mueller, 2008). A study by UNICEF highlighted the connection between alcohol and risky qbehaviour, almost 27% of the participants had engaged in sexual

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activities while under the influence of alcohol (Hubbard, Munyinyi, Blain, Eggerman, Schultze- Ellen, Carew-Wats, Holt, Coomer, van Wyk, Schimidt, Zimry & Barth, 2008).

Use of alcohol and other drugs in conjunction with sexual activity among adolescents represents a major concern to health professionals (Ramisetty-Mikler, Caetano, Goebert & Nishimura, 2004). A study examining whether drinking and drug constitute risk factors for unsafe sexual practices among Native Hawaiian adolescents (Ramisetty-Mikler et al, 2004) found that adolescents were more likely to initiate drinking by age 12, drinkers and drug-users were at risk to engage in sexual activity, have multiple partners and use alcohol and drugs during sex. Substance abuse may serve as an excuse to engage in behaviours that may be considered socially unacceptable such as using a condom (Dunn et al, 2008).

According to Hubbard et al (2008), alcohol increases the probability of having taken one or more sexual risks which could lead to HIV and pregnancy more than threefold. Adolescents who avoid such risky behavoiur as smoking cigarettes, drinking alcohol or using drugs are less likely to have sex, have fewer sexual partners and are also apt to use contraception more frequently than adolescents who do not avoid such risky behavior (Albert et al, 2005). Lin et al (2006) found that teenagers who engage in alcohol use have higher degrees of intention to engage in sexual activities than those who do not engage in alcohol use.

2.3.1.4. Perceptions

Many adolescents' girls are concerned with having and keeping a boyfriend and meeting social expectations, which may reinforce the message that having a boyfriend indicates that one is a desirable young woman (Heavey, Moyoich, Hyland, Druschel & Sill, 2008). Choosing to become pregnant is seen as a positive decision loitering a sense purpose and future direction (Panday et al, 2009).Teen pregnancy is also seen

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as meeting emotional needs (Panday et al, 2009). According to Davies (2003), early parenthood is perceived by some adolescents as an opportunity to heal childhood wounds, receive support from family members or obtain emotional closeness not found at home.

Such path may be chosen to correct negative childhood experience characterized by dysfunctional family relationships, poor scholastic experience and growing up in homes and neighbourhoods were teenage pregnancy was normative (Cater and Coleman in Panday et al (2009). Male partners may impact adolescents' pregnancy desire and adolescent girls' perception of male partners' pregnancy desire is strongly associated with the pregnancy of adolescent girls (Heavey et al, 2008). Pregnancy can preserve family relationships and be a source of pride (Heavey et al, 2008). According to Etkin[4] in Khumalo (2011), many teenage girls give birth to prove womanhood and give meaning to life, especially after the end to the struggle against white-minority rule.

2.3.1.5. Dating violence

Gender power inequities play a significant role in women's vulnerability to early and unprotected sex as well as early teen pregnancy (Panday, et al, 2009).sexual and physical violence have come to characterise relationships between men and women in some communities (Ritcher , Dawes & Higson-Smith, 2004; Panday et al, 2009). Many school girls are coerced or pressured into pregnancy against their will (Hubbard,et al, 2008). Women come to believe that they are beaten as a show of love and men take advantage of the initial sexual naivety of women by equating penetrative sex as a proof of love (Panday et al, 2009). The threat of violence is a significant deterrent to discussing contraceptive use (Panday,et al, 2009). A multitude of studies have indicated that adolescent girls are often in abusive relationships at the time of their conceiving (Rosen, 2004; Eaton, Kann, Kinchen, Ross,Hawkins, Harris,Lowry, McManus, Chyen,

[4] Esther Etkin is a spokesperson for Love life, a South African government-funded HIV prevention initiative

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Shanklin, Lim, Grunbaum & Wechsler, 2005; Quinlivan, 2006; Ramisetty-Mikler, Goebert, Nashimura & Caetano, 2006).

Girls have also reported that knowledge of their pregnancy has often intensified violent and controlling behaviours on the part of their boyfriends (Rosen, 2004). In a study done by Eaton et al (2006) in the USA, 9, 2% of learners had been hit, slapped or physically hurt on purpose by their boyfriends or girlfriends. Similarly, a study done by Jewkes et al (2001) in South Africa concluded physical violence, often in the form of beating, slapping, stabbing and pulling of the woman's hair may lead to rape which may result in unplanned pregnancy. Even where there is no overt coercing, girls may still feel powerless to negotiate sexual behavior or contraceptive use if they do not feel they are equal partners in a sexual relationship (Hubbard et al, 2008).

Hubbard et al (2008), states that the inequality is obvious in relationships with richer, older men or men in position of authority such as educators. It can also be present in relationships with boys their own ages because of the persisting gender inequalities in societies. Although both boys and girls can be victims of dating violence, gender differences exist in the type and rates of dating violence experienced (Ramisetty-Mikler et al, 2006). Ramisetty-Mikler, et al (2006) documented that girls are frequently victimized and experience more severe dating violence perpetrated by their boyfriends.

2.3.1.6. Pregnancy as a result of unwanted sex

Although data is not available in South Africa on the link between child sexual abuse and pregnancy (Panday et al, 2009), many pregnancies are the result of forced sex rather than free of choice or risky sexual behavior (Hubbard et al, 2008). Traumatised adolescents turn to substance use, prostitution and running away from home, increasing their risk of early pregnancy (Pike & Wittstruck in Panday et al, 2009). A 2006 UNICEF study found that 19% of girls aged 15-24 in that study had been pregnant and

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shockingly, 40% of those pregnancies resulted from forced sexual intercourse (Hubbard et al, 2008).

According to Hubbard et al (2008), many school girls are coerced or pressured into risking pregnancies against their will. Educators are the major perpetrators of child sexual abuse (Maree and Erbersohn, 2002). Many school girls are raped in school toilets, many by their classmate and 40% by educators (Scared in Schools in Mafhara, 2010). Meier in Mafhara (2010) state that hostels are particularly unsafe and are reported to be places where educators can prey on the young at will. Alcohol abuse by educators has also become problematic in that intoxicated educators not only neglected their teaching duties but were also more prone to solicit sex from the female learners (Hubbard et al, 2008).

2.3. 2. Interpersonal factors

The day to day social interaction between the adolescent and his/her environment can have a profound effect on the behavior (Panday et al, 2009). Families together with partners, peers, school communities, cultural context (Albert et al, 2005; Panday et al, 2009), media and religiosity (Albert et al, 2005) play a significant role in identity formation and decision making (NRC &IOM in Panday et al, 2009).

2.3.2.1. Peers

As children make the transition from childhood to adolescence and engage in the process of identity formation, their reliance on parents and siblings as the sole sources of influence and decision making begin to change (Panday et al, 2009). According to Panday et al (2009), peers attitudes, norms and behavior as well as perceptions of norms and behavior among peers have a significant and consistent impact on adolescent sexual behavior. Adolescents are sensitive to peer pressure and want to

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behave like their school mates (Zwang & Garenne, 2008). Peers know about sex because they talk and educate each other, however their knowledge is deficient (Macleod & Tracy, 2010).

The information teenagers obtain from peers and their boyfriends may be misleading (Kaphagawani, 2006), thus male partners may take advantage of the information lapse and emphasis notion of female availability and male sexual entitlement (Jewkes et al, 2001). Perception of peers sexual behaviours influence adolescents' decisions to engage in sexual behavior (Nahom et al). When teenagers believe that their friends are having sex, they are more likely to have sex (Jewkes et al, 2001; Kirby, 2001; Albert, 2004; Maluleke, 2007; Panday et al, 2009). Findings by Pristein, Meade and Coheh (2003) suggest that reports of sexual intercourse are associated with peer-perceived popularity among peers. According to Pristein et al (2003), these results indicate that sexually active adolescents enjoy higher status among peers and that popular adolescents feel more pressured or inclined to report that they are sexually active. Adolescents may believe that sexual activity best matches a prototype of popular, high-status adolescents (Pristein et al, 2003). While sexual activity is the norm and encouraged among friends, having an early pregnancy is regarded as poor female decorum and subject to severe stigma by family and friends (Panday et al, 2009) According to Panday et al (2009), teenagers who have an early pregnancy are labeled as bad, ruined and a failure. Peer pressure extends much more beyond the desire to experiment sex with schoolmates and may lead to searching for relationships with higher status mates, with the aim of receiving gifts or various economic returns and ultimately might lead to prostitution (Zwang & Garenne, 2008).

2.3.2.2. Families

During an adolescent stage, children are beginning to form their identity and are testing and developing the interpersonal and occupational role that they will assume as adults. Although adolescents look to peers and adults outside of the family for guidance and

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models for how to behave, parents remain influential in their development (Albert et al, 2005).Many aspects of family life play an important role in the influence of adolescents' sexual, attitudes, behaviour and pregnancy (Albert, 2004; Panday et la, 2009). Both family structure and family relationship are strongly associated with teen's attitudes and decisions regarding sex and contraception (Albert, 2004; Holborn & Eddy, 2011).

2.3.2.2.1. Family structure

Family structural characteristics play a vital role in understanding and determining teenage sexual behavior including pregnancy (Panday et al, 2009)

According to Miller in Albert (2004), teens that grow up in families with both biological parents are more likely to begin having sex at an older age, use contraception more effectively, and avoid teen pregnancy than teens who grow up in other family structure. Teenagers living in a nontraditional family structure particularly those living with a single biological parent and a step parent or partner or without parents places adolescents at high risk of early pregnancies (Markham et al, 2009; & Panday et al, 2009 & Munthree,2009; Holborn & Eddy, 2011). Previous studies indicate that family structure may affect parents' ability to monitor teen' behaviour (Kirby, Lepore & Ryan in Markham et al, 2009; Panday et al, 2009; Holborn & Eddy, 2011) and disruptions in family structure may impact family connectedness both factors shown to be protective against early sexual initiation (miller in Markham et al, 2009). The absence of a father figure in families led by mothers only may lead to less restrictive supervision, causing the breaking down of family structure. (Markham et al, 2009). Teenagers in families with higher education and income levels are more likely to postpone sexual intercourse (Manlove, Papillio & Ikramulla, 2004).Adolescents from bigger families receive less attention from their households and may be more susceptible to pressure from outside the home especially peers (Vundule,et al 2001). Adolescents whose mothers were teen mothers (Manlove et al,2004) and those with sexually experienced or pregnant siblings are more likely to have sex and a child at an early age (Manlove et al,2004; Munthree, 2009).

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2.3.2.2.2. Family relationships

Despite what parents may think, the quality of their relationship with their teenagers can make a real difference in their children's decision about sex (Albert, 2004).Even in the culture that bombards young people with conflicting and often confusing messages about sex and pregnancy, parents remain powerful (Albert et al, 2005). When teenagers are emotionally connected to their parents and perceive them to be warm and supportive, teenagers are more likely to internalize parental values and follow their counsel because teenagers trust their parents and desire to please those (Miller et al, 2001). In a close parent/child relationships, adolescents are more likely to exercise self restraint and to be involved in pro-social activities that lessen the risk of teenage pregnancy (Miller et al, 2001).

Teenagers who have close relationships with parents, characterized by strong emotional bonds, shared activities and open communication about sex and related issues are less likely to engage in risky sexual behavior (Albert, 2004; Albert, 2005). Children whose parents are clear about the value of delaying sex are less likely to have intercourse at an early age (Albert, 2004). According to Albert (2004) parents who discuss contraception are also likely to have children who use contraception when they become sexually active. Teenagers whose parents supervise them and monitor their behaviour are more likely to be older when they first have sex, to have fewer partners, to use contraception and to be less at-risk for pregnancy (Albert, 2004; Albert, 2005; Sieverding, Adler; Witt & Ellen, 2005). Sieverding et al (2005), concluded that adolescents reporting successful parental monitoring (accurately knowing the adolescents' whereabouts and activities outside the home) significantly expressed cognitions less favorable of initiating intercourse, while adolescents reporting more unrestricted time were more likely to express cognitions that favored initiating intercourse. However, Miller et al (2001) found that overly strict, authoritarian monitoring is actually associated with a greater risk of teenage pregnancy, suggesting that less intrusive supervision may be more effective. Low levels of parental supervision are

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associated with high levels of alcohol and drug use and with high-risk peer associations, which increases sexual behaviour and decreases contraceptive use (Miller et al, 2001).

Parents' attitudes and values about teenage pregnancy are an important piece of the Puzzle (Miller et al, 2004). According to Miller et al (2004), parents' sexual values influence whether teenagers have sexual intercourse, the timing of their sexual debut, their number of sexual partners, and their use of contraception and whether they have been pregnant. Other adults, especially in an extended family may also influence pregnancy risk for some adolescents (Miller et al, 2001).

2.3.2.3. School

There is a strong link between teenagers' decisions about sex and their connection to school (Albert, 2005). Adolescents' academic performance and engagement, perception of school supportiveness and connectedness and involvement in after school activities are all related to the risk of early sexual activity, pregnancy and childbearing (Albert, 2005,Quinlivan, 2006). Learners' disengagement from school has also been associated with adolescents' perception that few opportunities follow school completion (Hallman & Grant, 2006). According to Hallman and Grant (2006), if adolescents believe that education offers low returns, they may feel little incentive to avoid early pregnancy. Young women who are more invested in their education (Hallman & Grant, 2006), feel connected to their schools and report a high level of engagement with school are less likely to have sex at early age and less likely to get pregnant (Manlove, 1998). Discroll in Hallman and Grant (2006) found that young women with high educational aspirations are less likely to become pregnant while still in school even if they live in poor households and communities with few economic opportunities. There is a strong association between poor school achievement and pregnancy, poor academic ability may influence the onset of sexual activity and early pregnancy (Quinlivan, 2006).

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Learners who attend schools with low rates of absenteeism are also more likely to delay sexual activity (Manlove, 1998). Girls who become pregnant have experienced other types of delays in schools, such as delayed entry in grade one, grade repetition or a period of temporary school withdrawal at a younger age (Hallman & Grant, 2006). The ways in which teenagers spend their after-school time are also important (Albert, 2004 & Albert et al, 2005). Involvement in extracurricular activities seems to promote responsible sexual behavior (Albert et al, 2005).

2.3.2.4. Communities

The socio-economic status of communities, the sense of social cohesion of the community that allows for informal social control as well as the role modeling offered by adult members of the community can have a bearing on the sexual behaviour of adolescents (Panday et al, 2009). There is ample empirical evidence to show that community involvement and community characteristics can influence young people's sexual behavior (Kirby, 2002; Albert et al, 2005 & Panday et al, 2009) although individual and family characteristics play a major role (Albert et al, 2005). Young people who volunteer in their community and participate in community sponsored activities have a lower risk of teenage pregnancy and childbearing (Morrissey & Wilson in Albert et al, 2005). When young people are excluded from mainstreams such as education, they are at increased risk for higher-risk behavior (Panday et al, 2009). High rates of poverty, delinquency, and crime, and little neighborhood cohesion are risk factors for early pregnancy (Kirby, 2001; Kirby, 2002; Albert et al, 2005 & Panday et al, 2009). Teenagers from economically disadvantaged communities, that is, teenagers form communities with low levels of education, income and employment tend to have sex more frequently, have more sexual partners, use contraceptive less and are at higher risk of teenage pregnancy (Kirby, 2002; Albert et al, 2005 & Panday et al, 2009).

The KZN Transitions study (Kaufman, Manzini & May in Panday et al, 2009) showed mixed effects of community levels of education of education, income and participation in

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organized activities for boys and girls. Higher levels of opportunity for education, income and participation in sport among girls decreased the likelihood of having sex in the past year. Each of these community attributes decreased the likelihood for condom use in boys. According to the study, these findings may be indicative of the gender differences in communities within a context of relative poverty, where access to privilege for men confers enticement not to use condoms and to engage in other high risk behaviours (Panday et al, 2009).

Change does not come easily (Hubbard et al, 2008). According to Hubbard et al, (2008), leaders support the expulsion of pregnant learners from schools citing the punitative action by the need to uphold a moral norm which prohibits sex before marriage, *"pregnancy being considered as irrefutable proof that this norm was breached."* Pregnancy is a source of shame to the community (Khumalo, 2011)

In a study by Runhare (2010) negative labels and hate language directed at pregnant and former pregnant learners were expressed at the community, family and the school. Furthermore, Runhare (2010) argued that once the girl child became pregnant, she might lose her childhood rights in the family as a punishment for bringing shame in the family.

2.3.2.5. Cultural Background

African cultures play a significant role in the high incident of teenage pregnancy (Ritcher & Mlambo, 2005). Culture may increase feelings of alienation and thereby increase risky behavior and young people experience pressures and expectations that are immensely challenging (Kaufman, Desserich, Big Crow, Rock, Keane & Mitchell, 2007).According to Kaufman et al (2007), having a baby while still very young is part of the culture and also traditional. While virginity until marriage is valued (Kaufman et al, 2007), in families and the broader social environment, social reactions to teenage girls who becomes pregnant show diversity, particularly between racial groups, change at different points

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during the pregnancy and after birth depend on the circumstances of the pregnancy (Jewkes & Christofides, 2008). The high-value placed on children together with support of family makes prospect of relatively early pregnancy and early child bearing desirable to many (Kaufman et al, 2007).

Some African teenagers report that their mothers or grand mothers are pleased when they get pregnant (Wood & Jewkes, 2006). The social status of teenage girls who have given birth does change (Jewkes & Christofides, 2008). Preton-Whyte & Zondi in Jewkes & Christofides (2008) state that child- birth whether in or outside marriage, is traditionally regarded as the ultimate rite of passage to woman/manhood and thus elevates a girl's or boy's status. For the young African woman, pregnancy maybe important in self-evaluation of fertility (Jewkes and Christofides, 2008) and is often accepted (Zwang & Garenne, 2008; Jewkes & Christofides, 2008). The socialization of young people has an impact on their expressions of sexuality, girls are not trusted and it impact negatively on their sexual expression (Maluleke, 2007). According to Maluleke (2007), the societal expectation that a woman should play a passive role during sexual intercourse has robbed the women of their responsibility to make choices about their sexuality and sexual life. International (Kaufman et al, 2007) and SA research (Zwang & Garenne, 2008) concluded that pregnancy is well tolerated when young lovers are already in a stable relationship and about to marry.

2.3.2.6. Mass media

In a study by Whitehead and Pearson (2006),it was argued that teenagers were exposed to hypersexualised culture early in their lives, they were also likely to get their first lessons about sex from the streets, the internet and their peers long before they got information about sex and related topics from their teachers or even their parents. What teenagers are watching, reading and listening to may influence their sexual attitudes and behavior (Albert et al, 2005). According to Albert et al (2005), the media is an important source of information for teenagers about sex and contraception.

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The media has been identified as one of the factors influencing adolescents' sexuality, because of the tendency among young people to believe that the type of behavior that is portrayed by the media is normal and they should not behave differently from the portrayed behavior (Maluleke, 2007). According to Zwang & Garenne (2008), media is one of the reasons accounting for the increase in sexual activity among teenagers, who form a large media audience. Sexual behavior is strongly influenced by culture (Collins, Ellot, Berry, Kanouse, Kunkel, Hunter & Miu, 2004; Kaufman et al, 2007), and TV is an integral part of teenagers' culture (Collins et al, 2004; Maluleke, 2007). The high dose exposure of sex may affect adolescents' developing belief about cultural norms. TV may create the illusion that sex is more central to daily life than it truly is and may promote sexual initiation (Collins et al, 2007). According to Collins et al (2004), exposure to the social models provided by TV also may alter beliefs about the likely outcome of engaging in sexual activity, teenagers who see characters having casual sex without experiencing consequences are more likely to adopt the behavior portrayed (Collins et al, 2004).

The American Pediatrics has suggested that portrayals of sex entertainment on television may contribute to precocious sex (Collins et al, 2004). A number of studies demonstrated links between watching sex on TV and early adolescents' sexual debut (Albert et al, 2005; Collins et al, 2007; Maluleke, 2007), teenage pregnancy are more common among those who begin sexual activities earlier (Collins et al, 2004). Exposure to TV that included only talk about sex was associated with the same risks as exposure to TV that depicted sexual behavoiur (Collins et al, 2004). Teenagers who watch TV Frequently are more likely to have more permissive attitudes about sex (Albert et al, 2005). According to Maluleke (2007), through pictures and images, young people learn about feminity, masculinity and relationships and verbal instructions no longer play vital role in their learning.

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Music also has an impact on young people's sexuality Maluleke, 2007). According to Maluleke (2007), certain songs and videos were seen as having an influence on violent sexual behavior and lack of respect for women. Most teenagers listen to some kind of music that have obscenities and vulgarities which cloud perceived by teenagers as normal and they may try to behave according to the lyrics of their favourite music (Maluleke, 2007).

2.3.2.7. Religion

Research has constantly linked adolescents' religious belief and sexual behavior (Albert et al, 2005). Religiosity remains the strongest predictor of adolescents' sexual behavior (Musbau, 2010). Religion can delay the individual's sex debut, but does not provide teenagers with necessary information and skills on how to make informed decisions about their sexuality and how to protect themselves against STI and unwanted pregnancy (Maluleke, 2007). Religious attendance is significantly related with sexual attitudes and behaviours in different settings (Musbau, 2010). Teenagers who regard religion as important and valuable in their lives and attend religious services regularly are more likely to postpone sexual activity (Albert et al, 2005; Musbau, 2010), and more conservative in their sexual attitudes (Musbau, 2010) than teenagers who are less religious. According to Musbau (2010), frequent religious attendance may provide adolescents with a value system which ostensibly encourage responsible behavior in the form of abstinence.

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2.4. CONSEQUENCES OF TEENAGE PREGNANCY

For the purpose of this study the following subheading explored the consequences of teenage pregnancy.

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2.4.1. Stigma, labeling, sanctions and discriminations

Although fertility and motherhood continue to be important factors in the life course of a woman, pregnancy during adolescence is viewed as a major setback in terms of educational and economic aspirations (Panday et al, 2009). Even though teenage pregnancy is often well accepted within the African societies (Jewkes et al, 2001; Zwang & Garenne, 2008), it is sometimes subject to stigma and sanctions (Zwang & Garenne, 2008). Stigma is an aspect of one's identity that is devalued by society (Seacat, 2006). Goffman in Seacat (2006) stated that stigmatised individuals were discredited on the basis of possessing attributes considered to be deviant form the social norms of a society because these attributes are viewed as shortcomings and failings.

Labels ignore the fact that each individual is a whole person with talents and strength` an individual with rights, dignity and preferences that must be respected (Skills for Life, n/d). Pregnant learners are punished, discriminated against and stigmatized (Harrisson, 2008; Chigona & Chetty, 2008; Zwang & Garenne, 2008). Social isolation in school (Walton & Cohen, 2007) and stigmatised learners perform poorly scholastically (Walton & Cohen, 2007; Inzlicht, 2011). According to Walton and Cohen (2007), a sense of social connectedness predicts outcomes.

In SA, it is believed that becoming a pregnant learner is an embarrassment that marks an end to childhood and therefore to education (Khumalo, 2011). A growing body of evidence has proved beyond doubt that pregnant learners need support and encouragement to aid their academic performance, failure to obtain support from their school and home environment results in poor academic performance and school dropout (Mpanza, 2006; Hallman & Grant, 2006; Chigona & Chetty, 2008 and Khumalo, 2011). A pregnant learner who is constantly subjected to name calling and labeling is likely to feel less inclined to attend school, which have an adverse effect on their scholastic performance and might choose to avoid school (Basch, 2010). Learners who

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have a trusting relationship with their educators are able to to take advantage of critical feedback and other opportunities to learn. According to Khumalo (2011), pregnant learners drop out of school because of the pressures they experienced, including stigmatization associated with early parenting, isolation from peers and lack of needed support from family, friends and the school environment. Runhare (2010) stated that pregnant learners encountered a lot of abuse in schools ranging from loss of friendship, isolation, mockery, negative labeling, being used as examples of bad behavoiur to being given nicknames. Peer rejection has a negative effect on scholastic performance and can prevent a learner from coming to school while friendship improves grades by making school more enjoyable and worthwhile Spavins, 2007). Spavins (2007:7) states:

"Peer rejection could cause a fear of participating in class or general dread of school, both which will impede academic success."

Teenage pregnancy often represents a financial burden to young girls and their families, often without support of a partner who may have no interest or ability to acknowledge the child (Harrison. 2008). Teenage pregnancy is seen as a source of shame to the community, where few people were willing to speak about the problem (Khumalo, 2011).Pregnancy and motherhood in teenage girls is also common motives for discrimination in education (Hubbard et al, 2008).

Pregnant learners are subject to particular and insidious shaming and pathologising practices that diminish their sense of self and profoundly affect their chances of success in and beyond school (Shacklock, 2007). A 2002 Fawena and Rundu studies (Hubbard et al, 2008), found shame and stigma to be a problem and male learners and educators harassed, mocked and teased young mothers and referred them as "mother". When a young girl fell pregnant she is prey to family sanctions to punish her of her immaturity, her lack of respect for the elders and to prevent the recurrence of the pregnancy again (Zwang & Garenne, 2008). Sanctions involve physical punishment, being chased out of the paternal home (Zwang & Garenne, 2008; Runhare, 2010; Khumalo, 2011) or dumped at the door of the boy's family, (Zwang & Garenne, 2008). While sexual activity

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is the norm and encouraged among friends, having an early pregnancy is regarded as poor female decorum and subject to severe stigma by family and friends (Zwang & Garenne, 2008; Hubbard et al, 2008;Panday et al, 2009; Khumalo, 2011). Returning to school after delivery is also associated with a variety of stigma (Zwang & Garenne, 2008). Friends may dissociate themselves from the girl and such isolation from peers is perceived negatively by the young woman who may end up blaming or neglecting the child (Zwang & Garenne, 2008). Zwang and Garenne (2008) posit that stigmatization of an early pregnancy may also apply to the whole family as are seen as having failed their duty to teach and control their daughter.

2.4.2. Effects of teenage pregnancy on scholastic performance

As I stated I Chapter 1.6.2.4, in this study, scholastic performance refers to the performance of pregnant learners in relation to attendance, concentration, behavior, assertiveness, motivation and moral support and assessment results.

Teenage pregnancy has been one of the major hindrances to educational success of girls (Chigona & Chetty, 2007). Early parenthood is a significant cause of dropping out of school for teenage girls (Shacklock, 2007). Adolescents with lower scholastic performance and educational level are more likely to have experienced sex and pregnancy (Aras, Semin, Guray, Orcin & Ozan, 2007).

According to Chigona and Chetty (2007), they have fear participating in class discussions and when topics like teenage pregnancy arose they become particularly uncomfortable that everybody is talking about their situation. Peer pressures are more common than understanding and support and pregnant learners are often verbally abused by their peers making their participation in class to seem unwelcomed (Chigona & Chetty, 2007). Pregnant girls are not happy at school and they feel isolated (Chigona and Chetty, 2007). Fear and loneliness can lead to social isolation from others and this may lead to regression to an earlier phase of life where the teenager would feel secure

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(Taylor in Chigona & Chetty, 2007). Irregular class attendance in pregnant and mothering teenagers' results in lagging behind in their school work and this may cause failure to succeed with their secondary education (Chigona & Chetty, 2007). This was also echoed by Nkani and Bhana (2011), who concluded that absenteeism was linked to poor academic performance. Yahaya, Ramli, Hashim, Ibrahim, and Zakaria (2000), concluded that learners who were absent from class significantly performed lower on their tests. Furthermore, Yahaya,et al (2009), went on and said that learners who attended class regularly benefited from learning activities designed to facilitate their acquisition of knowledge and that excessive absence from class results in poor academic performance. According to Chigona and Chetty (2007), teachers also do not know how to handle these girls and do not have the means to help them catch up with missed lessons.

Teenage pregnancy has been associated with a decrease in the probability of completing high school (Gustafsson & Worku, n/d). Educators and parents often give up on teenage pregnant girls and are also seen as school failures (Chigona & Chetty, 2007). Peer pressure and the school environment negatively affect teen mothers in coping with schooling (Chigona & Chetty, 2007). Pregnant learners are at best ignored or ridiculed (Chigona & Chetty, 2007) and it is disruptive to the educational process of girls and as a consequence many leave school and never return (Theron and Dunn, 2006; Hallman & Grant, 2006; Kaufman et al, 2007).

2.4.3. Teenage pregnancy and career aspirations and development

Teenagers aspire to a life of successful work and future marriage but their attitudes are often at odds with the evidence on what it takes to actually achieve these goals, consequently, they often behave in ways that undermine their ability to realize their aspirations (Mpanza, 2006). Schooling is critical to a young woman's prospects throughout her life and the amount of schooling a woman obtains affects her occupation and her income (Hofferth,Reid & Mott,2001).

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Completing high school is associated with better life chances of higher wealth, higher probability of being employed, a better occupation and a better husband's occupation (Gusttafsson & Worku, n/d). Zellman in Hallman (2005) points out that academic learning for pregnant and parenting teens is secondary and that most people believe that a girl's pregnancy shuts out the possibility of educational and career success. Early child bearing is likely to have a negative impact on the teenager's future as the wages of teenage mothers are negatively affected by their reduced education and work experience (Hallman, 2005). Little, Hernderson, Pedersen and Stonecipher (2010) state that financial difficulties and harm to education were associated with teenage pregnancy.

2.5. POLICY ON THE MANAGEMENT OF LEARNER PREGNANCY IN SCHOOLS

Discrimination on the ground of pregnancy is explicitly prohibited by the SA Constitution. The constitution of SA Act 108 0f 1996, section 9(3), prohibits discrimination on the grounds of pregnancy, it states:

"The state may not unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone on one or more grounds, including ...pregnancy." Despite this strong legislative backdrop, SA's policy on teen pregnancy recently appears to have taken a step backward towards a more restrictive approach (Hubbard et al, 2008:68). Nkani & Bhana (2011) found that objections to pregnancy were based on moral ground, drawing from sexual stigma discourses. Policy was flouted and pregnant learners were excluded from school through the learners' code of conduct. The policy was blamed for being too permissive and was cited as a reinforcement to moral decay (Runhare, 2010).Provincial education officials believed that learner pregnancy policy should be punitative in nature to discourage permissiveness and that would also serve as a message that learner pregnancy is not something to "celebrate" (Governder, 2007).

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In a study by Runhare (2010), it was evident that there was inadequate knowledge of national policies by the participants: educators, parents, SGB members and members of the communities did not know nor had very little knowledge about the guideline on learner pregnancy management. SGB members and educators opposed the policy as it was against their cultural values (Ruhnhare, 2010; Nkani & Bhana, 2011). Educators indicated that they have heard but not seen the pregnant learner management policy (Runhare, 2010). Stakeholders at school level, particularly the school principal made informal observations to ensure that pregnant learners are not expelled from schools.

According to Runhare (2010), mainstreaming of pregnant learners was seen as rewarding unacceptable behavior. Complaints were made by some community members in the school leadership that pregnant learners caused school indiscipline, increased rate of school girl pregnancies and generally lowered the standard of the school were learners were enrolled at the time.

In 2007, DoE[5] provided a framework for the management of school girl pregnancy as follows

- Pregnant girls have a right to education and cannot be expelled from the school on account of pregnancy.
- Guidelines for the management of pregnant learners were provided to avoid compromising the learning environment for other learners.
- The responsibility of caring for the child to be for both the girl mother and the boy father. It is not a maternal but a parental responsibility.
- Inclusive approach to education. Pregnant learners are learners with barriers to learning.
- The DoE is committed to the provision of educational opportunities for learners who experience barriers to learning or are at risk because of DoE's system

[5] Department of Education. 2007. Measures for the Prevention and management of Learner Pregnancy.

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Inability to accommodate their special learning needs to safeguard the educational interests of a learner.

- A learner who is pregnant or is aware that another learner is pregnant must inform the school immediately.
- Pregnant learners must provide the school a record of health clinic attendance on a regular basis.
- There is a need to sensitize pregnant learners that there is no medical staff to handle the delivery of babies, potential trauma and health risks at school.
- Schools should avoid unfair discrimination in the form of hate speech and harassment against pregnant learners. On the other hand, pregnant learners must be made aware that some school community members might not accept their situation.
- Parents and guardians must ensure that tasks and assignments are done during the pregnant learner's absence are completed and returned to the school for assessment.
- Educators should offer support, ensure there is a climate of understanding and respect to encourage pregnant learners to continue with their education.

2.6. SUPPORT STRUCTURES

Although the education policy on the management of learner pregnancy allows pregnant learners to continue with their education, the support from family, school and friends is of vital importance for the pregnant learner to complete her education (Matshotyana, 2010). Becoming pregnant can be a life altering experience that places demands on the life of a learner that were not there before the pregnancy (Khumalo, 2011). A pregnant learner needs to learn to cope with the new tasks related with parenting and the needs of her baby at the same time as studying (Matshotyana, 2010). Bacsh (2010)

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suggested that healthier students are better learners, he stated no matter how well educators' were prepared to teach, no matter what accountability measures were put in place, no matter what governing structures are established for schools, educational progress was profoundly limited if learners were not motivated and able to learn.

2.7. EDUCATORS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS PREGNANT LEARNERS

Although evidence support that pregnant learners need support and encouragement from their educators, it is assumed that some educators consider pregnant and mothering teenagers' problems as private matters and none of their problems (Chigona & Chetty, 2008). Educators felt that the training they received in their pre-service training did not adequately prepared them and have insufficient time to deal with learners' social problems (Abbas, 2009). Bloem in Chigona & Chetty (2008) argued that there is a need for educators' in-service training through professionals so that educators could be more informed and knowledgeable as to how to handle teenagers and their social problems. Matshotyana's (2010), findings showed that although educators were not trained to deal with learner pregnancy, they were more concerned with the safety of the pregnant learners and that there was no programme and the schools had no capacity to support pregnant and parenting learners. Jali in Matshotyana (2010) indicated that it was very difficult for educators to deal with pregnant learners. Educators were avoiding situations were pregnant learners might go into labour while in the school premises (Matshotyana, 2010) as they were not well equipped to deliver babies (Chigona & Chetty, 2008; Abbas, 2009 & Matshotyana, 2010).

It is the negative attitudes of some learners and educators which persuade young girls that they are not wanted (Chigona & Chetty, 2008; Abbas, 2009; Boulden, 2011). Some schools feared that having pregnant learners and young mothers in their schools might give the school a bad name and they fail to encourage pregnant learners to stay (Hubbard et al, 2008; Abbas, 2009; Runhare, 2010). Teen mothers and pregnant

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learners need support from their educators. In a study by Matshotyana (2010:88), participants indicated that their schools did not provide enough support; they indicated that:

"..they need adequate support from the school which includes; emotional support (love and sympathy), learning and educational support, support for optimal health, nutrition education and professional referrals, support for confidentiality and absenteeism".

Chigona & Chetty (2008) concluded that educators were not willing to go through the lessons that the girls has missed

2.8. TEENAGE FATHERS

While the father may also be a learner at the same school as the pregnant learner, research indicates that they are more likely to be older by several years (Panday et al, 2009; Boulden, 2011). According to Boulden (2011), whatever the age difference maybe, the fact is that few teenage mother have lasting relationship with the father of the baby. Teenage childbearing results in greater education deficits for the young mothers than for the young fathers who do not have to go through the experience of pregnancy and are generally less responsible for the early care of the child (Card & Wise, 2011). Although boys who get girls pregnant do not face the risk (Lloyd, 2005), academic failure is an especially salient experience for boys who become fathers (Kiselica, 2011; Card & Wise, 2011) and also have less education than their classmates (Card & Wise, 2011). According to Kiselica (2011), males in schools at the time when their partners are pregnant, are poor achievers or disconnected form the school environment and the pregnancy serves as the culminating event for them to leave school. Kiselica (2011) found that, teenage fathers have increased odds that they won't complete high school and more that one third of adolescent fathers but only 12 percent of non fathers fail to complete high school. Teenage fathers also complete fewer overall years and less satisfied with their educational experiences (Kiselica, 2011). The negative impact of early childbearing on education remains when teenage parents are

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matched with classmates who were not parents in their teen years for academic aptitude and achievement, socioeconomic status race and educational expectations at age 15 (Card & Wise, 2011).

Although there seem to be remarkably few consequences for teenage fathers who disappear from the lives of their children (Boulden, 2011), much like young women, young fathers a strong emotional response of shock, fear, shame and embarrassment on hearing about he their impending fatherhood (Swartz & Bhana in Panday et al, 2009). Most of the participants in Swartz and Bhana (Panday et al, 2009) expressed a deep sense of responsibility for the child and a willingness to be actively involved in the child's life.

2.9. SUMMARY

Although literature on the scholastic performance of pregnant learners was not thoroughly done, the above literature suggests that pregnant learners and teenage fathers need moral, educational and family support for their educational progress. It is clear that the consequences of teen pregnancy are the direct causes of poor scholastic performance. Therefore, the performance of pregnant learners depends on the support they get from educators, family members, friends and the community. The review of literature has given insight on hindrances that prevent pregnant learners to perform to the best of their abilities. It also serves as wakeup call on what tools of trade educators, school community and the Department of Education need to possess to support pregnant learners perform well scholastically.

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CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

Through the literature review undertaken in Chapter 2, it was argued that both individual attributes that increases the likelihood of engaging in risky behaviour as well as the day to day social environment in which a young person participates and develops are the key determinants of teenage pregnancy. Research has shown that adolescence is a time of high risk for children where new found freedoms can results in decisions that drastically open up or close off life opportunities. As I stated in Chapter 1.3, the primary objective of this study was to examine the scholastic performance of pregnant learners.

In this chapter, I discuss the research design and the methodologies used in collecting data in order to offer relevant, valid and reliable information about the scholastic performance of pregnant learners. This include both qualitative and quantitative data collection instruments in the form of questionnaire and focus group interviews, sampling strategy, the role of the researcher, ethical measures and data analysis.

3.2. RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is a plan of what data to gather, from whom, how and when to collect the data and how to analyse obtained data (BJA Center for Program Evaluation and Performance Measurement-Glossary,). It describes how the study was conducted, summarises the procedures for conducting the study, including when, from whom and under what conditions the data will be obtained. In other words, the research design indicates the general plan i.e. how the research is set up, what happens to the subjects, and what methods of data collection are used (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:20). Its

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purpose is to specify a plan for generating empirical evidence that will be used to answer the hypothesis and research questions stated in chapter 1.4 and 1.5 respectively.

3.3 RESEARCH APPROACH

This research followed a mixed-method approach, incorporating both quantitative and qualitative research methods in order to facilitate triangulation. The two methods were used concurrently: the qualitative paradigm functions in unison with the quantitative paradigm.

Triangulation of methods means mixing both qualitative and quantitative styles of research and data for a fuller or more comprehensive study. I prefer to use triangulation because it leads to an enriched explanation of the research problem and can provide insight of the underlying research problem which cannot be attained from one approach (de Vos et al, 2002:341). According to Moody (2002), the two types of methods have different, complementary strength and when used together can lead to a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon. While the quantitative design strived to control for bias so that the facts were understood in an objective way, the qualitative approach strived to understand the perceptions of educators on whether teenage pregnancy is associated with reduced levels of educational participation and achievement, looking into firsthand experience to provide data.

Each approach has positive attributes. By combining methods, advantages of each methodology complemented the other, and made for a stronger research design and resulted in more valid and reliable findings. The inadequacies of individual methods were minimized and more threats to internal validity were realized and addressed (Laws & McLeod, 2006).

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3.3. 1. Qualitative approach

The qualitative approach seeks illumination, understanding and extrapolation of similar situations to understand phenomena in context specific settings. Using qualitative approach, it gives me as a researcher, a leeway to explore the intricate aspects of meaning attribution. In this study, it relates to the ways in which pregnancy can hamper the scholastic performance of pregnant learners through the perceptions of their educators. An interpretive framework which aims to present the reality of participants' from their own views was more suited to this study. According to Terre Blanche and Dunheim (1999), interpretive tradition is mainly interested in the subjective world of research participants, meaning, hopes and aspirations by emphatically interpreting the meaning of what they said. The term qualitative approach is referred to a collection of methods and techniques which share a certain set of principles or logic (Babbie & Mutton, 2006:270).

3.3.2. Quantitative Approach

The quantitative approach uses a deductive form of reasoning, which implies that a researcher uses existing theoretical knowledge as a conceptual frame of reference and collects empirical information from a sample of a larger population to draw conclusions and generalizations (MacMillan & Schumacher, 2010:21; Moody, 2002). According Kruger (2006:200), the aim of quantitative research is to measure the social world objectively through scientific explanation. It is all about quantifying relationships between variables. In this study, variables are performance and pregnant earners. The relationship between the scholastic performance and pregnant learners was expressed by using effective statistics such as correlation, frequencies and means. The quantitative approach was utilised when the scholastic performance of pregnant learners were appraised through the questionnaire using a yes or no answers.

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For the purpose of this study on teenage pregnancy, a survey research design was utilised to collect data from the respondents. A survey method was used because it enabled the researcher to collect data from a relatively large number of respondents (Best & Khan, 1993:107). I used this design to acquire information about attitudes, values, beliefs, opinions and past behaviors from a group of pregnant learners' including female adolescent learners who are not pregnant and male adolescent learners whose girlfriends are pregnant. Surveys are excellent vehicles for measuring attitudes in a large number of respondents and they are relevant in applying the same definitions uniformly to all respondents and the researcher is bound to ask exactly the same questions to all respondents giving a particular response (Babbie & Mouton, 2007). Surveys are free from errors, easy to administer, cheaper to run and only questions of interest to the researcher are asked, recorded, codified and analysed. Surveys have their disadvantages, they depend on subjects' motivation, honesty, memory and ability to respond.

3.4. SAMPLING, POPULATION OR SUBJECTS.

3.4. 1. Population

After determining the unit of analysis, I have to define the population of interest. For the purpose of sampling, population has a specialized meaning. Brynard and Hanekom (1997:43) refer to population as all objects, subjects, phenomena, cases, events or activities which a researcher wishes to research in order to establish new knowledge. The target population for this study is all senior phase pregnant adolescent learners (grade 7 to 9 learners), including female adolescent learners who are not pregnant, male adolescent learners whose girlfriends are pregnant and male learners whose girlfriends are not pregnant or those who do not have girlfriends and their educators.

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3.4.2. Sample

According Brynard and Hanekom (1997:44), a sample should be representative of the large population and should include all elements of the population. Probability sampling approach was used to select respondents for this study. This approach for research methods is closer to a true representation of the population and gives each element a known chance of being included in the sample. From the target population of senior phase learners (pregnant learners, non pregnant learners, boys with/without pregnant girlfriends) in Limpopo, a sample was selected. The sample offered a multiple view-points and their own perceptions on how teenage pregnancy influences or affect their academic performance. Purposive and stratified random sampling were used, with a sample size of 87 learners was drawn from 1 rural primary and 2 secondary schools in the Vhembe district, Vhumbedzi Circuit (Limpopo Province of South Africa). Variables considered during sampling were the learners' ages, gender and grade levels. The senior phase learners were divided into sub groups (strata) based on their grade level variable. The sample was consisted of grade 7, 8 and 9 learners. The different types of individuals in this study are pregnant learners, non pregnant learners, male learners and their educators.

The respondent's age ranged from 10 to 15 years and older. Using the pregnant learner register from the research schools[6], pregnant learners were selected using purposive sampling. Non pregnant and male learners were randomly selected to ensure that each subgroup of interest was represented in the sample.

A total of 6 senior phase educators from all senior phase educators in the Vhembe region of Limpopo Province were selected. The educators have direct experience of teaching the same learners before and during their pregnancy and were selected from

[6] Schools should maintain that a record of learner pregnancies is maintained and that reports are submitted to the relevant authorities in the provincial Department of Education (Measures for the Prevention and Management of learner pregnancy in public Schools (2007)

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three research schools. Their experience ranged from 2 years to 19 years of teaching. I chose educators to form part of the research sample because of their role as educators in the learning process of pregnant learners. This role brings them into contact with issues related to the scholastic performance of adolescent pregnant learners and makes them valuable key informants on the subject.

3.5. INSTRUMENTATION

In this study, a self designed questionnaire and a focus group interview schedule were both used to collect data from the respondents.

3.5.1. Questionnaire (Appendix- A)

A questionnaire is a paper and pencil instrument that the respondent completes (Trochim, 2006). A group administered questionnaire in which a sample of respondents is brought together and asked to respond to a structured sequence of questions was developed. The instrument measured four characteristics of learners that were chosen as variables, namely, age, gender, school behavior of pregnant learners and the scholastic performance

The approach I utilised in this study was to write an item on one line and the response category was placed below not next to the item. Boxes were used to indicate where to place the check mark. I also asked a series of questions, that is, contingency questions where the respondents were asked to answer one question that directed them to other questions. The questions were a combination of structured and semi- structured. The combination provided a high degree of objectivity and uniformity, yet allowed for probing and clarifications (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:206). The structured questions were followed by a set of choices and the respondents selected one of the choices as the answer. In semi- structured questions, there were no choices from which the

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respondents selected the answers. The questions were phrased to allow individual responses. The open-ended questions were " fairly specific in its intent (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:207).

The questionnaire consisted of three sections. The first section requested the respondents to give biographical information regarding gender, age, grade level and home language. The respondents were asked to indicate by putting a mark in the appropriate box what applies to them.

The second section consisted of the family background, assertiveness, perceived repercussions, and reasons for getting pregnant and the effects on scholastic performance. The closed-ended question format was used when designing the questionnaire. The respondents were asked to select an answer from among the list provided by the researcher. Closed- ended questions are very popular because they provide a greater uniformity of responses and are more easily processed (Babbie & Mouton, 2006).

Questions 5 to7 consisted of a multiple choice division and the respondents were asked to put a mark on the appropriate box. Respondents were asked to respond on their relationship and financial status at home. Questions 8 to 14 on assertiveness are a dichotomous response format where the respondents had to answer yes or no items. Questions 16 and 19 are a continuous type of response where the respondents were presented with a continuous scale. The questions determined whether the female respondents were happy that they were pregnant and the male learners if they were happy that their girlfriends were pregnant. Questions 22 and 23 are a dichotomous response format where the respondents have to answer yes or no items on pregnant learners' school behavior and their scholastic performance.

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The third section, question 24 consisted of semi-structured open-ended questions and they were specifically intended for pregnant learners. They were asked the extent they think their scholastic performance has been affected, if they were laughed at school, if the educators accepted them, if their educators were flexible and whether they were ashamed by their pregnancies. The questions are a continuous type response where pregnant learners allowed expressing their perceived repercussions on being a pregnant the effects of pregnancy on scholastic performance.

3.5.2. Focus Group Interview

Qualitative research concentrates on words and observations to express reality and attempts to describe people in natural situations (Lewis, 2000). According to (Lewis, 2000), the key element was the involvement of people where their disclosures were encouraged in a nurturing environment. A series of verbal questions were posed to the participants in a face to face situation such that the participants were able to share many features on their everyday lives that includes their attitudes, feelings and opinions with regards to teenage pregnancy and its consequences (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). The questions were prepared in an interview schedule. An interview schedule provides flexibility and the ability to probe and clarify responses, they note non-verbal behavior. They also provide high response rates but are costly and more susceptible to bias.

In this study, participants shared their attitudes, feelings and opinions on teenage pregnancy and its consequences on the achievement levels of their learners. It taps into human tendencies where attitudes and perceptions are developed through interaction with other people (Lewis, 2000). I conducted a focus group interview with educators chosen randomly from the research schools, to explore their experiences and expectations related to the scholastic performance of pregnant learners, the thoughts they have concerning the behavior and the commitment of pregnant learners. Furthermore, I was able to draw out issues that were unknown to me as a researcher

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and to gain a deeper understanding of the issues as focus groups are able to delve much deeper into issues than questionnaires (New York State Teacher Centers, 2008).

3.6. DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

Data collection procedures comprise of both quantitative and qualitative research techniques such as self-designed questionnaires and focus group discussions. I was granted permission to conduct the study by the Department of Education in the Vhembe District of Limpopo Province of South Africa. The Vhumbedzi Circuit Manager issued circulars to all primary and secondary schools in his circuit to inform the principals that the researcher would be visiting some of the schools to conduct research. Consent was also sought from the principals of the targeted schools, parental and the respondents' consent was also sought. The research assistant gave a brief, explanation to the respondents of the significance of the study, what is being asked for and allowed them to ask questions.

3.6.1. Quantitative data collecting technique.

Self-designed questionnaires were issued to pregnant adolescent learners and the control group to complete after normal school periods. The research assistant distributed questionnaires to the respondents and these were completed during lunch time to avoid lesson disruptions. Respondents were instructed to answer each statement as honestly as possible. The researcher explained the issue of anonymity, that the questionnaires were anonymous to safeguard the respondents. Respondents were assisted on how to properly fill in the questionnaire. Since the researcher distributed and collected the questionnaires immediately after the respondents had completed them, a return rate of 94% was achieved.

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3.6.2. Qualitative data collection procedures

Sampled educators were interviewed rather than each person interview individually. By creating a social environment in which group members are stimulated by one another's perceptions and ideas, I increased "the quality and richness of data through a more efficient strategy than one on one interviewing" (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:363). The group consisted of 6 educators who were relatively homogeneous but unknown to each other. Through the help of the research assistant, I facilitated and moderated the interview process. The most common technique for collecting focus group information is a combination of note taking and audio tape recorder (New York State Teacher Center (2008). Focus group data were recorded verbatim using a tape recorder and the assistant moderator tried to capture exact phrases and statements made by participants (educators) when taking notes. Careful consideration was taken to maintain control in conducting the group interview to ensure that notes taking should not interfere with the discussion. It was important for me to make sure that notes were complete and usable in the event the tape recorder stopped working. Furthermore, control was maintained to ensure that there was no dominant group or individuals and at the same time I tried to play a neutral role. As indicated by New York State Teacher Center (2008), it is important to use information recording technique that: capture all of the essential information, collect information in an unbiased manner, put statements made during the focus group into proper context and try to capture nonverbal behavior of group participants.

I chose focus group discussions with educators because they share the same characteristics as regards to the scholastic performance of pregnant learners. Issues surrounding the performance of pregnant learners before and after they fell pregnant and all aspects relevant to the topic were discussed. In this study, focus group served as a guide to ensure if the results from the two methods converge and support one another (Kruger in de Vos, 2002:306), thus giving greater credibility to the findings.

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There are both strength and weaknesses for each of the above types of data collection strategies I utilized.

Table 3.1 below summarised the strength and weaknesses of questionnaires and interviews.

Technique	Strength	Weaknesses
Questionnaire	Economical Can be anonymous Standard questions and uniform procedures Usually easy to score Provides time for subjects to think	Response rate Inability to probe and clarify Scoring open –ended items Faking and social desirability Restricted to subject who can read and write Biased and ambiguous items Response set
Interviews	Flexible Adaptable Ability to probe and clarify Ability to include non-verbal response High response rate Used with non readers	Costly Time consuming Not anonymous Subjects effects Effects of interviewer characteristics Requires training Leading questions

Adapted from McMillan and Schumacher (2010:212)

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3. 7. DATA ANALYSIS STRATEGIES

Data analysis is the process of systematically searching and arranging the interview scripts, field notes and all other material that the researcher has collected (Mouton, 1996).

3.7.1. Quantitative data analysis

Quantitative data was analysed using the SPSS programme which involves one or more statistical techniques to examine the scholastic performance of pregnant learners, to find if there is a significant difference between the scholastic performance of pregnant and non pregnant learners. The following SPSS procedures were used to develop characteristics of the respondents: frequencies, crosstabulations and mean scores. According to Neuman (2000:339), the scientific community has informally agreed to use alpha=0,05 and as a rule of thumb for most purposes.

3.7.2. Qualitative data analysis

Qualitative data analysis is primarily an inductive process of organizing data. Inductive data analysis means that categories and patterns emerge from the data analysis than being imposed on data prior data collection like in deductive data analysis (McMillan &Schumacher, 2010:402). The information collected from a focus group discussion is raw data. The use of content analysis allows raw data to emerge into themes, which I can further refine within a qualitative focus (Cavana et al, 2001). According to Lewis (2000), the researcher's task is to prepare a statement regarding the collected data.

The first step was to transcribe the entire interview and then it was translated from Tshivenda into English. This provided a complete record of the discussion and facilitated analysis of the data. Trends and patterns that reappear within the group were analysed. Words used in answers were compared and the emphasis or intensity of the

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respondents was considered. Kruger in Lewis (2000) suggests that thematic analysis begins with comparison of the words used in the answer. It is important that statements be understood in the context which they were made. Nonverbal communication observed during the group can also be very informative.

3.8. QUALITY ASSURANCE TECHNIQUES

3.8.1. Qualitative techniques

- **Assessing the validity of qualitative research**

Quality indicators for qualitative research are dependent on the approach and purpose of the study (Mertens, 2010:255)

- **Trustworthiness of qualitative data**

3.8.1.1. Credibility (internal validity)[7]

Validity is concerned with whether the findings are really about what they appear to be about (Robson, 2002). In this enquiry, credibility was addressed by utilizing member checks and peer debriefing and triangulation.

3.8.1.2. Member checks and peer debriefing

Member checks involve the researcher seeking verification with the respondent groups about the constructions that are developing as a result of data collected and analysed (Mertens, 2010: 257). At the end of the focus group interview, I summarised what has been said and asked if the notes accurately reflect the educators' views and drafts of the research report was shared with the educators for comment.

[7] Guba,E.G and Lincoln, Y.S. 1989 Fourth Generation Evaluation. Newbury Park. CA: Sage cited in Mertens (2010) equate credibility with internal validity

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3.8.1.3. Transferability (external validity)[8]: Thick Descriptions and multiple cases

External validity is the extents to which findings of a study could be applied to other situations and therefore answered the question of how generalisable were the results of the research study (Mason in Laws & McLeod, 2006). Guba and Lincoln in Mertens (2010: 259), discussed the term transferability as the parallel concept that enables readers of the research to make judgments based on similarities and differences when comparing the research situation with their own. In this study, I provided sufficient detail to enable the reader to make such judgment. Extensive and careful description of time, place and context were given and thus, the finding of this study could be transferred and generalised to similar situations.

8.2. Quantitative techniques

3.8.2. 1. Triangulation

In social science, triangulation is defined as the mixing of data or methods so that diverse viewpoints or standpoints can light upon the topic (Olsen, 2004:3). In this study, I mixed methodologies i.e. the use of survey data with focus group interview to establish validity through similar conclusion. Triangulation involves checking information that has been collected from different sources or methods for consistency of evidence across sources of data (Mertens, 2010:258) and the use of multiple sources to enhance the rigour of the research (Robinson, 2002). This enquiry uses both data triangulation, the use of more than one method of data collection and methodological triangulation, combining qualitative and quantitative approaches that confirmed the emerging findings. In this study, internal validity was also enhanced by the use of triangulation, member checks that required data to be returned to the people from whom they were derived for checking and peer examination where colleagues were asked to comment on findings.

[8] Guba and Lincoln cited in Mertens (2010) identify transferability as the qualitative parallel to external validity in positivist research.

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This methodology can claim a high level of internal validity as data were collected in the natural setting that reflected the reality of their life experiences and thus are more accurate than more contrived or laboratory settings. According to Morse and Richards in Laws and McLeod (2006), internal validity could be eroded by the reactivity of respondents lying, omitting relevant data or misinterpreting their claims. However, members of the focus group in this study were chosen randomly from the sampled schools and did not know each other. The degree of anonymity helped the members to state their true opinions and feelings which clearly improved validity in this study.

3.9. PILOT STUDY

Before the actual fieldwork, a pilot test was conducted with a group similar to the target group. The study afforded an opportunity for the researcher to evaluate the appropriateness, clarity and ambiguity in the use of the questionnaire. It also enabled the researcher to practice the skills learnt before the actual fieldwork. A questionnaire was administered to a group of 20 learners with the same characteristics as the respondents of the main study. However, these were excluded from the main study. The respondents were asked to comment on the items and indicate which items were confusing. Problems relating to the ambiguity and appropriateness were discussed.

3.10. VALIDITY

The term validity refers to the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration (Babbie & Mouton, 2007). Validity is an indication of how sound one's research is. It is the accuracy, meaningfulness and credibility of the research project as a whole (Research Methods, 2008). Content and external validity was measured.

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3.10.1. Content validity

Content validity is the extent to which a measurement instrument is a representative sample of the content area being measured (Leedy, 2006). I gave my colleagues the questionnaire and were asked to comment on the items and indicate which items were confusing or not understandable. Item number 6 was changed as the respondents were asked to choose the appropriate number and there were two numbers in each statement instead of numbers 1-5 & 1-6 respectively.

3.10.2. External validity

External validity of a research study is the extent to which its result apply to situation beyond the study itself, which is the extent to which data may be generalized to other contexts (Dane, 1990). A representative sample of the population was studied and conclusions were drawn. The researcher carefully identified the key characteristics in order to produce a corresponding population to which the researcher could generalise the findings. The sample does not permit generalisation outside the group of sample elements. The subjects were learners from grade 7 to 9 around Vhumbedzi Circuit in the Vhembe District, Limpopo Province of South Africa.

3.11. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

In this study, human beings were used as subjects. Whenever human beings are the focus of the investigatonn, ethical implications must be looked closely (Leedy, 2006). For the purpose of this study, the following ethics were taken into consideration

- Permission to conduct research was sought from The Department of Education in the Limpopo Province, parents and the principals of the schools.
- Participants in this study were involved on an entirely voluntary basis and their anonymity was assured. Robson (2002; 203) highlights the political issues

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involved with evaluation research, for example, whose interests this research is serving? The sole purpose of this research is the completion of a Masters level dissertation and is not taken to serve any other interests. Participants were made aware of this.

- Protection from harm. The participants were not exposed to undue physical or psychological harm meaning that there was no risk of losing life, limb or would they be subjected to stress, embarrassment and loss of self-esteem.
- The participants were informed of the nature of the study to be conducted and be given choice of either participating or not participating. Participants and participants' parents were requested to fill in the consent form to confirm their willingness to participate in the research.
- Participants' right to privacy were respected. No names or any form of identification was used. Anonymity of the information gathered was upheld.
- The research instruments and procedures adhered to the ethical features, which contributes to the credibility of the research

3.12. SUMMARY

The purpose of this chapter was to discuss the research design and methods for gaining insight into the way teenage pregnancy affects on scholastic performance of pregnant learners. The focus was on the research paradigm. Strategies and methods used. It further clarified the sampling design and the methods of data analysis, lastly the pilot study was discussed. The research findings will be discussed in the next chapter.

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CHAPTER 4
DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter provided the analysis and interpretation of both quantitative and qualitative results with quantitative providing the primary data. The main objective of this study was to investigate the scholastic performance of pregnant learners. Chapter 3 focused on the empirical research design and the method of investigation and outlined the various factors and their predicted effect on the scholastic performance of pregnant learners. In this chapter the data derived from the views of senior phase educators the response of learners are analysed, and it is considered whether or not they support the hypotheses that arose from the various theory analyses as reflected in Chapters 2.

4.2. ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

SECTION A: Section A dealt with data collected from pregnant learners, non-pregnant learners and male learners through the questionnaire analysed quantitatively.

SECTION B: Section B dealt with data obtained from educators' focus group analysed qualitatively. Findings were based on the experiences of female pregnant and non-pregnant learners, male learners and educators.

The information collected during the focus interview with educators who have both the direct experience of teaching the same learners before and during their pregnancy, on pregnant learners and male learners. Hence the teaching experience they had, educators were able to distinguish the performance of learners before and during the pregnancy. Their experiences varied from five years to twenty years.

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4.3. SECTION A: QUANTITATIVE DATA

Quantitative data was analysed using the SPSS programme which involves one or more statistical techniques to examine the scholastic performance of pregnant learners, to find if there is a significant difference between the scholastic performance of pregnant and non pregnant learners. The following SPSS procedures were used to develop characteristics of the respondents as indicated in Chapter3: 3.7: frequencies, crosstabulations and mean scores. According to Newman (2000:339), the scientific community has informally agreed to use alpha=0,05 and as a rule of thumb for most purposes.

Table 4.1: Frequency distribution of gender of the respondents

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Male	29	33.3
	Female	58	66.7
	Total	**87**	**100.0**

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Figure 4.1: Frequency Distribution of Gender of the respondents



The study found that out of the total of 91, 27 (29. 7%) of the respondents were male and the majority of the respondents were females 64 (70. 3%) were females. This can be attributed to the purposive selection of pregnant learners. The gender of the respondents was significant in this study as the performance of pregnant girls and of the males whose girlfriends were pregnant was compared to the performance of non pregnant female learners and males learners whose girlfriends were not pregnant.

Table 4.2: Frequency distribution of the respondents' age

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	10-12 years	12	13.8
	13-14 years	22	25.3
	15 years and older	53	60.9
	Total	**87**	**100.0**

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Figure 4.2: Frequency distribution of the respondents' age

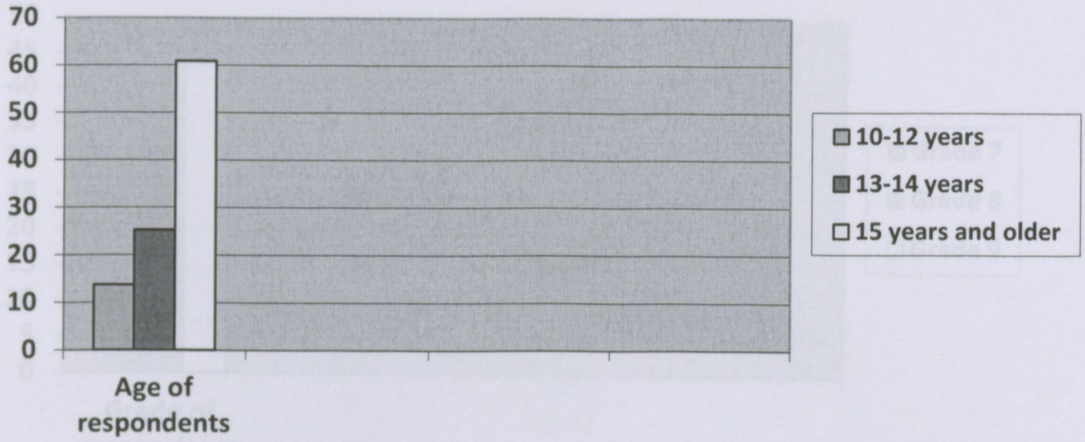


Table 4.2. Indicates that the majority of the respondents (60. 9%) were 15 years and older, 25. 3% were between the ages of 13-14 years and 13. 8% were between the ages of 10-12 years. The majority of the respondents who completed the questionnaire were 15 years and older. This might be due to the fact that respondents were randomly selected.

Table 4.3: Frequency distribution of the respondents' grade

	Frequency	Percent
Grade 7	18	20.7
Grade 8	31	35.6
Grade 9	38	43.7
Total	**87**	**100.0**

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Figure 4.3: Frequency distribution of the respondents' grade

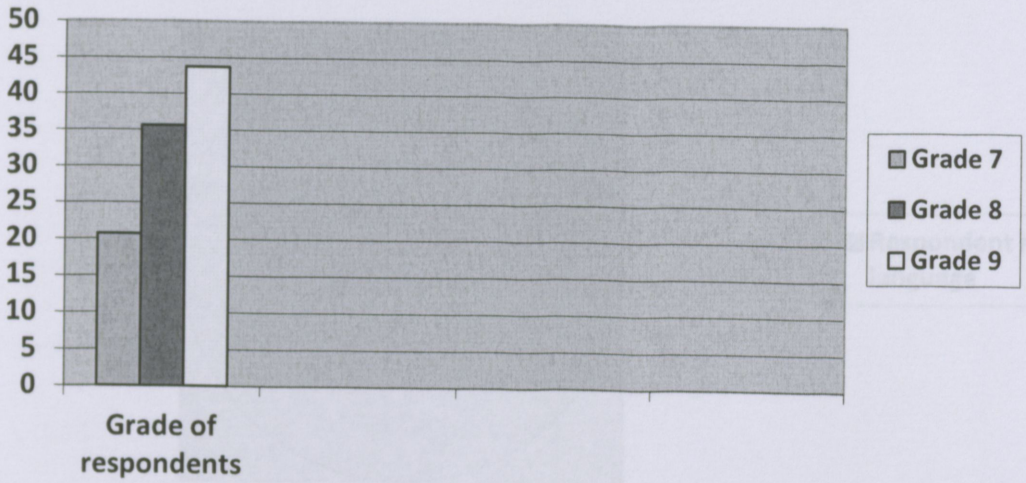


Table 4.3. Indicates that 43. 7% of the respondents were in grade 9, 35. 6% were in grade 8 while only 20% were in grade 7. The fact that there are fewer learners in grade 7 than other grades might be the results of the number of pregnant learners in primary schools. Another attribute may be that only one primary school was sampled and while two secondary schools were sampled. In SA grade 7 is in primary schools even though it falls in the senior phase.

Table 4.4: Frequency distribution of the respondents' home language

	Frequency	Percent
Tshivenda	87	100.0

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Figure 4.4: frequency distribution of the respondents' home language

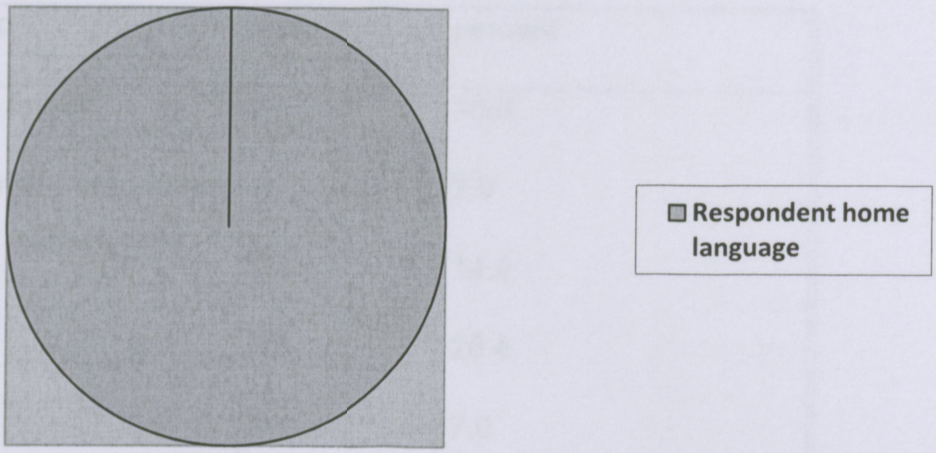


Table 4.4 shows that all, 100% of the respondents indicated Tshivenda is their home language. This may be the results of that, even those who are not Vendas in their origin (Tsongas and Northern Sothos, etc), who are living in the area regard themselves as Vhavenda as Tshivenda is the language they speak at home.

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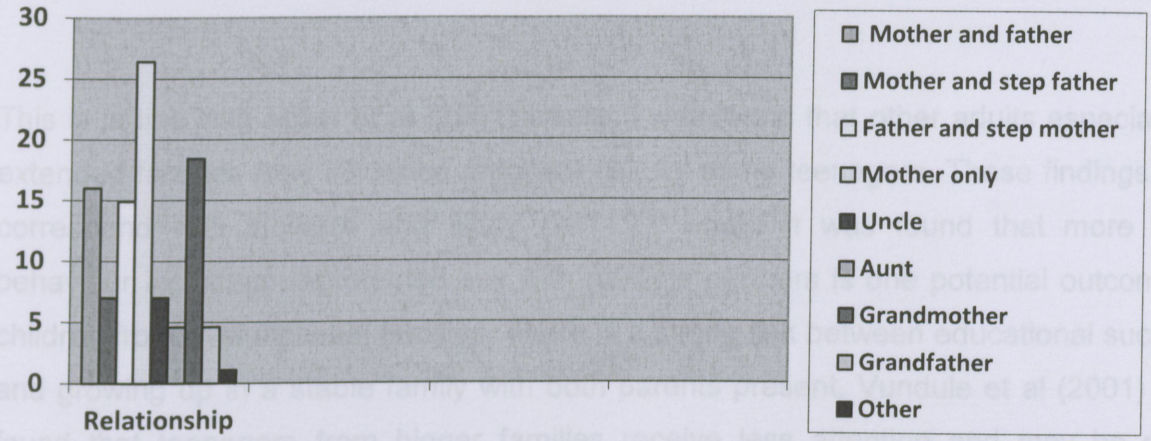
Table 4.5. Frequency distribution on the respondents' family relationship, that is, with whom do the respondents live.

Relationship	frequency	percent
Mother and father	14	16.0
Mother and step-father	6	7.0
Father and step-mother	13	14.9
Mother only	23	26.4
Uncle	6	7.0
Aunt	4	4.6
Grandmother	16	18.4
Grandfather	4	4.6
Other	1	1.1
Total	**87**	**100**

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Figure 4.5: Frequency distribution on the respondents' family relationship



An observation which can be made from Table 4.5 is that 16% of the respondents showed that they live with both biological parents, 4% live with their mother, 18. 4% of the respondents live with their grandmother 14. 9 0f the respondents live with their father and step mother. 7% of the respondents live both live under step father and mother and uncle categories while 4. 6 of the respondents live with either an aunt or a grandfather and 1.1% lives with others. The results show that most of the SA children are not growing up in safe and secure families. Single parent families are the norm in SA with the majority of children growing up with one parent, one biological and a step parent. There is no doubt that being a step parent is the most difficult role any adult can play. Moreover the findings also show that many children are living without both parents, that is, they live with their grand parents, uncles, aunts and others. It is common sense that fractured families may have an influence on more risky sexual behaviour. Risky sexual behaviour may lead to teenage pregnancy that may have dire consequences on the scholastic performance of the child.

What is particularly of concern is that many children are growing up with their grand parents, aunts and uncles. In my view children growing up without their biological parents might end up not getting full support they need in their teen years. Their

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extended families especially grand mothers might be too old and ill equipped to deal with the burden of parenting.

This is in line with Miller et al (2001) where it was found that other adults especially in extended families may influence pregnant risk for some teenagers. These findings also correspond with Holborn and Eddy (2011:7), where it was found that more risky behaviour including unprotected sex with multiple partners is one potential outcome of children from dysfunctional families. There is a strong link between educational success and growing up in a stable family with both parents present. Vundule et al (2001) also found that teenagers from bigger families receive less attention and may be more susceptible to pressure from outside the home especially peers.

From the table above, 6 out of 87 respondents live with their step fathers and 13 out of 87 respondents live with their step mothers, making a total of 19 respondents living with one biological parent and a step parent. The table below indicates the number of respondents living with one biological parent and a step parent.

Table 4.6: Frequency distribution of respondents living with one biological parent and a step parent.

Relationship	Frequency	Percent
Living with a father and a step mother	13	14.9%
Living with a mother and a step father	6	6.9%
Total	**19**	**21,8%**

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Figure 4.6: Frequency distribution of respondents' living with one biological parent and a step parent

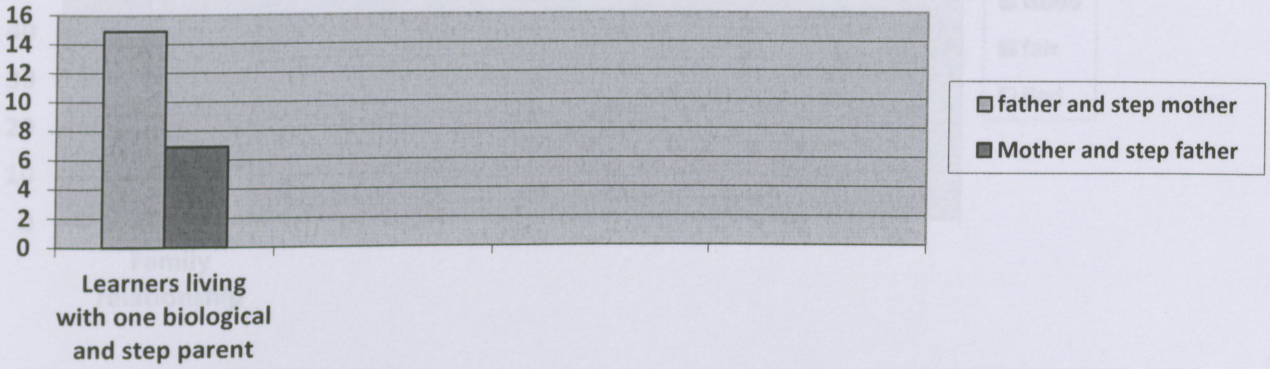


Table 4.7: Frequency distribution of respondents' relationship at home

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Good	56	64.4
	Fair	20	23.0
	Bad	10	11.5
	Total	86	98.9
Missing	System	1	1.1
Total		**87**	**100.0**

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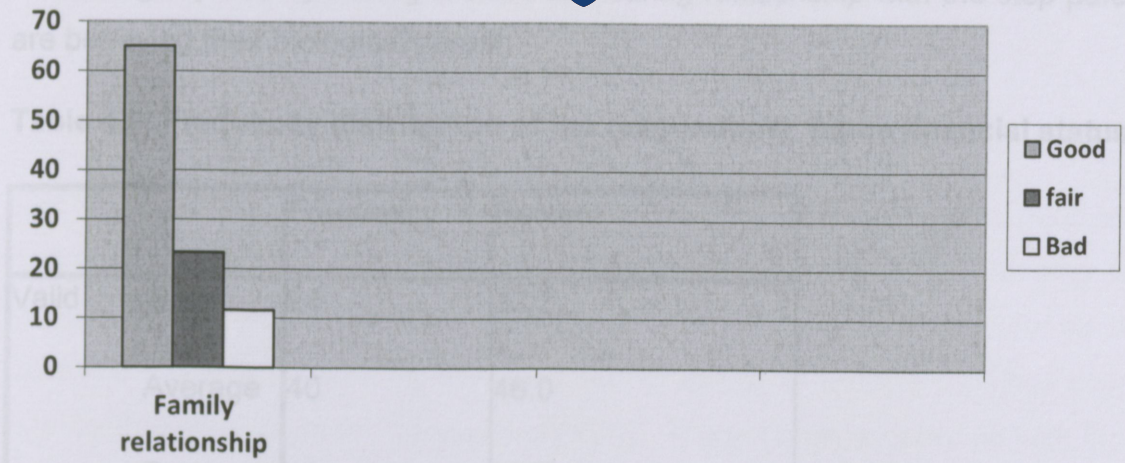


Figure 4.7: Frequency distribution of respondents' relationship at home

A substantial majority 65.1% of the respondents showed that their relationship was good, while 23, 3% of the respondents indicated that their relationship was fair and only 11, 6% of the respondents indicated that their relationship was bad. It is common knowledge that when children are emotionally connected to their parents and perceive them as supportive, loving and caring, they are more likely to trust, respects and desires to please them. On the other hand, overly strict and unrestricted supervision may lead to aggressiveness and disobedience that may lead to risky sexual behaviour and early pregnancy.

Table 4.7. above indicates a total of 19 learners living with step parents. Step parenting a teenager can be a more challenging and complicated job. Teens from these families often blame their step parent, maybe distant and overly sensitive in their presence. They may also be disrespectful towards them creating a lot of tension and stress in their relationship.

Miller et al, (2004) and (Albert, 2004 & 2005) also found that in a close parent/child relationships, teenagers are more likely to exercise self restraint and to be involved in pro-social activities that lessen the risk of teenage pregnancy. McGraw (2005) also concurs that the step child may be experiencing a fair amount of emotional confusion

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and feel guilty that by having a close and loving relationship with the step parent, they are betraying their biological parent.

Table 4.8. Frequency distribution of the respondents' home financial status

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Good	28	32.2
	Average	40	46.0
	Poor	18	20.7
	Total	86	98.9
Missing	System	1	1.1
Total		**87**	**100.0**

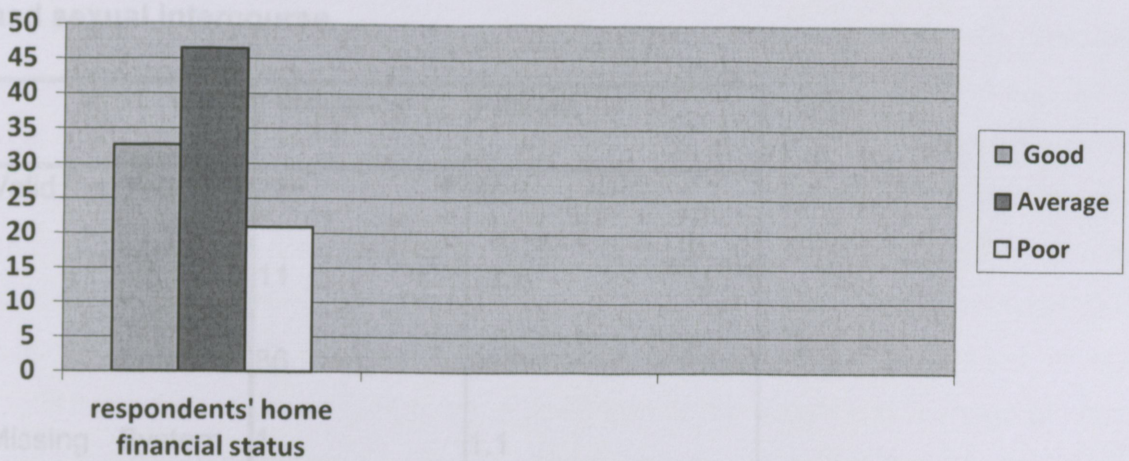


Figure 4.8: Frequency distribution of the respondents' home financial status

Table 4.8. indicates that 32.6% of the respondents' financial status is good while most of the respondents 46.5% indicated that their home financial status was average. Only 20, 9 % of the respondents reported living in poor households. It is surprising to find most of the respondents is either good or average. In a country where most of the children are raised by their mother and extended families and where unemployment is

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staggeringly high, one would expect to find the majority of the respondents living in severe poverty.

This might be due to the government poverty alleviation programmes such as grants (the child support grant and schemes supporting grandmothers) and feeding schemes in schools. The respondents age ranged between 10 – 15 years and older as shown in table 4.3.2 above. Therefore, the respondents qualify to receive the child support the age as threshold is under 16 years currently. These findings correlate with Holborn & Eddy (2011) where it was found that there is a decrease of child hunger in the SA household from 30% in 2002 to 18% in 2008. Moreover children living in income poverty fell from 77% to 64% between 2002 and 2008. Furthermore Holborn and Eddy (2011) argued that the rollout of the child support grant has helped out to alleviate poverty for many unemployed families.

Table 4.9: Frequency distribution to establish whether the respondents had ever had sexual intercourse.

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Yes	75	86.2
	No	11	12.6
	Total	86	98.9
Missing	System	1	1.1
Total		**87**	**100.0**

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Figure 4.9: Frequency distribution to establish whether the respondents had ever had sexual intercourse



An overwhelming majority of the respondents, 86, 2% indicated that they have sexual experience and 12, 8% indicated that they have never had sexual experience. Teenage years are a stage where teenagers are trying to clarify who they are and are overwhelmed by feeling of uncertainty which may lead them to risky sexual behaviour. The risky sexual behaviour may include unprotected sex with multiple partners. The teenager has to conform to a group as sexual activity is the norm and encouraged among friends and this may put her at risk of early pregnancy. This correlates with Kohlberg's theory which concurs that high risk behaviours of early sexual initiation is related to individual development of moral understanding. Oostheizen in Macleod (2001) also had similar findings, he echoed that at this stage, the teenage girl conforms obeys and seeks approval from her peers and this may put her at risk of possible pregnancy.

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Table 4.10: Frequency distribution to establish whether the sexual intercourse was a voluntary experience.

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Yes	66	75.9
	No	7	8.0
	Total	73	83.9
Missing	System	14	16.1
Total		**87**	**100.0**

Figure 4.10: Frequency distribution to establish whether the sexual intercourse was a voluntary experience



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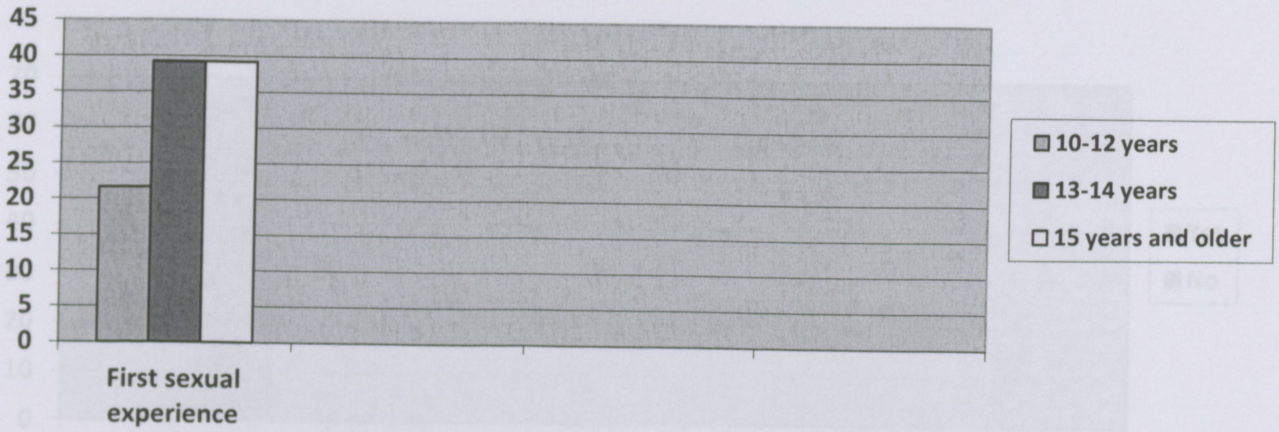
An overwhelming majority of the respondents (90.8%) indicated that they were not forced to have sex, it was a voluntary experience. 9.6% of the respondents indicated that it was not a voluntary experience. This may be due to child sexual abuse and gender violence. The findings are in line with Panday et al (2009) who argued that although data is not available in South Africa on the link between child sexual abuse and pregnancy (Panday et al, 2009), many pregnancies are the result of forced sex rather than free of choice or risky sexual behaviour and many school girls are often in abusive relationships at the time of their conceiving (Rosen, 2004; Eaton et al, 2005; Quinlivan, 2006; Ramisetty-Mikler et al, 2006 & Hubbard et al, 2008).

Table 4.11: Frequency distribution of age of first sexual experience

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	10-12 years	16	18.4
	13-14 years	29	33.3
	15 years and older	29	33.3
	Total	74	85.1
Missing	System	13	14.9
Total		**87**	**100.0**

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Figure 4. 11: Frequency distribution of a[illegible] sexual experience



21.6% of the respondents had their first sexual intercourse between the ages of 10-12 years, 39.2 % of the respondents had their first sexual intercourse between the ages of 13 -14 years while 39.2% had their first sexual intercourse at 15 years and older. It is alarming that children are starting to have sex as early as the ages of 10 to 12 years. The findings corroborates with Holborn and Eddy (2011) who found that many young people are starting to have sex at a very early age.

Table 4.12: Frequency distribution to establish whether the respondent is pregnant

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Yes	17	19.5
	No	33	37.9
	Total	50	57.5
Missing	System	37	42.5
Total		**87**	**100.0**

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Figure 4.12: Frequency distribution to establish whether the respondent is pregnant

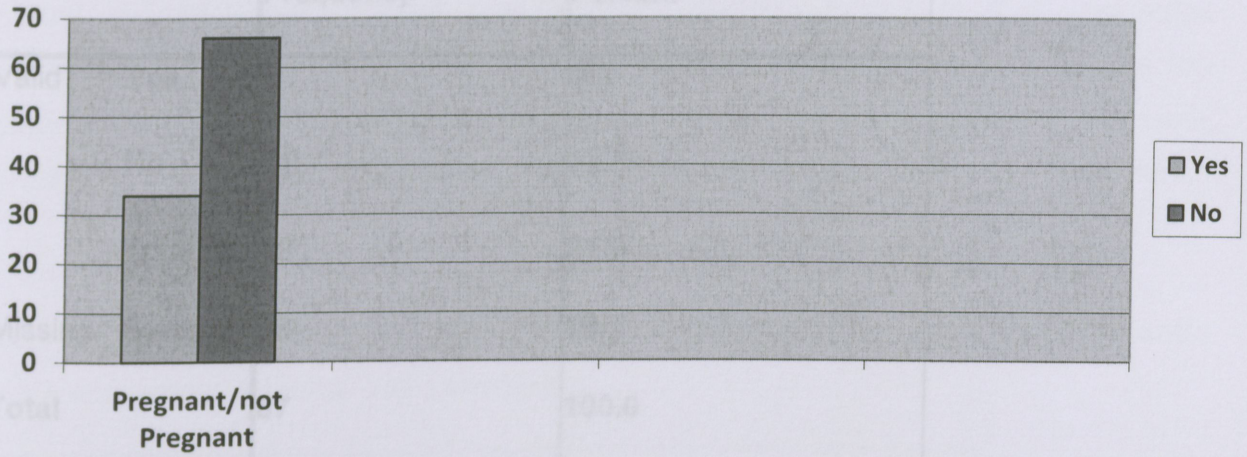


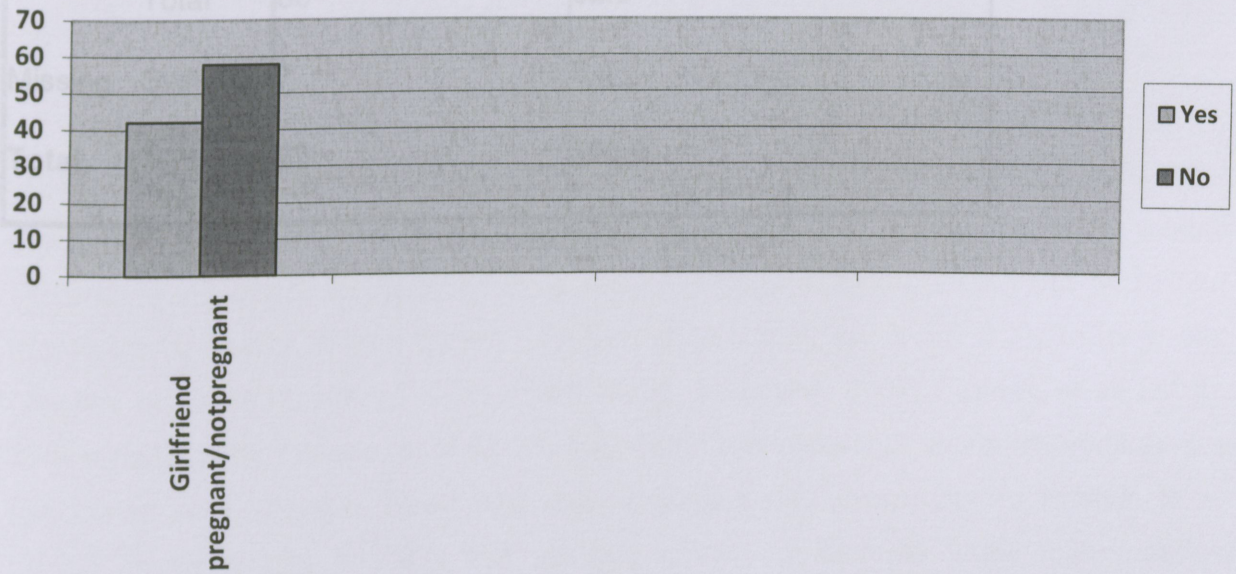
Table 4.12. indicates that 34.0% of the respondents were pregnant and 66% of the respondents were not pregnant. Although teenage pregnancy is declining in SA, it nevertheless has become a serious problem in SA schools. More and more school children are becoming pregnant and it is no longer alarming to see girls with 'bulging stomachs' in school and even in primary schools. This is in line with Holborn and Eddy (2011) who found that statistics from the DoE suggest that nearly 50 000 learners fell pregnant while in school and 53 learners in Grade 3 got during 2007. Khumalo (2011) also concurs that our society is being hit by a pregnancy "tsunami", Gauteng alone was reported to having 5000 schoolgirls preparing to give in 2011.

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Table 4.13: Frequency distribution to establish whether the respondent's girlfriend is pregnant.

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Yes	8	9.2
	No	11	12.6
	Total	19	21.8
Missing	System	68	78.2
Total		**87**	**100.0**

Figure 4.13: Frequency distribution to establish whether the respondent's girlfriend is pregnant



Out of 19 male learners, 42, 1% male learners indicated that their girlfriends were pregnant and 57, 9% showed that their girlfriends were not pregnant. These figures are

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alarmingly high and worrying. This might be indicative that SA schools are confronted with an escalating epidemic of learner pregnancy. Previous research indicated that teenage mothers were impregnated by older partners. Panday et al (2009) indicated that regional data on first parenthood showed that very small percentages in SA (1.7%). Panday et al (200) further argued that although the low percentages maybe indicative of the inability of men to verify paternity, the small proportion might also be an indication that teenage girls are impregnated by older men.

Table 4.14: Frequency distribution to establish whether the respondents' friends were also engaged in sexual activities.

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Yes	63	72.4
	No	17	19.5
	Total	80	92.0
Missing	System	7	8.0
Total		**87**	**100.0**

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Figure 4.14: frequency distribution to establish whether the respondent's friends were also engaged in sexual activities



An overwhelming majority of the respondents, 72.4% indicated that their friends were engaged in sexual intercourse and only 19.5% indicated that their friends we not engaged in sexual activities. This may be the reason why there is an alarming number of school going learner pregnancies. Adolescent is a time of emotional turmoil and most teenagers are sensitive to the pressure exerted by their peers and they want to belong and behave like their peers. Their sexual escapades might be result of conforming to a social group.

These results are consistent with previous research which indicated that entitlement (Jewkes et al, 2001). Previous research also indicate that perception of peers sexual behaviours influence adolescents' decisions to engage in sexual behaviour and when teenagers believe that their friends are having sex, they are more likely to have sex (Jewkes et al, 2001; Kirby, 2001; Albert, 2005; Maluleke, 2007; Panday et al, 2009). Similar findings by Pristein, et al (2003) suggested that reports of sexual intercourse are associated with peer-perceived popularity among peers. According to Pristein et al (2003), these results indicate that sexually active adolescents enjoy higher status among peers and that popular adolescents feel more pressured or inclined to report that that they are sexually active. Adolescents may believe that sexual activity best matches a prototype of popular, high- status adolescents (Pristein et al, 2003).

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Table 4.15. Frequency distribution of whether the respondents are able to say no to a friend who pressurised them to have sex.

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Yes	65	74.7
	No	17	19.5
	Total	82	94.3
Missing	System	5	5.7
Total		**87**	**100.0**

Figure 4.15. Frequency distribution of whether the respondents are able to say no to a friend who pressurised them to have sex



Although an overwhelming majority of the respondents, 79. 3% indicated that they were able to say no to a friend who wanted to have sex with them, 19. 5 % of the respondents were unable to say no. The findings show that although the majority of the respondents were engaged in sexual activities, they were assertive and able to say no when they were pressurised to having sex involuntarily.

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Table 4.16: Age at first pregnancy

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	10-12 years	2	2.2
	13-14 years	7	8.0
	15 years and older	10	11.5
	Total	19	21.8
Missing	System	68	78.2
Total		87	100.0

Figure 4.16: Age at first pregnancy

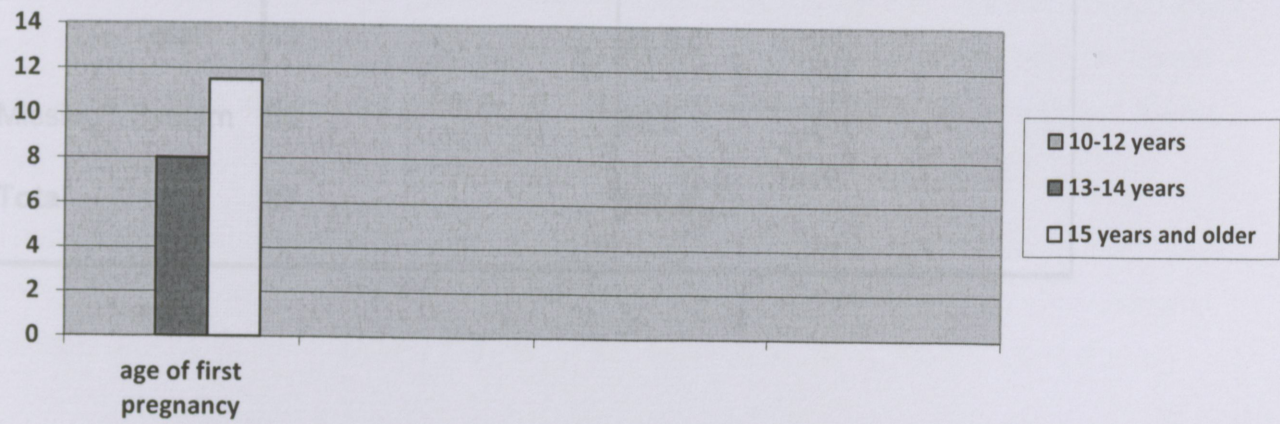


Table 4.16. Indicates that 2.2 % of the respondents fell pregnant when they were between the ages of 10 and 12 years old, 8.0 % fell pregnant when they were between the ages of 13 and 14 years and 11.5 % fell pregnant at 15 years and older. It is overwhelming to see children as young as 10-12 years of old fall pregnant. Early sexual debut might be the reason of children having children. Learner pregnancy has become a serious problem in the SA schools. The government's decision to allow children to decide on sexual health issues, allow children to make life changing decisions without

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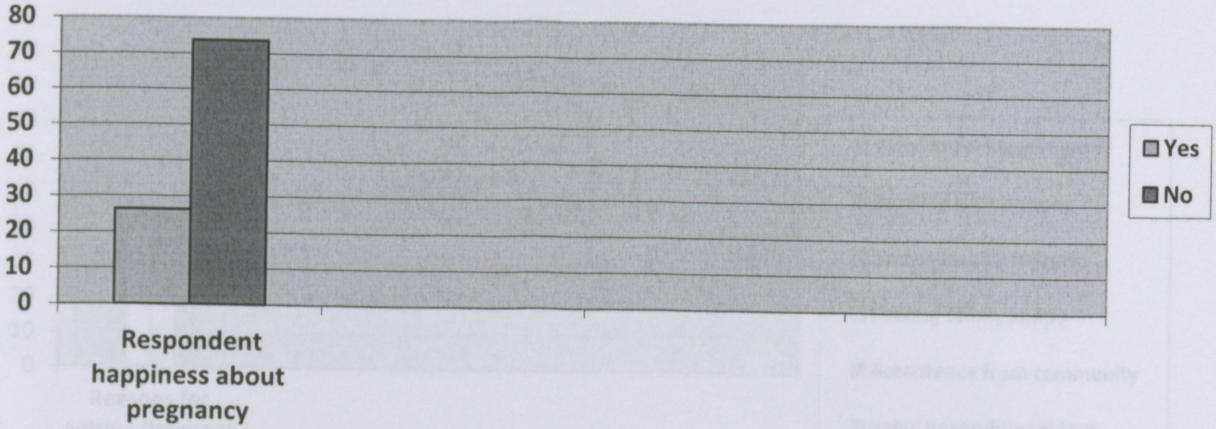
their parents' consent might be another attempt at the problem. The regulation allows children as young as 12 years to have access to condoms, other contraceptives and an HIV test (Sookha & Cole). Children having children at this age is not an uncommon phenomenon. The findings are consistent with Ramachandra (2012) and Tuei (2009) who found that girls as young as 10 years in SA are falling pregnant. In 2007 an 11 years old girl from Valhalla in Cape Town gave birth to a baby boy. Army Crowhurst was once dubbed Britain's youngest mom.

Table 4. 17: Frequency distribution to establish whether the respondent is happy about being pregnant

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Yes	5	5.7
	No	14	16.1
	Total	19	21.8
Missing	System	68	78.2
Total		**87**	**100.0**

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Figure 4. 17: Frequency distribution to establish whether the respondent is happy about being pregnant



The majority of the respondents 73.7% indicated that they were not happy to be pregnant while 26.3% indicated that they were happy. This might be an indicative that most teenage pregnancies are unplanned and most of them not wanted. Although the majority of the respondents indicated that they were not happy that they were pregnant, early parenthood is perceived by some teenagers as an opportunity to heal childhood wounds, receive support from the boyfriend and obtain emotional closeness not found from home.

These findings are similar to those in Davies (2003) which showed that such path may be chosen to correct negative childhood experiences characterised by dysfunctional families and weak family bonds (Davies, 2003; Miller et al,2004; Albert. 2004 &2005).

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Tables 4.18a-18f: Frequency distribution of reasons for getting pregnant

Figure 4.18: Frequency distribution of reasons for getting pregnant

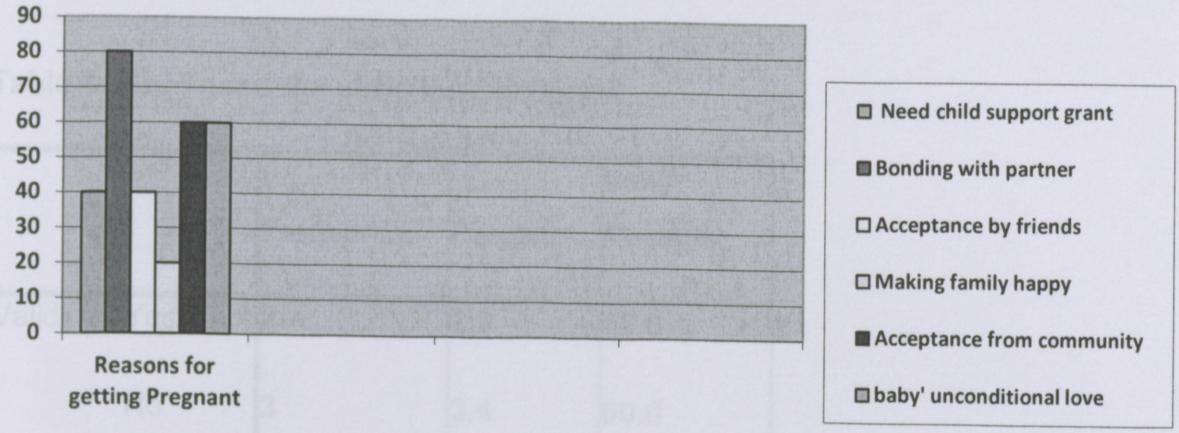


Table 4.18a: My baby will love me unconditionally

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Yes	3	3.4
	No	2	2.3
	Total	5	5.7
Missing	System	82	94.3
Total		**87**	**100.0**

60% of the respondents indicated that the reason for getting pregnant was to get unconditional love from their babies while 40% indicated that the baby's unconditional love was not he reason. Early parenthood might be perceived by some teenagers as an escape and a healing from childhood wounds. It might also be seen as an opportunity to receive family support from members of the family and/or to obtain emotional closeness

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not found at home. Panday et al (2009) concurs that such path may be chosen to correct negative childhood experience and giving life a sense of purpose and future direction.

Table 4.18b: I need the child support grant

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	2	2.3	40.0
	No	3	3.4	60.0
	Total	5	5.7	100.0
Missing	System	82	94.3	
Total		**87**	**100.0**	

Although it is widely acknowledged that teenagers fall pregnant in order to get the child support grant, only 40% of the respondents who reported being happy to be pregnant indicated child support grant as the reason for getting pregnant. Even though there is moral panic about the association between learner pregnancy and child support grant through media reports, the findings ascertain that child support grant does not have an impact on the trend of teenage pregnancy. The analysis concurs with Mikiwane and Ujo (2006) who revealed that there is no link between teenage pregnancy and child support grant.

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Table 4.18c: I want to strengthen my relationship with my boyfriend

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	4	4.6	80.0
	No	1	1.1	20.0
	Total	5	5.7	100.0
Missing	System	82	94.3	
Total		**87**	**100.0**	

The majority of the respondents who were happy to be pregnant indicated that they wanted to strengthen their relationship with their boyfriends. This is common among teenagers from broken families and getting pregnant might be seen as a means of escaping poverty. The finding correlates with Jewkes and Christofides (2008) and Harrison (2008) who found that if the baby is fathered by a man of some means, pregnancy would help to secure an attachment, simultaneously fulfilling expectations of love and romance and also economic security.

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Table 4.18d: My friends will acceptance me

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	2	2.3	40.0
	No	3	3.4	60.0
	Total	5	5.7	100.0
Missing	System	82	94.3	
Total		**87**	**100.0**	

40% of the respondents indicated acceptance by friend as the reason for falling pregnant and 60% showed that they were not seeking acceptance by friends. Teenagers are sensitive to peer pressure and they always want to behave like their peers and the need to belong is of great importance at this stage. If their friends have babies, they might feel left out and may want to have a baby of their in order to belong. Contrary to this belief, previous research indicate that while sexual activity is the norm and encouraged among friends, having an early pregnancy is regarded as poor female decorum and subject to severe stigma by family and friends (Chigona & Chetty, 2008; Zwang & Garrene, 2008; Hubbard et al, 2008; Panday et al, 2009; Khumalo, 20

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Table 4.18e: My family will be happy

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	1	1.1	20.0
	No	4	4.6	80.0
	Total	5	5.7	100.0
Missing	System	82	94.3	
Total		**87**	**100.0**	

An overwhelming majority 80% of the respondents showed that they were not pleasing their families were not pleased by the pregnancy. Only 20% who responded reported that their families were by the pregnancy. In African cultures a child is often welcomed and can be seen as a source of pride. Grand parents and mothers may influence their children to have babies to prove their fertility. The respondents did not share this notion. This is in line with Khumalo (2011)'s findings, who found that in SA, becoming pregnant teenager is an embarrassment that marks an end to childhood and education. Moreover, Chigona and Chetty (2008) and Runhare (2010) concurs that once they become pregnant, they may loose their childhood rights in the family as a punishment for bringing shame in the family.

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Table 4.18f: My community will accept me as a real woman

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent
Yes	3	3.4	60.0
No	2	2.3	40.0
Total	5	5.7	100.0
Missing System	82	94.3	
Total	**87**	**100.0**	

60% of the respondents who were happy to be pregnant indicted that they fell pregnant because they wanted to be accepted by their communities as real women while 40% did not indicate acceptance by the community as the reason for pregnancy. Having a baby while still young in black communities is traditional and part of the culture and it changes the girl's social status. Findings corroborate Jewkes and Christofides (2008)'s findings where it was concluded that child birth is traditionally regarded as an ultimate rite of passage to womanhood and thus alleviate the girl's status.

Table 4.19: Frequency distribution to establish whether the respondent's boyfriend is giving moral support

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	6	6.9	37.5
	No	10	11.5	62.5
	Total	16	18.4	100.0
Missing	System	71	81.6	
Total		**87**	**100.0**	

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Figure 4.19: Frequency distribution to establish whether the respondent's boyfriend is giving moral support

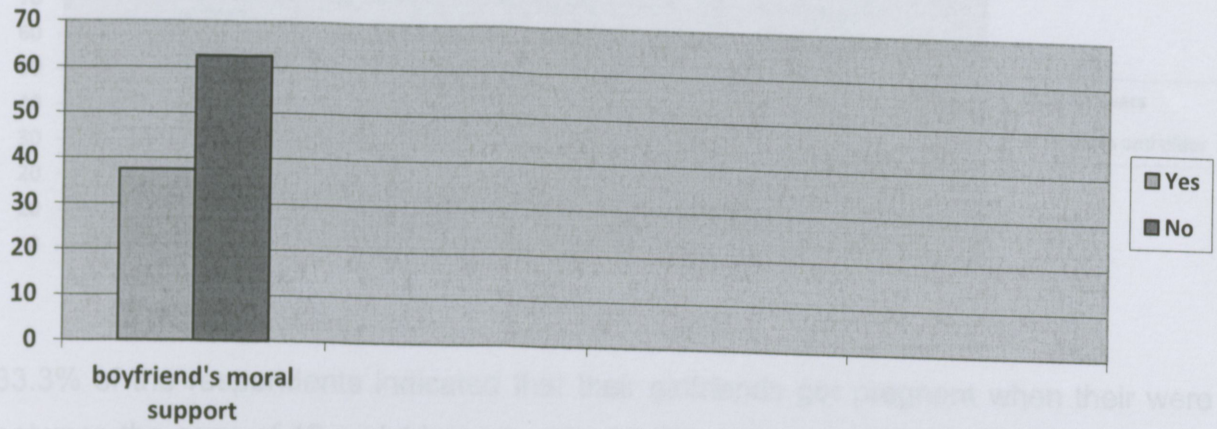


Table 4.19 showed an overwhelming majority 62.5% of the respondents were not getting support from their boyfriends and only 37.5 were getting moral support. It is common knowledge that boys at this stage are irresponsible, want to prove their sexual prowess and tend to be an outsider rather that being associated with the pregnancy. Stengel (2005)'s findings have challenged this myth. Stengel (2005) revealed that many teenage fathers were not only willing but eager to help their partner and child.

Table 4.20: Frequency distribution of the respondents' age when their girlfriends fell pregnant

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	13-14 years	2	2.3	33.3
	15 years and older	4	4.6	66.7
	Total	6	6.9	100.0
Missing	System	81	93.1	
Total		**87**	**100.0**	

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Figure 4.20: Frequency distribution of age when the girlfriend fell pregnant



33.3% of the respondents indicated that their girlfriends got pregnant when their were between the ages of 13 and 14 years while 66.7% of the respondents showed that they were 15 years and older when their girlfriends fell pregnant. For every teenage mother, there is a father. Although it has been argued that teenagers are impregnated by older men, most of the girls in school are impregnated by their school mates. It is a trend in schools for boys and girls to date and those who are not dating feel left out. This might lead to early sexual initiation which is more likely to be unprotected. This notion is supported by Erikson's theory. Erikson viewed adolescent as a time of turmoil, stress and feelings of vulnerability which may lead to risk taking behaviour.

Table 4.21: Frequency distribution to establish whether the respondent is happy about the pregnancy

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	3	3.4	50.0
	No	3	3.4	50.0
	Total	6	6.9	100.0
Missing	System	81	93.1	
Total		**87**	**100.0**	

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Figure 4.21: Frequency distribution to establish whether the respondent is happy about the pregnancy



Table 4.21. indicates that 50% of the respondents were happy that their girlfriends were pregnant and 50% of the respondents were not happy about their girlfriends' pregnancy. It is often believed that in Venda tradition, there is a strong desire for a boy to prove his manhood and boys are responsible for ensuring that a family name is secured. It is also a common belief that teenagers are often bewildered by the news of the coming baby and this might frighten them and make them run away from their responsibilities. Jewkes and Christofides (2008) also found that African men frequently view fathering as a matter of pride and evidence of masculinity. Furthermore, teenagers often report that their boyfriends forbid them to use contraceptives to get pregnant to prove but this does not mean that paternity would be accepted (Wood & Jewkes, 2006; Jewkes and Christofides, 2008).

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Tables 4.22a- 4.22f: Frequency distribution of girlfriend's pregnancy reasons

Figure 4.22: Frequency distribution of girlfriend's pregnancy reasons



Table 4.22a: My baby will love unconditionally

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	No	3	3.4	100.0
Missing	System	84	96.6	
Total		**87**	**100.0**	

All the respondents 100% indicated that the baby's unconditional love was not the reason for getting their girlfriends pregnant. What is evident form the above data is that teenage fathers do not get their girlfriends in order to close the gap of emotional closeness that was not received from home.

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Table 4.22b. I want the child support grant

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	1	1.1	33.3
	No	2	2.3	66.7
	Total	3	4.6	100.0
Missing	System	84	96.6	
Total		**87**	**100.0**	

33.3% of the respondents showed that they wanted the child support grant while 66.7 % indicated that they did not want the child support grant. Thus it seems as though young fathers are not interested in child support grant.

Table 4.22c: I want to strengthen my relationship with my girlfriend

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	1	1.1	33.3
		2	2.3	66.7
Missing	System	84	96.6	
Total		**87**	**100.0**	

The majority of the respondents indicated that they did not get their girlfriends pregnant in order to bond with their partners and only 33.3% showed that they wanted to strengthen their relationship with their girlfriends. What is evident from the above data is

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that the reason for the respondent to get his partner pregnant was not seeking love, attention or securing a relationship. I can thus assume that the reason for pregnancy was to prove their sexual prowess without thinking of the consequences. In line with these findings is Thorpe (2011)'s findings that boys are shaped by messages of men perceived as having no control over their desire and being virile as central to masculinity and the belief that women bodies are not their own. Furthermore, Erikson postulates that a young girl reflects a blunt ego image on the male partner and she does so as a passive recipient of information form the male.

Table 4.22d: My friends will accept me

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	2	2.3	66.7
	No	1	1.1	33.3
	Total	3	3.4	100.0
Missing	System	84	96.6	
Total		**87**	**100.0**	

The majority 66.7% of the respondent showed that they wanted to be accepted by their friends while 33.3% of the respondents indicated that acceptance by friends was not the reason for pregnancy. Adolescence is a time when conforming to a group is of vital importance. Kohlberg has found that early teens, teenagers are in what he calls level three of moral development. At this stage, a teenager seeks approval and conforms to peer and it is this process that put a teenager at risk for the unnatural occurrence of teenage pregnancy.

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Table 4. 22e: My family will be pleased

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	1	1.1	33.3
	No	2	2.3	66.7
	Total	3	3.4	100.0
Missing	System	84	96.6	
Total		**87**	**100.0**	

66% of the respondents indicated that the reason for pregnancy was not to please the family while 33.3% showed that they were trying to please the family. Although pregnancy is seen as carrying the family name, most parents do not want their children to be young fathers. They want their children to avoid pregnancy, have educational and future career aspirations in order to be regarded as respectable future citizens. Previous research has echoed the same views. Panday et al (2009) revealed that paternity is often denied to protect financial, educational and career opportunities.

Table 4.22f: My community will accept me as a real man

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	3	3.4	100.0
Missing	System	84	96.6	
Total		**87**	**100.0**	

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All the respondents 100% agreed that they wanted the community to recognise them as real men. Unsurprisingly, the results confirm what is believed in the Venda tradition. Having a baby in the community is mostly celebrated and encouraged and those who do not have babies are seen as less of a man. In line with this finding is Jewkes and Christofides who concur that child birth is regarded traditionally regarded as the ultimate rite to manhood and thus elevate the boy's status.

Table 4.23: Frequency distribution to establish whether the teenage father was giving his girlfriend moral support

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	1	1.1	25.0
	No	3	3.4	75.0
	Total	4	4.6	100.0
Missing	System	83	95.4	
Total		**87**	**100.0**	

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Figure 4.23: Frequency distribution to establish whether the teenage father was giving his girlfriend moral support



The majority of the respondents 75% showed that they were not giving their girlfriends moral support and only 25% of the respondents were supporting their girlfriends morally. It is not uncommon for South Africans men to neglect their paternal responsibilities. The results indicate that not all fathers want to be involved in their children's lives and not all fathers are proud to be fathers. Giving moral support means taking full responsibility of one's action which may come as obstacle that stood in their way of educational plans and dreams. Despite the negative indication of young fathers uninvolvement in their children's lives, it must be kept in mind that financial constrain and fear might drive away young fathers from taking the parental responsibilities. (Panday et al, 2009; Bhana and Swartz, 2009; Cronje, 2011) also found that teenage fathers expressed greater in the involvement of rearing their children.

In tables 4.18a-18f and 4.22a-22f above, too much data is missing. The design of the questionnaire allowed for only pregnant learners and male learners with pregnant girlfriends to give reasons for getting pregnant or getting their girlfriends pregnant, which led to high percentage values missing.

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Talbes 4.24a – 4.24f. Frequency distribution of pregnant learners' school behaviour

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	11	12.6	55.0
	No	9	10.3	45.0
	Total	20	23.0	100.0
Missing	System	67	77.0	
Total		**87**	**100.0**	

55% of pregnant learners indicated that they failed to attend school regularly while 45% of the respondents showed that they were able to attend school regularly. Pregnancy related illnesses such as morning sicknesses, fatigue, health checks through the doctors' appointments and at the local clinics, financial issues as well as attitudes towards education, not liking the educators and even transport issues surround the issue of irregular attendance. (Chigona and Chetty, 2008; Bhana et al, 2010; Matshotyana, 2010) found that pregnancy has significant barriers to attending school.

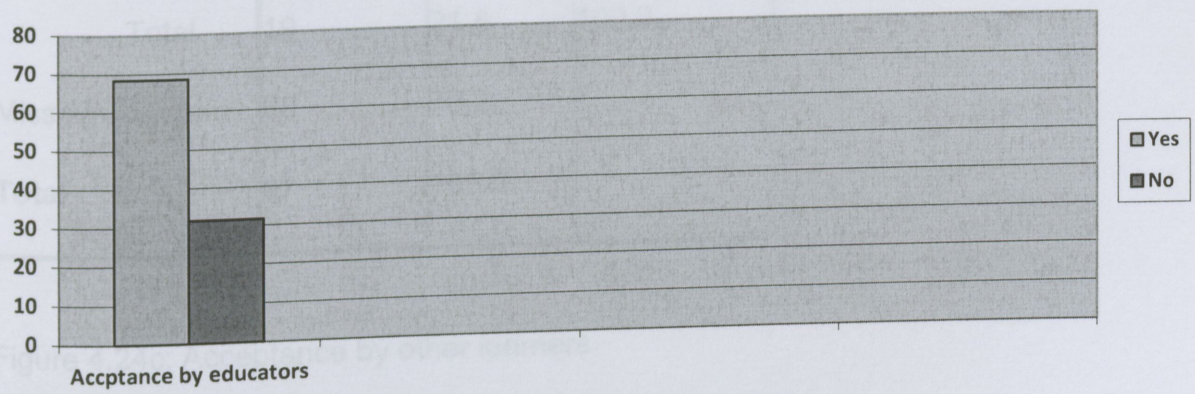
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Table 4.24b: My educators do not accept me

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	13	14.9	68.4
	No	6	6.9	31.6
	Total	19	21.8	100.0
Missing	System	68	78.2	
Total		**87**	**100.0**	

Figure 4.24b: Acceptance by educators



Unsurprisingly, the majority of the respondents 68.4% indicated that their educators did not accept them while 31.6% reported being accepted by their educators. This might be due to the fact that many educators associate teenage pregnancy as a social problem. Pregnant learners are regarded as examples of moral decay and a disruption to the process of learning and teaching. Their ability to cope with the dual burden of pregnancy and their school work has always been questioned. Allowing pregnant learners to remain in schools incited anger and frustrations as well as fear to their educators. What is particularly of concern is that other learners might be tempted to do

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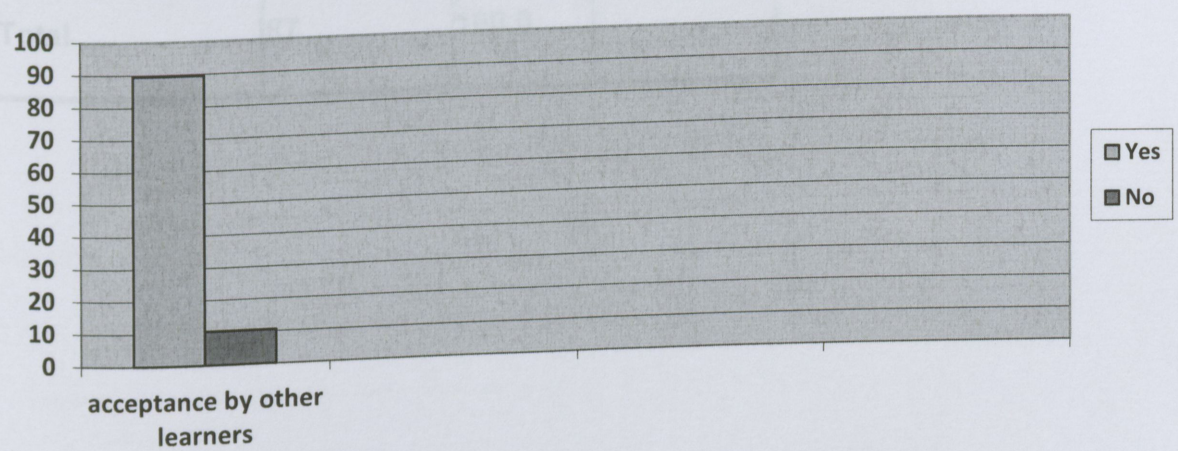
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the same. (Marcy, 2003; Chigona & Chetty, 2008' Abbas.2009. Bhana et al, 2010; Boulden, 2011) support this finding were it was found that most educators regard the presence on pregnant learners in their classrooms as a threat to the collective academic performance of the class and classroom harmony. Moreover, in line educators question the ability of pregnant learners to cope with school's academic demands (Bhana et al, 2010).

Table 4.24c: My fellow learners do not accept me

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	17	19.5	89.5
	No	2	2.3	10.5
	Total	19	21.8	100.0
Missing	System	68	78.2	
Total		**87**	**100.0**	

Figure 4.24c: Acceptance by other learners



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An overwhelming majority of the respondents 89.5% of the respondents indicated that they were not acceptable to other learners while 10.5% indicated that they accepted them. This is an indication that although sexual activity is the norm and encourage among friends, pregnancy is severely stigmatised. I can thus assume that non pregnant learners do not want to be associated with pregnant learners. It is common knowledge that pregnant learners are shunned and scorned in schools. (Chigona and Chetty, 2008; matshotyana, 2010; Bhana et al, 2010) support this finding where in they also found pregnant learners are often isolated by their peers and friends. Moreover, Boulden (2011) concurs that the sudden isolation from normal pursuits of their peers and daily contact with their friend group no doubt contributes to high rate of depression.

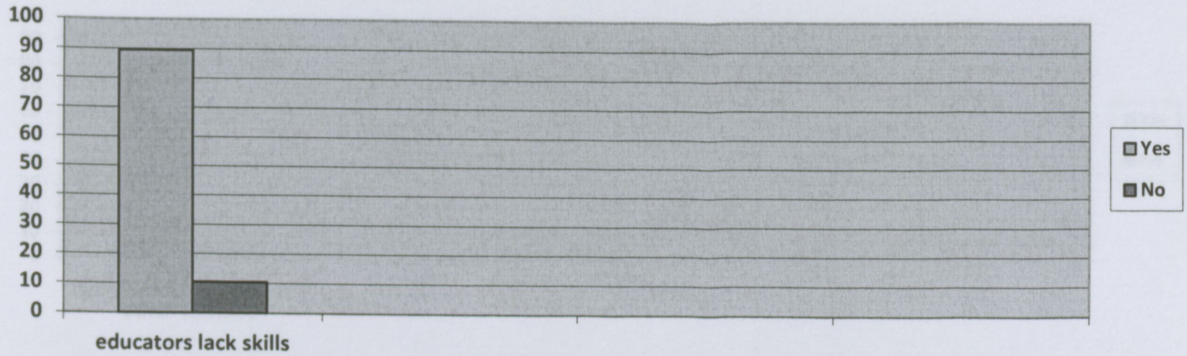
Table 4.24d: My educators lack skills

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	17	19.5	89.5
	No	2	2.3	10.5
	Total	19	21.8	100.0
Missing	System	68	78.2	
Total		**87**	**100.0**	

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Figure 4:24c: Educators lack skills



The majority of the respondents 85% indicated that their educators do not have the skills to assist pregnant learners and 10.5% showed that their educators are skilled to help them. While pregnant learners were given the right to attend school educators are faced with difficulties in addressing the needs and problems of pregnant learners. Surprisingly, the majority of the respondents indicated their full awareness of unskilled educators as related to their needs. Chigona and Chetty (2007) and Bhana et al (2010) support this finding, they found that educators do not how to handle pregnant learners and their situation at school.

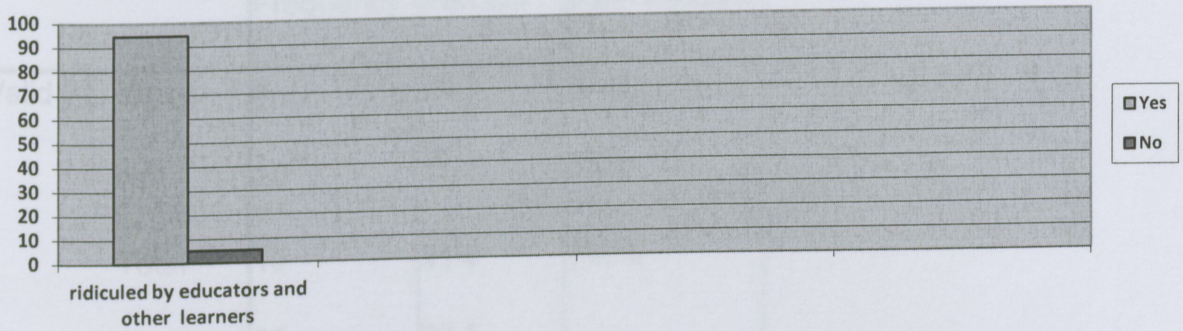
Table 4.24e: I am ridiculed by my educators and other learners

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	18	20.7	94.7
	No	1	1.1	5.3
	Total	19	21.8	100.0
Missing	System	68	78.2	
Total		**87**	**100.0**	

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Figure 4.24c: Ridiculed by educators and other learners



The results show that an overwhelming majority 94.7% of the respondents indicated that they were ridiculed by other learners and their educators and only 5.3% of the respondents showed that their school mates and educators do not ridicule them. It is not uncommon for pregnant learners to feel that they are not understood. On the other hand, educators might feel overwhelmed by their inability to deal with the extra burden of dealing with pregnant added to their work load. This might lead educators to resort in ridiculing and embarrassing pregnant learners in front of other learners. Other learners, especially male learners would bully and mock pregnant learners, they might also make them feel unwelcome and this may prevent pregnant from participating in class and lag behind in their school work. Chigona and Chetty (2007), also echoed that boys and girls abuse pregnant learners making their participation in class seem unwelcomed and peer pressures are believed to be more common that support.

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Table 4.24f: The whole school environment does not accept me

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	9	10.3	47.4
	No	10	11.5	52.6
	Total	19	21.8	100.0
Missing	System	68	78.2	
Total		**87**	**100.0**	

Figure 4.24f: unwelcoming school environment



47.4% of the respondents showed that the school environment was unwelcoming while the majority of the respondents 52.6% indicated that the school environment was welcoming. It is surprising though, to find the majority of the respondents indicating the school environment welcomed them even though most of the schools are pregnant learners unfriendly. This is due to the fact that there are no farcicalities that can be used to enhance the achievement of pregnant learners. Lack of programmes to support pregnant learners is also another attribute of unwelcoming environment. Pregnant learners need special attention and mostly educators complain that they have a lot of responsibilities and demands at work and that they were not trained to deal with the

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social issues of learners. Matshotyana (2010) ands Bhana et al (2010) concur that educators indicated that there absence of structures of support within the school.

Table 4.25. I feel alone

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	13	14.9	68.4
	No	6	6.9	31.6
	Total	19	21.8	100.0
Missing	System	68	78.2	
Total		**87**	**100.0**	

Majority of the respondents 68, 4% indicated that they were felt alone while at school and 31.6% indicated that they were not feeling alone. The feelings of loneliness might be attributed to the severe stigma attached to teenage pregnancy. Chigona and Chetty (2007) also found that pregnant were not happy at school and they feel alone, usually alienated by their fellow learners and sometimes by their educators.

Table 4.26. I feel frustrated

		Frequency	percent	Valid percent
Valid	Yes	13	14.9	68.4
	No	6	6.9	31.6
	Total	19	21.8	100.0
Missing	System	68	78.2	
Total		87	100.0	

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68.4% of the respondents felt frustrated by their situation while 31.6% indicated that they were not frustrated. Frustrations might be attributed by pressures that often face pregnant learners. Pressures such as financial, family and educational are often overwhelming and pregnant learners might find it too much to handle. I assume thus, they may miss too much school and their level grades might also negatively be affected as more school work is done during their absence. Panday et al (2009) support the se findings where it was found that pregnant learners suffer strong emotional response.

Figure 4.27 I feel depressed

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	15	17.2	78.9
	No	4	4.6	21.1
	Total	19	21.8	100.0
Missing	System	68	78.2	
Total		**87**	**100.0**	

An overwhelming majority of the respondents 78.9% indicated that they were depressed while only 21.1% of pregnant respondents indicated that they were not depressed. I assume the depression of pregnant learners might be attributed to shock, feeling of guilt, fear, embarrassment and shame on discovering the pregnancy. One cannot concentrate when one is not in the right state of mind. Marcy (2000) and Cronje (2011) also cited embarrassment, fear of own parents and girls' parents as the contributing factors of missing classes.

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Table 4.28: I lack confidence in myself

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	18	20.7	94.7
	No	1	1.1	5.3
	Total	19	21.8	100.0
Missing	System	68	78.2	
Total		**87**	**100.0**	

The majority of the respondents 94.7% showed they lack confidence in themselves while only 5.3% of the respondents indicated that they have confidence in themselves. Lack of confidence is an attitudinal barrier that can prevent pregnant learners from participation for fear of being laughed at, fear of failure fear of being not able to keep up with the rest of the class. If pregnant learners have been subjected to a negative experience, they may lack confidence and motivation to learn.

Table 4.29: I am ashamed of my situation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	13	14.9	68.4	68.4
	No	6	6.9	31.6	100.0
	Total	19	21.8	100.0	
Missing	System	68	78.2		
Total		87	100.0		

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68.4% of pregnant respondents indicated that they were ashamed of their pregnancy and 31.6 were not ashamed. Perception arising from moral and cultural concern might overwhelm a teenage pregnant learner to feelings of embarrassment. Pregnant learner might feel embarrassed by the shame she has brought to her family and the community as a hole. Khumalo (2011) support this notion that teenage pregnancy is seen as a source of shame to the community where few people were willing to speak about the problem.

4.30: The effects of pregnancy on scholastic performance

This section posed the following question: "For each of the following statements regarding your scholastic performance, mark the appropriate box ". The scholastic performance was measured on a dichotomous response format (two item scale) where the respondents were asked to tick a "yes or No" on the scholastic performance statements. There are significant differences regarding the performance of pregnant and non pregnant learners and the performance of male learners whose girlfriends were pregnant and the male learners whose girlfriends were not pregnant/ those who do not have girlfriends.

Table 4.30a- 4.30h: Cross tabulations: pregnant and non pregnant learners within:

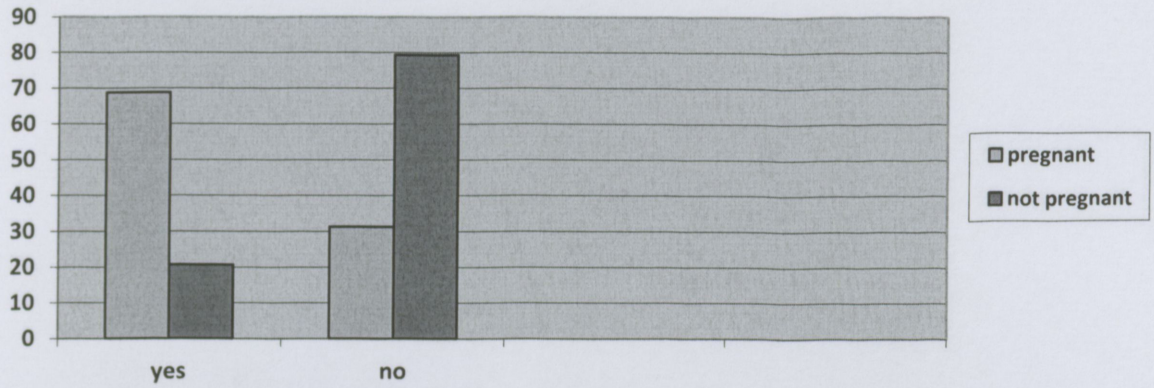
Table 4.30a: 1 I fail to pay attention in class

	Yes	No	Total
Pregnant learner	11 68.8%	5 31.2%	16 100%
Non pregnant learner	6 20.7%	23 79.3%	29 100%

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Figure 4.30a: 1 I fail to pay attention in class



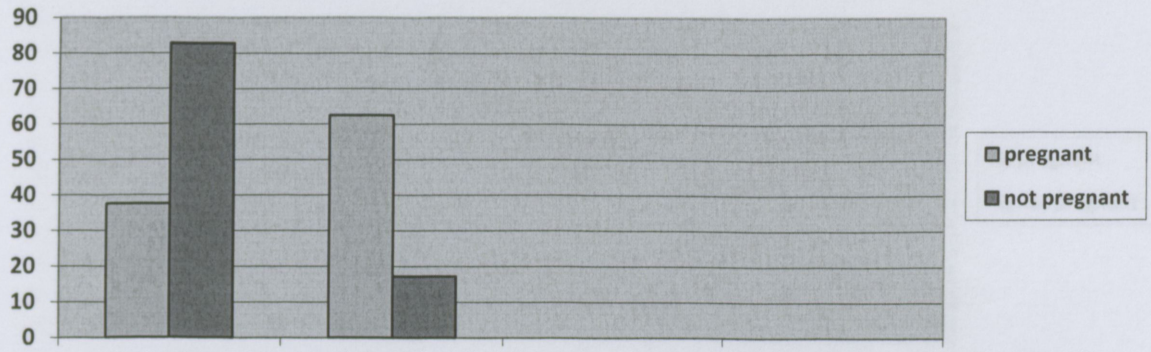
Cross-tabulations revealed that there is a significant difference between the pregnant and non-pregnant learners rating of failing to pay attention in class (Chi-Square=10.132; p=.002; p<0.05). As indicated in figure 4.3.25 above the majority 68.8% of pregnant learners indicated that they fail to pay attention in class as opposed to 20.7% of non pregnant learners. Panday et al (2009) concluded that the realisation of an early pregnancy may put too much stress on the teenage girl. Increased stress from fear of parents, embarrassment, and guilt may distract a pregnant learner from concentrating in class.

Table 4.30b: I do my homework with ease

	Yes	No	Total
Pregnant learner	6 37.5%	10 62.5%	16 100%
Non pregnant learner	24 82.8%	5 17.2%	29 100%

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Figure 4.30b: I do my homework with ease



The above analysis shows that pregnant learners experience difficulties in doing their homework as compared to non pregnant learners. There is a significant difference in the learners rating of this item Chi-Square=9.504; p-.003; p<.05). Figure 4.35. the relationship of being pregnant and problems in completing homework assignments. Among pregnant learners, the expected likelihood of experiencing difficulties in doing their home was significant, 62.5% pregnant learners as opposed to 17.2% of non pregnant learners. Chigona and Chetty (2008) also found that pregnant learners lag behind in their school work.

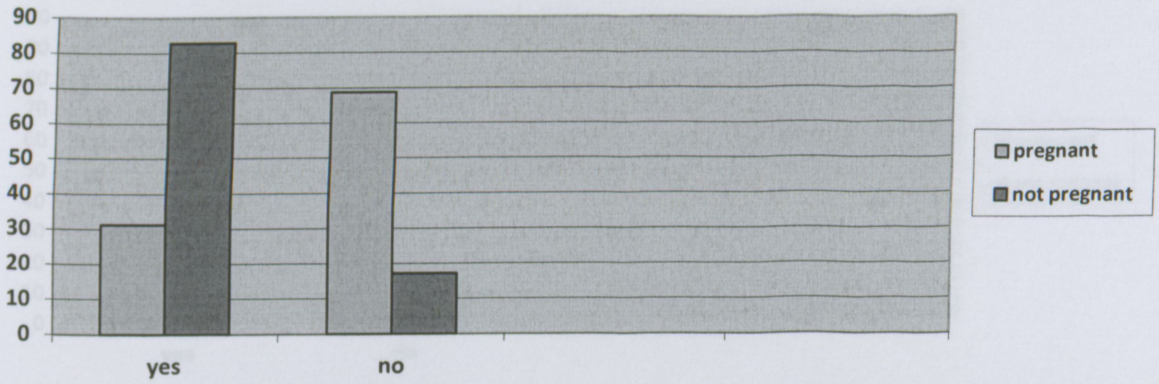
Table 4.30c: I finish my assignments on time

	Yes	No	Total
Pregnant learner	5 31.3%	11 68.8%	18 100%
Non pregnant learner	24 82.2%	5 17.2%	29 100%

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Fig 4.30c: I finish my assignments on time



Difficulties with finishing assignment on time were associated with pregnant learners. The significant difference might provide evidence that pregnant girls are less connected to school unlike their non pregnant peers. The vast majority of pregnant learners were significantly having problems finishing their assignments than non pregnant learners (Chi-square=11.939; p=.001; p<.005). The results echoed those from past research were it was found that teen pregnancy compromised educational outcomes among pregnant learners (Chigona and Chetty, 2008; Panday et al. 2009; Bhana et al, 2010).

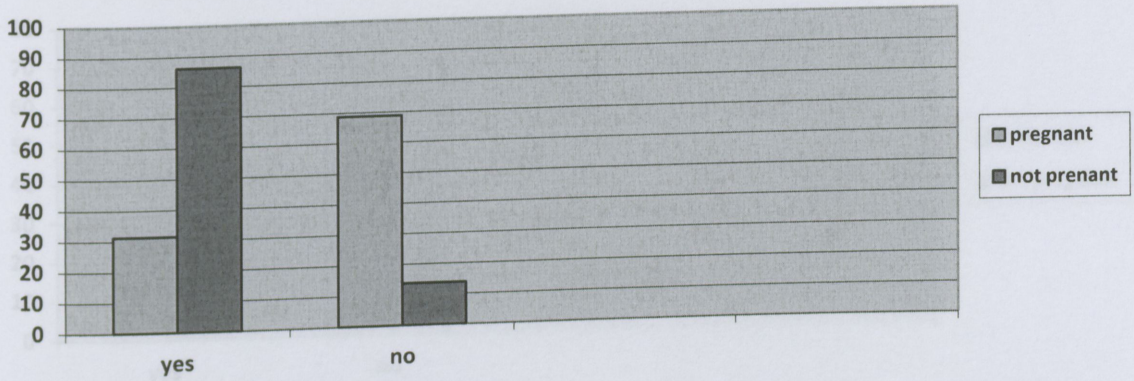
Table 4.30d: I enjoy group work

	Yes	no	Total
Pregnant learner	5 31.3%	11 68.8%	16 100%
Non pregnant learner	25 86.2%	4 13.8%	20 100%

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Figure 4.30d: I enjoy group work



Compared with non pregnant learners, pregnant learners were significantly lower on percentage in their preference of participating in group work (Chi-Square=14.014; p=.000; p<.005). 31.3% of pregnant learners indicated having problems in group work compared with 86.2% of non pregnant learners. Matshotyana (2010) and Chigona and Chetty (2009) pregnant and mothering teens were afraid to take part in class discussions for fear of being ridiculed and laughed at especially by male learners and some educators.

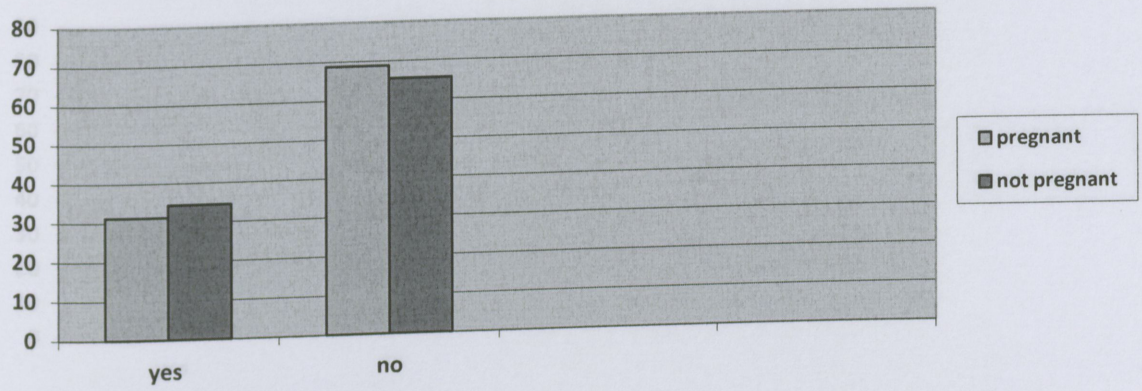
Table 4.30e: I prefer doing individual work

	Yes	No	Total
Pregnant learner	5 31.3%	11 68.8%	16 100%
Non pregnant learner	10 34.5%	19 65.5%	29 100%

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Figure4.30e: I prefer doing individual work



In response to the item "I prefer doing individual work", there was no significant difference among pregnant and non pregnant learners (Chi-Square=.048; p=.548; p>.005). As clearly indicated in figure 4.3.24.5, 31.3% of pregnant learners showed preference in doing individual work as compared to 34.% of non pregnant learners. The results are surprising as previous research indicates that pregnant learners are overwhelmed by feelings of embarrassment, loneliness and guilt (Chigona & Chetty, 2008; Panday et al, 2009; Bhana, et al. 2010; Matshotyana, 2010). Given this in mind, one would have assumed that more pregnant learners would have preferred working alone than in groups.

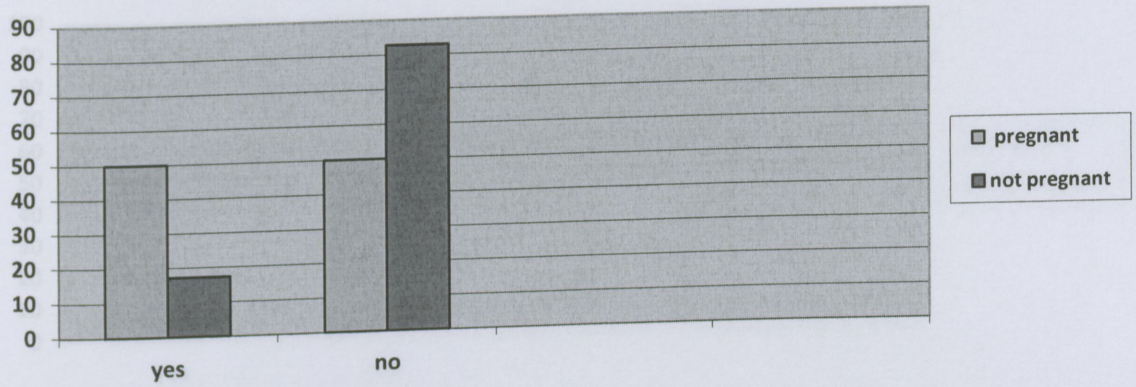
Table 4.30f: I am failing my tests

	Yes	No	Total
Pregnant learner	8 50%	8 50%	16 100%
Non pregnant learner	5 17.2%	24 82.8%	29 100%

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Figure 4.30f: I am failing my tests



The differences in "I am failing my tests" of pregnant learners, 50% as compared to that of non pregnant learners 17.2% are significant (Chi-Square=5.386; p=.025; p)

Table 4.30g: My level scores have dropped

	Yes	No	Total
Pregnant learner	9 56.3%	7 43.8%	16 100%
Non pregnant learner	2 6.9%	27 93.1%	29 100%

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Figure 4.30g: My level scores have dropped

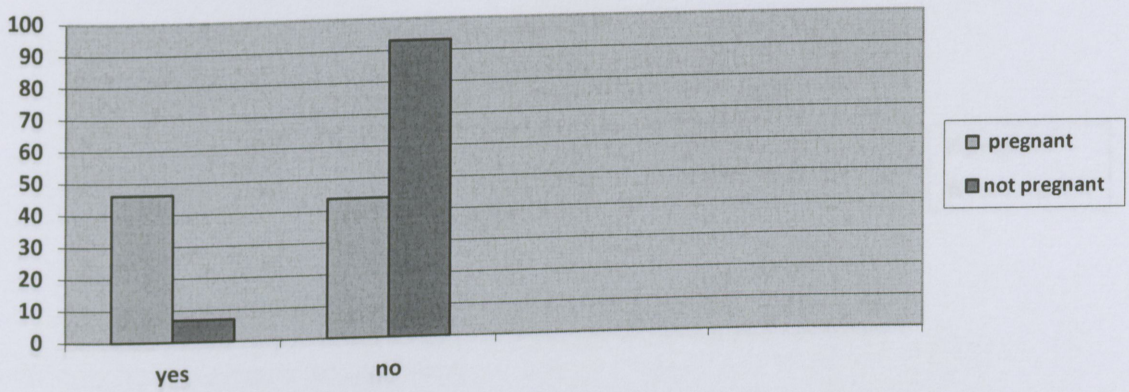


Figure 4.30g. shows that non pregnant learners were significantly less likely to indicate that their level scores have dropped than pregnant learners (Chi-Square=13.599; p= .ooo; p<.005). A vast majority of non pregnant learners 93.1% indicated their level scores were not affected compared to 43.8% of pregnant learners. Previous research showed that pregnant learners often miss classes and their school attendance is irregular (Marcy, 2003; Chigona & Chetty.2008, Panday et al, 2009; Runhare, 2010; Matshotyana, 2010), this might be the attribute to the dropping of their level scores.

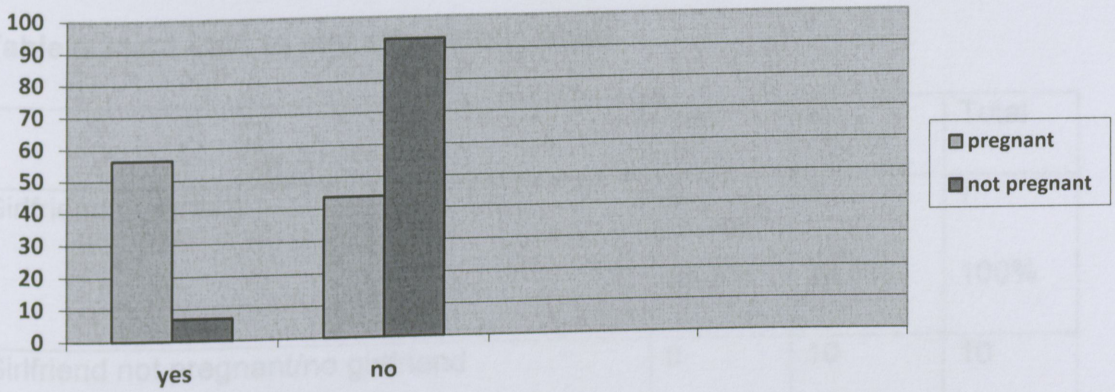
Table 4.30h: my overall school performance has deteriorated

	Yes	No	Total
Pregnant learner	11 68.8%	5 31.3%	16 100%
Non pregnant learner	6 20.7%	23 79.3%	29 100%

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Figure 4.30h: My overall school performance has deteriorated



A vast majority 68.8% of pregnant learners indicated that their overall school performance have dropped compared to 20.7 % of non pregnant learners. There is a significant difference of the overall school performance of pregnant learners compared to the overall performance of non pregnant learners. The two variables differ significantly (Chi-Square=10.132; p=.003; p<.005). This association between pregnancy and the deterioration of overall school may be the results of many disruptions of pregnant learners' schooling. Chigona and Chetty (2008) concur that educators were not willing to go through the lessons that the girls had missed was assumed that some educators considered pregnant and teen mothers' as none of their concern.

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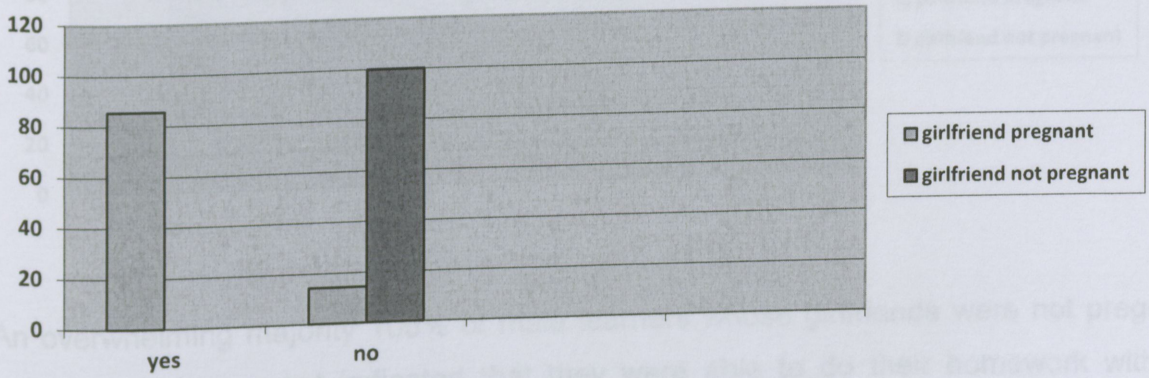
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Tables 4.31a-31h. crosstabulations: male learners with pregnant girlfriends and male learner with non pregnant/no girlfriends within:

Table 4.31a:1 I fail to pay attention in class

	Yes	No	Total
Girlfriend pregnant	6 85.7%	1 14.3%	7 100%
Girlfriend not pregnant/no girlfriend	0 0%	10 100%	10 100%

Figure 4.31a: I fail to pay attention in class



The difference in lack of attention in class is significantly high in male learners with pregnant girlfriend 85.7% as compared to 0% of male learners with a non pregnant girlfriend/no girlfriend (Chi-Square=13.247; p=.001; p<'005). Previous research concluded that, much like young mother, young fathers are overwhelmed by feelings of guilt, fear of own parents and the girl's parents, embarrassment and guilt and shame which may lead to sever depression (Panday et al, 2009; Bhana et al, 2010; Cronje, 2011).

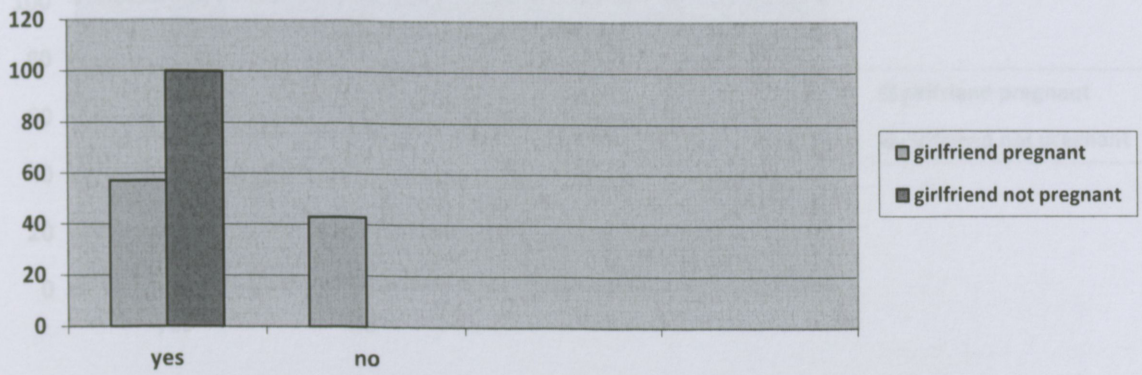
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Table 4.31b: I do my homework with ease

	Yes	No	Total
Girlfriend pregnant	4 57.1%	3 42.9%	7 100%
Girlfriend not pregnant/no girlfriend	10 100%	0 0%	10 100%

Figure 4.31b: I do my homework with ease



An overwhelming majority 100% of male learners whose girlfriends were not pregnant indicated that pregnant indicated that they were able to do their homework with no difficulties compared to 57% of male learners whose girlfriend were pregnant. The results show a significant differenace (Chi=Square=5.204).

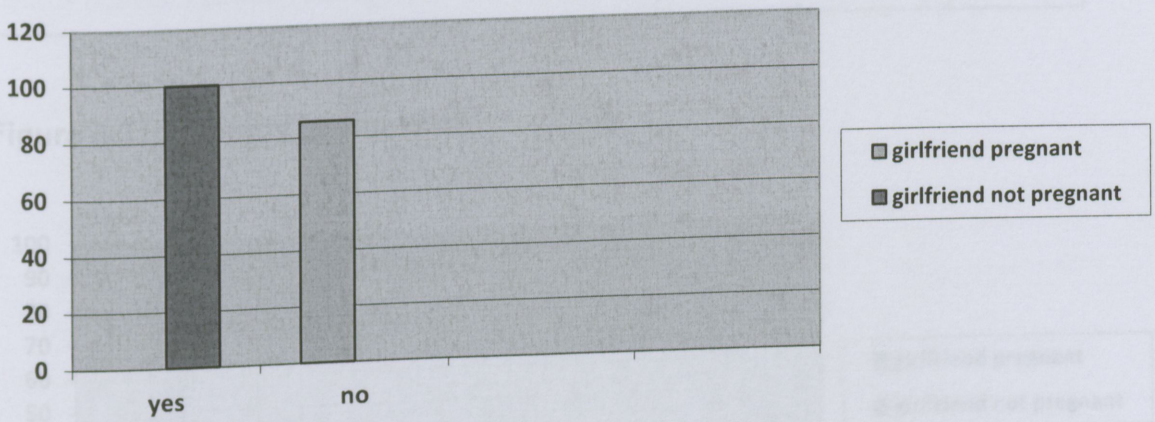
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Table 4.31c: I finish my assignments on time

	Yes	No	Total
Girlfriend pregnant	1 14.3%	6 85.7%	1 100%
Girlfriend not pregnant/no girlfriend	10	0	100%

Figure 4.31c: I finish my assignments on time



A vast majority 85.7% of males with pregnant learners showed that they were unable to finish their assignments on time compared to 0% of males with non pregnant/no girlfriends. Male learners with pregnant girlfriends differ significantly on the item "I finish my assignments on time" (Chi-Square=13.427; p=001; p<.005). The results indicate that having a pregnant girlfriend while still in school is associated with school work problems. This might be the results of the burden a young father is supposed to carry. In the Venda culture, males are the bead winners and sole providers of the family. The fact that a young father is unable to provide for his family might be overwhelmingly stressful. Marcy (2003) and Cronje (2011) support these findings, they echoed that young fathers might be overwhelmed by feelings of guilt, guilt of not being able to provide financial as

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well as emotional support. Being unable to support the child financially might be a barrier to parental involvement.

Table 4.31d: I enjoy group work

	Yes	No	Total
Girlfriend pregnant	1 14.3%	6 85.7%	7 100%
Girlfriend not pregnant/no girlfriend	990%	1 10%	10 100%

Figure 4.31d: I enjoy group work



Compared with male learners of non pregnant girlfriends, male learners with pregnant learners were significantly lower on percentage in their preference of participating in group work (Chi-Square=9.746; p =.004; p <.005). Figure 4.46. above indicate an overwhelming majority 85.7% of males with pregnant girlfriends showed they did not enjoy group work as compared to only 10% male learners with non pregnant girlfriends/no girlfriends. Much like female pregnant learners, I assume male learners with pregnant girlfriends are afraid of being ridiculed by fellow learners and educators.

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Table 4.31e: I prefer doing individual work

	Yes	No	Total
Girlfriend pregnant	8 100%	0 0%	8 100%
Girlfriend not pregnant/no girlfriend	1 10%	9 90%	10 100%

Figure 4.31e: I prefer doing individual work

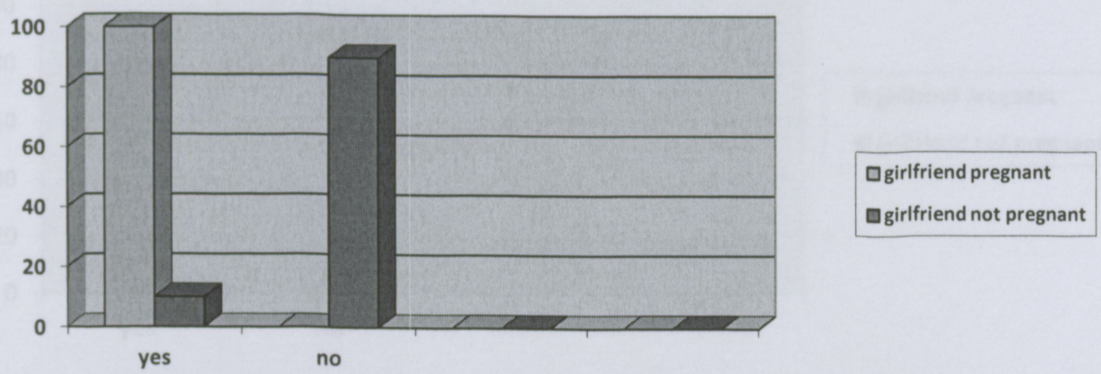


Figure 4.31e. shows that male learners with non pregnant girlfriends were significantly less likely to indicate that they prefer doing individual work than male learners with pregnant learners .There is a significant difference (Chi-Square=14.000; p= .000; p<.005) between the two variables. A vast majority of males learners with non pregnant girlfriends/no girlfriend 90% compared to 0% of male learners with pregnant learners showed no interest in individual work, that is. Although little has been researched on young fathers nationally and internationally, male learners with pregnant girlfriends may prefer doing individual work because of the severe stigma attached to teenage pregnancy.

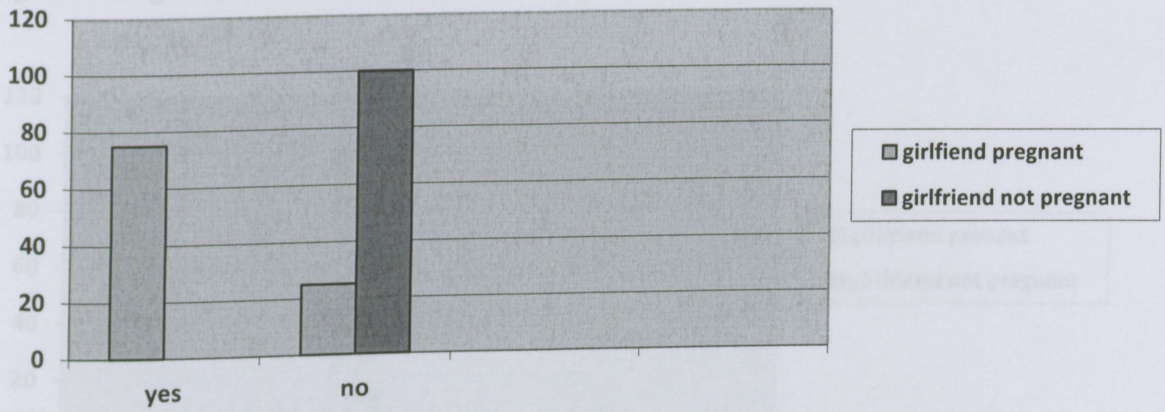
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Table 4.31f: I am failing my tests

	Yes	No	Total
Girlfriend pregnant	6 75.0%	2 25.0%	8 100%
Girlfriend not pregnant/no girlfriend			

Figure 4.31f: I am failing my tests



The differences in "I am failing my tests" of male learners with pregnant girlfriends, 75.0% as compared to that of male learners with non pregnant/no girlfriends 0% are significantly high (Chi-Square=11.250; p=.002; p<.005). This might serve as an indicator that there is a relation between having a pregnancy girlfriend and failing tests.

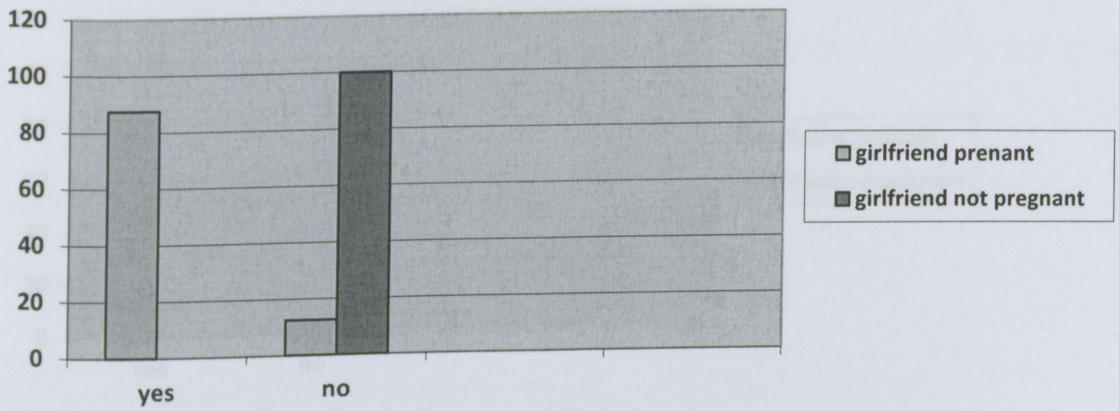
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Table 4.31g: my level scores have dropped

	Yes	No	Total
Girlfriend pregnant	7 87.5%	1 12.5%	8 100%
Girlfriend not pregnant/no girlfriend	0 0%	10 100%	10 100%

Figure 4.31g: my level scores have dropped



In response to the item "My level score have dropped", there is a significant difference among male learners with pregnant girlfriends and male learners with non pregnant/no girlfriends (Chi-Square=.14.318; p=.000; p<.005). As clearly indicated in figure 4.3.25.7, 87.5% of male learners with pregnant girlfriend showed that their level scores have dropped.

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Table 4.31h: my overall performance has deteriorated

	Yes	No	Total
Girlfriend pregnant	7 87.5%	1 12.5%	8 100%
Girlfriend not pregnant/no girlfriend	0 0%	10 100%	10 100%

Figure 4.31h: my overall performance has deteriorated

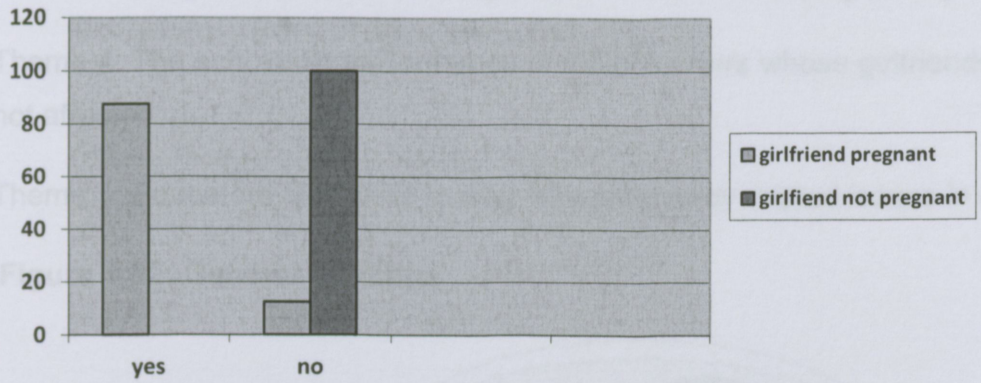


Figure 4.50: shows that male learners with non pregnant girlfriends were significantly less likely to indicate that their level scores have dropped than male learners with pregnant girlfriends (Chi-Square=14.318; p= .000; p<.005). A vast majority of non pregnant learners

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4.4. SECTION B: QUALITATIVE DATA

Qualitative data consists of words and observations, not numbers. As with all data analysis and interpretation are required to bring order and understanding. The analysis in this study looked at how the focus group responded to each of the open-ended questions. I organized data by question to look across all the participants and their answers in order to identify consistencies and differences.

4.4.1: Main themes from the data

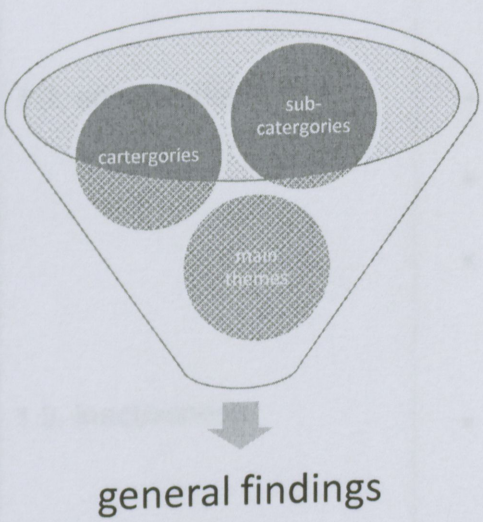
Theme 1: Scholastic performance of pregnant learners deteriorates.Theme 2: pregnant learners scholastically perform poorly as compared to non-pregnant learners

Theme 3: Pregnant learners face signified barriers when trying to stay in school.

Theme 4: The scholastic performance of male learners whose girlfriends are pregnant is not affected

Theme 5: Educators lack skills to deal with pregnancy related issues in schools

Figure 4.32: General Findings



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Figure 4.32, indicates how meaning was brought to the words before identifying themes or patterns i.e. ideas, concepts, behaviours, terminology or phrases used. Meaning was also brought to words before they were organized into coherent catergories. As data was catergorised, other themes were identified that served as sub-catergories. I continued to catergorised until I have identified all relevant and main themes.

4.33: Main themes, categories and subcategories are presented on the following table.

Main Themes	Categories	Subcategories
Theme 1: Scholastic performance of pregnant learners deteriorates	1.1. concentration	• Frustration • Stress and trauma • depression • Inattentiveness
	1.2. absenteeism	• Health check • Illnesses • Feelings of shame
	1.3. inactiveness	• Feelings of inadequacy • Fatigue

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	1.4. cohabitation	• Morning sicknesses • Dual responsibility • Confusion
Theme 2: Pregnant learners Perform poorly as compared to non-pregnant learners.	2.1. active 2.2. concentrate 2.3 regular school attendance.	• self-confident • assertive • certain about their future plans • motivated • focused • not stressed • not intimidated • free from pregnancy related diseases • tardiness
Theme 3: Pregnant learners face signified barriers when trying to finish their education	3.1. isolation and stigmatisation	• Loss of friends • Peer rejection • Disowned by parents • Seen as bad

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	3.2. name calling	example by their educators. • Labeled as ill-disciplined • Examples of moral decay and lack of values in society. • source of shame to their parents • A source of shame to the society and their culture
Theme 4: Scholastic performance of male learners whose girlfriends are pregnant is not affected	4.1. free	• Not directly affected • Little or no consequences • No change physically
Theme 5: Educators' lack of pregnancy management skills impact negatively on the scholastic performance of pregnant learners.	5.1. Irrelevant skills to learner pregnancy management.	• Do not know what is expected of them • Not sure if they would be able to help if a pregnant earner gets sick • Teaching both

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		pregnant and non-pregnant learners in class difficult
	5.2. No educational support to meet their needs.	• Inflexible learning environment • Inflexible time tabling and curriculum pathways • Extra classes impossible • Inflexible educators • No facilities conducive to teaching and learning.

4.4.2.1. THEME 1: Scholastic performance of pregnant learners deteriorates:

From the discussions with the focus group, underachievement of the scholastic performance of pregnant learners was the main theme. All the participants expressed that pregnant learners were not performing well. The scholastic performance of pregnant was said to have deteriorated as compared to their performance before they were pregnant. Some of the participants' state:

Participant 4: "Comparing their performance before and after, the overall performance decreases"

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Participant 6: *"Pregnant learners are generally not performing well, more especially those who are experiencing it for the first time, It... (pause) seems as though they are frustrated"*

Past research supports this finding. Chigona and Chetty (2008) concluded that teenage pregnancy as one of the major hindrances to educational success of a girl child. Aras et al (2007), found that lower academic success and educational level were associated with pregnancy.

The deterioration of pregnant learners' scholastic perfomance emerged from the following categories: lack of concentration, absenteeism, and inactiveness. These categories emerged from subcategories as shown on table 4.1 above.

- Lack of concentration

When a learner becomes pregnant, there is lack of concentration. Their ability to concentrate is impeded by frustrations, stress (caused by lack of support from the father of the child, parents and the community) and negative feelings making it more difficult to learn and succeed scholastically. It is common knowledge that one cannot learn if one is not in the right state of mind. A frustrated learner can be easily discouraged to continue with whatever task she is involved with because she might feel that it is stressful trying to concentrate on school work while pregnancy itself is the source of frustration and stress. More so, pregnant learners might not want to do their assignments and homework because they are not focused since they are not on the right state of mind.

Increased stress of pregnant learners can cause pregnant learners to behave in a manner that can negatively affect their scholastic performance abilities. Constant worry about their damaged career plans, trying fruitlessly to come up with solutions to their problem self-blame and regrets. In their process of trying to understand their situation, pregnant learners are distracted from their school work.

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This is in line with previous research, (Basch, 2010) found that if their ability to concentrate is distracted by negative feelings, it was more difficult for them to learn and succeed in school.

- Absenteeism

The relationship between classroom absenteeism and the scholastic success has been well documented. All Participants in this study cited that school absenteeism was rife in pregnant learners and that it posed problems in their scholastic performance. The scholastic performance gap between pregnant and non-pregnant was the result of irregular attendants in pregnant learners. Pregnant learners often absent themselves from school for health check ups in clinics. Sometimes they missed school because of ill-health as their body is constantly changing. Learners who missed class on a given day lagged behind in their school work. This study revealed that those who were always present in class outperformed pregnant learners who were constantly absent from schools in their tests.

Participant 6: *"There are differences in scholastic performance since those who are pregnant will often… absent themselves from school, those who are not pregnant are always at school and are always being taught so they perform well."*

Participant 5: *"Pregnant learners frequently absent themselves form schools because they are embarrassed ….they may be simply lazy or tired or depressed …may also suffer illnesses related to pregnancy."*

This is also supported by previous research, Yahaya et al (2009) concluded that students who were absent from class significantly performed lower on their tests. According to Yahaya et al (2009), students who attend class regularly benefited from learning activities designed to facilitate their acquisition of knowledge and that excessive absence from class results in poor academic performance. Weideman et al (2007) also found teenage pregnancy was found to be one of the reasons for

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absenteeism. Marcy (2003) also found that pregnant learners miss too much school because of swollen feet, tiredness, depression, embarrassment, the school not meeting their needs and their grades were slipping.

- Inactiveness.

Learners who are pregnant are mostly not active which has a bad effect to their classroom performance. This was mostly shown during classroom participation and during tests in class. Pregnant learners slept in classroom, lose concentration and as a result, no effective grasping of knowledge and learning is impeded. Feeling of inadequacy and feeling overly upset might hinder the participation of pregnant learners in class which might have an adverse impact on their scholastic performance. Pregnant learners were unresponsive during class discussion and were said to be shy and were always unable to ask questions for fear of attracting attention from other learners.

Participant 2: *"Before they become pregnant, they were active and they participated in class, now that they are pregnant, they are inactive and shy."* This was echoed by one of the participants.

Participant 3: *"once they become pregnant, they become lazy and passive and not active in class…no asking questions and seem upset."*

Basch (2010) also found that if pregnant learners cannot focus attention and succeed socially, and that it is unlikely to succeed academically. Marcy (2003) is in line with the findings. Pregnant learners were cited as often overwhelmed once they become pregnant and find pregnancy too much to handle and it affected their attendance.

- Cohabitation

When a pregnant girl moves in with her partner while still at school, she is faced with a dual responsibility, one of a live-in partner and of being a learner. A girl in a cohabitating relationship might find adjustment to new lifestyle and /or the realization that the boyfriend is not dedicated in maintaining their relationship may be an overwhelming experience to a pregnant learners. Financial strain might also be another debilitating

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factor that might add to the hoes of a teenage making it impossible for her to concentrate on her school work.

Participant 2: *"The girl moves in with the boyfriend and…now they live as husband and wife. The girl now has a dual duty that of a learner and performing her duties as a wife and this makes her school work suffer. Homework is no longer done properly and she is now failing her tests and may end up dropping out of school."*

Molllborn (2010) also found that cohabiting was typically a disadvantage for teenage parents and was associated with elevated rates of school drop outs. Matshotyana (2010) have similar findings, pregnant learners needed to cope with the new tasks related with parenting and studying at the same time and the financial difficulties they experienced is a great concern. The demands impact on the learner to fully engage on her school work and are likely to have less or no time for her study, miss classes and might not finish her assignments on time.

4.4.4.2. Theme 2: pregnant learners scholastically perform poorly as compared to non-pregnant learners

Pregnant learners experience more feelings of guilt about their sexual activities than those teenagers who are sexually active but no pregnant. They are more impulsive and anxious and have more emotional problems. As compared to pregnant learners, non-pregnant learners were said to be performing far much ahead scholastically. Pregnancy is a learning disability, thus being pregnant can cause a learner much emotional turmoil which is detrimental to learning.

- Non pregnant learners are active

Compared with pregnant learners, non-pregnant learners were found to be active, have less worry and actively take part in the learning process. They have self confidence while pregnant learners suffer from lack of confidence. Lack of confidence is an attitudinal barrier that can make a pregnant learner nervous about going to school, fear of being laughed at, fear of failure and fear of not being able to keep up with the rest of

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the class. Non pregnant learners are motivated. Since non pregnant learners are not worried about the uncertainty of their future they are sure of their future plans and they know what they want in life, Non pregnant learners unlike pregnant learners see the benefits of learning.

Participant 2: *"Non pregnant learners are much active, have less worry, participate in class, have future plans and are not intimidated unlike pregnant earners."*

Participant 5: *"pregnant learners looked as though ....err...they are overwhelmed by guilt, anxiety and suffer from emotional turmoil within while non pregnant learners seemed to be less worried even though they may be sexually active...more so their guilt maybe the cause in their academic failure"*

- Regular school attendance

Pregnancy can be difficult on its own and being in school while pregnant raises major obstacles for a girl child as they strive to cope with their pregnancies and a load of school work. Pregnancy may also create a state of confusion between being an adult and a teenager. Continuous absenteeism which results in missing classes can therefore make them miss the learning and teaching opportunities made it unlikely for them to succeed academically. A pregnant learner is likely to feel less connected and less inclined to attend school which will undermine her educational progress.

- Non pregnant learners concentrate in class

Recent research provides compelling evidence for the causal role that teen pregnancy play in the educational setback that plagues a girl child. Young girls are not emotionally or psychologically fully developed to be able to deal with the harsh realities of life and the responsibilities of a family. The level of stress which may be the result of being rejected by the baby's father or by the parents especially the father is a major setback in their educational attainment. In contrast non pregnant learners know what they want in life and they have achievable goals: they are focused, concentrate, participates in group

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discussion, take part in extramural activities which is conducive to the learning and teaching process.

Participant 5: "*Sometimes they are… (pause) not certain whether they still want to go to school or they intend staying at home, worried about the father of the child not accepting responsibility…you may also find that the parents, more especially the father wants her to go and stay with the father of the child who is also rejecting her… (laughs) so you find the learner is stressed, depressed and inattentive in class because she is constantly regretting being pregnant.*"

4.4.3: Theme 3: Pregnant learners face signified barriers when trying to finish their education.

- **Stigmatisation and isolation**

Pregnant learners face negative social stigmatization associated with teenage pregnancy. Recent research provide compelling evidence for establishing that stigmatisation can give rise to belonging uncertainty – the need for social belonging, for seeing oneself as socially connected is a basic human motivation

In our society, teenage pregnancy is seen in a negative light. Pregnant learners are treated as outcasts, negatively perceived as ill-mannered and also those who were badly brought up in single-parent families. These negative attitudes have a profound effect on pregnant learners to engage actively in learning and in turn, this has an adverse effect on their scholastic performance. Learners look up to their educators as role models and for their guidance. It is very hard for the pregnant learner to be ridiculed in front of other learners by their educators. When educators make jokes about their learners, it shows that pregnant learners who choose to remain in school are in the school environment that is not supportive and does not motivate them to perform well scholastically.

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Participant 6: *"Stigmatisation does affect their scholastic performance because their classmate normally treat them as outcasts and they feel they are not accepted, so that may make it difficult for them to learn because even some teachers are not accepting them, they make jokes about them."*

Educators stated that they were forced to accept pregnant learners at school because of the policy and they are overwhelmed by the situation. Fears that a pregnant learner would set a bad example to other learners were the main concerns. Participants expressed concerns that if learners were allowed to move around with 'their big bellies' and their school uniform too tight, it would encourage other learners to follow on their path. Participants also indicated that it is a disgrace to our culture and allowing these learners in schools is an indication of moral decay and lack of values in society.

Participant 4:"*We don't want these learners (pregnant learners) in our schools, we are forced by the policy and there is nothing that we can do. Now, pregnancy is a new fashion and more and more learners are falling pregnant."*

Similar accounts were made by Masimbe (2010), who expressed that more schoolgirls were coming home with babies at the end of the year instead of school progress reports. This is also supported by Runhare (2010) who found that mainstreaming of pregnant learners was seen as rewarding anti-social behaviuor. Community members made comments that pregnant learners caused school indiscipline, increased rate of pregnant learners and generally lowered educational standards of schools where they were enrolled.

Pregnant learners were rejected by their peers. In my view, pregnant learners might feel alienated by their friends and might feel afraid to participate in class for fear of being ridiculed. A further possibility is that a pregnant learner who is rejected might withdraw from coming to school. There is a myth that if you sit on a desk next to a pregnant

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learner, you will fall asleep, in this study it was also argued that non-pregnant used that myth to discriminate against pregnant learners

Participant 5: "*Non-pregnant learners do not want to be associated with pregnant learners in class and outside the classroom….starting from the desk where they will be sited, a non-pregnant learner would not want to be associated with a pregnant learner.*"

Evidence is complementary to previous research showing that peer rejection could cause fear of participating in class or general dread of school, both which would impede academic success (Spavins, 2007). Spavins (2007) went further and concluded that friendship improves grades by making school more enjoyable and worthwhile.

Another theme that emerged was that pregnant learners also isolated themselves and see themselves as outcasts. Participants indicated that pregnant learners were afraid to mingle with other learners during breaks. The way they wore their uniform trying to disguise the pregnancy also make them look odd amongst other learners. This was echoed by educators as a sign of pregnant learners not accepting their situation.

Participant 2: *"When they go outside to play or to do whatever, you find them isolated and another thing, the way they dress, they always dress something that is big. They wear their uniform not the way that non-pregnant learners wear it…you will find the shirt is out, not wearing a school jersey but a lumber or a coat…they definitely do not accept themselves."*

Consistent with this evidence is Walton & Cohen (2007)'s findings that a sense of social connectedness predicts favourable outcomes and social isolation in school is more strongly associated with low academic performance.

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Isolation by parents was another theme that emerged. Parents of pregnant learners may reject her because they feel frustrated angry and disappointed. This might cause a teenager to withdraw from her parents as she feels ashamed and guilty. The overwhelming feelings of guilty have a profound impact on their scholastic performance.

Participant 1: *"Parents of pregnant learners might be very angry as they are disappointed by their child's action…they want nothing to do with her and she …umm…may withdraw … she is full of shame and guilt….it is obvious that she cannot perform well in class"*

- Name calling

Pregnant learners were subjected to name calling such as bad girls, mothers, parents , prostitutes and were labelled as loose and immoral and ill-disciplined by their educators and fellow learners. These learners are seen as young people who have discarded their traditional norms which prescribes what is and what is not permissible in terms of sex before marriage. A pregnant learner who is constantly subjected to name calling and labelling is likely to feel inclined to attend school. Therefore, they may lack motivation and ability to learn and this can have an adverse effect on their scholastic performance.

Participant 6: "She is a disgrace to our society and to our traditional beliefs….we don't want these 'bad' learners in our schools. They have lost control of their lives and are bad and immoral"

Participant 5: *"Pregnant learners are loose, immoral and are associated with poor parenting style… and most of them come from single and broken homes. They are given names such as 'bad girls', 'vhomme' (mothers) and vhabebi' (parents),by some of the learners and even their teachers"*

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Evidence is in line with recent research that labelling ignores the fact that each individual is a whole person with talents and strength, an individual with rights, dignity and preferences that must be respected (Skills for life n/d). Past researches support this finding. Runhare (2010) found that negative labels and hate language directed at pregnant and former pregnant learners were expressed at the community, family and at school level.

4.4.4: Theme 4: The scholastic performance of male learners whose girlfriends are pregnant is not affected

Participant 5: "*The male learners are free…their scholastic performance is not affected by impregnating someone….you…because you don't even feel that you have impregnated someone. Why should that affect your concentration and earning capabilities? You can move free and can even say it is being alleged that I impregnated her, unless otherwise the DNA has been conducted…so a male learner can still enjoy life and go for another female learner and should there be possibilities of impregnating another learner, he can go for it.*"

Pregnancy does not directly affect the male learner. The majority (5) of the participants all agreed that male learners were free and their scholastic performance was not affected and most of them move to the next female learner. I most cases, there is no proof that the male learner is the father, this may be due to the fact that there multiple partners and the might not know who the father of the baby is. Therefore, the male learner is free of worry which was optimal for the learning process. Another issue that emerged was that male learners were not the ones who were going to carry the baby for nine months, that their bodies do not undergo any changes. Unlike their girlfriend who would always excuse themselves from school due to pregnancy related illnesses, pregnancy does not directly affect them.

Participant 3: "*Male learner might improve more (physical appearance) to shine for the girl and go on to find another girl*"

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This is contradictory to Kiselica (2010)'s findings that males in schools at the time when their partners are pregnant are poor achievers. Panday et al (2009) found that although there seem to be remarkably few consequences for teenage fathers who disappear from the lives of their children (Boulden, 2011), much like young women, young fathers also suffer a strong emotional response of shock, fear, shame and embarrassment on hearing about he their impending fatherhood (Stengel, 2005; Panday et al, 2009)

Although the majority of the educators echoed that the male learner was free, one of them revealed that some learners (male) might drop out of school and look for a job with the reason that they were doing it for their family. If a teenager unexpectedly becomes a father, it changes his career possibilities because it is necessary to make financial provision for the baby. These teenagers might revert to short-term plans such as working as a part-time employee for a very low salary, while their future aspirations are moved into the background.

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Participant 5: *"Some male learners may drop out of school with the reason of going to work ….umm…to provide for their families. Some …may look for an after school job to make financial provisions for their families. This has an impact on their scholastic performance as they …. And are….(err).. always tired and cannot concentrate on their school work."*

This is in line with the study funded by Ford Foundation (Stengel, 2005) which revealed that many young fathers are not only willing but eager to help their partners and are anxious to participate in the parenting of their children.

The study also found that a male learner whose parents and the girl's parents are pressurising him to take responsibility as a father, might be overwhelmed by the experience because of the uncertainty about the future and this might impede their ability to learn.

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Participant 6: "*Sometimes a male learner's academic performance may deteriorate because of pressure from the girl's and his parents… the responsibilities attached to being a teenage father and the uncertainty about the future are scary.*"

In line with this finding is (Stengel, 2005 & Panday et al, 2009) findings that teenage fathers are often bewildered by the news of the impending arrival.

4.4.5. Theme 5: Educators lack skills to deal with pregnancies at schools.

All the participants felt that it was not right for pregnant learners to be at school as they were not trained in managing pregnancies and they were afraid that should anything happen to a pregnant learner they would not know what they should do.

- Lack of skills to teenage pregnancy management

Participant 6: "*I think it is not right for pregnant learners to be at school…because teachers are not trained as to how to assist pregnant learners. If something can happen to them it is going o be chaos. We…. We don't know what the complications may be when they are at school and we don't know how to help them.*"

Mpanza (2006) also had similar findings, educators were not comfortable with highly pregnant learners attending school. They complained about lack of experience and showed that they (educators) did not know what to do in times of emergency as they might harm both the mother and the child if they tried to help.

Participants also found offering extra classes to pregnant learners after school as an aid for catching up was not an option. Educators expressed that the issue of teaching them after school not beneficial as pregnant learners were cited as always tired because of the physical changes and the growing babies in their bodies.

Another emerging theme was common transport. Many learners in the rural areas experience problems reaching their local school due to lack of transport facilities or poorly developed and maintained roads and the distance between their homes and the school. Most of the learners from the research schools commuted for more than 10km

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to and fro home to school. Although learner pregnancy is a problem in the SA schools, the number of pregnant learners at a school at one time in one class is very limited. Thus, it is unlikely that the majority of non-pregnant learners would agree to be delayed after school because of a few pregnant learners

Participant 2: *"Pregnant learners are always tired....they sleep in class and the afternoon classes is just a waste of time, it does not benefit them."*

Participant 3: *"The government has offered learners from the nearby village a bus...so the idea of teaching these learners is not possible. Most of the learners in the bus are not pregnant they cannot be delayed to go home because of few pregnant learners...it may cause havoc."*

Participant 6: *" We are already overburdened by the work load and the curriculum which is always changing....uhh...we cannot also play the role of midwives...the government is expecting too much from us...we are no trained."*

Similar comments were made by Hubbard et al (2008) that the policy's reference to special afternoon or evening classes for pregnant learners was not realistic as their number at a school at any time is very limited and they were not always from the same grade.

4.5. SUMMARY

This chapter thought to address the interpretations and analysis of data collected through interviews and questionnaires. The findings showed that a vast majority of the respondents who were pregnant were more likely to perform poorly than non pregnant learners. Male learners with pregnant girlfriends also differ significantly compared to males with non pregnant girlfriends. The next chapter would deal with overview of the study, major findings, limitations, and recommendations.

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CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The main aim of the study was to examine the scholastic performance of adolescent pregnant learners form Vhumbedzi circuit of Vhembe district in Limpopo province of South Africa. The following basic research questions were formulated and they were tested:

1. Is there an association between teen pregnancy and their scholastic performance?

2. Do educators' lack of pregnancy managerial skills impact negatively on pregnant learners' scholastic performance?

3. Would there be gender difference in scholastic performance between pregnant learners and male learners whose girlfriends are pregnant?

4. Does school behavior of pregnant learners impact negatively on their scholastic performance?

5. Would there be a difference in scholastic performance of pregnant learners and non pregnant learners?

Hereunder, are the different chapters that dealt with the examination of the effects of teenage pregnancy on the scholastic performance of an adolescent pregnant learner.

Chapter One:

In chapter One, the background to the research problem was outlined through the statement of the problem, research objectives, research questions and hypothesis, research methodologies and approaches utilized.

Chapter Two

Chapter Two provided the review which establishes important links between existing knowledge and the research problem being investigated, that is, in this study, I sought

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to establish whether the scholastic performance of adolescent pregnant learners was affected by their pregnancy

Chapter Three

In chapter Three, the research designs, methods, instrumentation and were sampling were discussed.

Chapter Four

Chapter Four addressed the interpretation and analysis of the data collected though both quantitative and qualitative methods.

Chapter Five

Chapter Five addressed the major findings of the study from both questionnaires and focus group interviews. Conclusions were also drawn from empirical data. Limitations of the study, recommendations relating to the study, recommendations for further studies and concluding remarks

5.2. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

5.2.1 Findings based on questionnaires completed by the Senior Phase Learners .

The major findings supported the hypothesis and answered the research questions regarding the effects of pregnancy on the scholastic performance of an adolescent pregnant learner. The results supported the facts that were highlighted in the literature review. The scholastic performance of male learners with pregnant girlfriends was also found to be affected by the pregnancy.

- The scholastic performance of pregnant learners was affected. It was found there are many factors which contribute to the deterioration of the scholastic performance of pregnant learners. Their school behavior was one of the major indicators in their academic achievement. It was fond that the majority of pregnant learners fail to attend school regularly which may have an adverse impact on their scholastic performance.

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- Pregnant learners were more likely to be lower in their scholastic performance as compared to non pregnant learners. Through the statistical crosstabulations, the hypothesis that there is a significant difference between the scholastic performance of pregnant learners and the scholastic performance of non pregnant learners was accepted.

- Male learners with performed scholastically poorly as compared to male learners with non pregnant girlfriends or those who do not have girlfriends. There was a significant difference in their scholastic performance.

- Educators lack skills to support pregnant learners

. 5.2.2. Findings based on Focus Group Interviews with educators.

Findings from the focus group converged with the findings from the questionnaires. As a result more complete and valid results were given in this study. A total of six educators from one Primary school and two Secondary schools were interviewed. The major findings were:

- The scholastic performance of pregnant learners is affected. Pregnant learners were said to perform poorly scholastically.

- Non pregnant learners scholastically performed better as compared to pregnant learners

- Educators are not equipped with necessary skills to deal with pregnant learners in schools.

Another interesting finding was that educators argued that male learners are not affected scholastically by their girlfriend's pregnancy. Although one of the participants indicated that not all young fathers ignore their parental responsibilities, the majority of the participants argued that young fathers are "free". Findings from the questionnaires indicated that male learners with pregnant learners were affected and this is also supported by previous research.

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5.2.3. Conclusions

Based on empirical evidence, I conclude that the main findings of this enquiry are the results of many hardships that a pregnant girl who choose to stay in school during her pregnancy faces. Pregnancy is always seen as an example of moral decay and ill society. Therefore, the burdens that come with pregnancy are too much for the school girl to play a dual role which is, being a learner and responsible parent at the same time. The questionnaire designed can be used in other schools (cases) should such necessity arise. The importance of context has been highlighted in terms of culture, school and community expectations and beliefs. Ultimately, the study has proved that teenage pregnancy has a negative influence on the performance of learners.

5.3. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The following limitation should be taken into considerations.

Only rural learners in grade 7, 8, and 9 were used as respondents in this study. This somewhat limited the external validity of the study. A study which includes urban, semi-urban and rural schools need to be conducted. Again, the sample size was too small to warrant any generalization of the results. The self-administered questionnaire allowed for only pregnant and boyfriends to pregnant learners to answer certain questions, which led to high percentage value missing. A representative sample of 30% of the population should be studied if the results are to be generalized.

5.4. RECOMMENDATIONS

5.4.1. Recommendations relating to the study

Unless urgently intervened, the disruptions that teenage pregnancy inflicts on the educational achievement of a young girl can have serious repercussions in their future. Learner pregnancy is becoming more and more of a social problem in the SA schools.

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The problem is not only prevalent in secondary schools, but also in primary schools and we need interventions to remedy the situation. The following are the recommendations:

- Educators need to be well equipped with skills that will enable them to deal with pregnant learners in schools. The government should give educators in-service training on how to mange a pregnant learner.
- Educators should also form support group structures in schools, clusters and circuit level where issues on learners' pregnancies can be addressed.
- Educators need to be flexible by providing educational and emotional in order to remove pregnancy as a barrier to the young girl's education.
- Pregnant learners should be made aware that not all people in the school community will be readily to accept them. So, learners need to be prepared that they will face some hostility from some of the learners and some of their educators.
- Learners must also be made to be aware of the consequences of early pregnancy on their educational achievement through health and sexual education
- The Department of Basic Education should provide schools with at least one health worker who will be able to carte for the needs of pregnant learners.
- The Department of Education should also provide schools with pregnant learners' user friendly facilities in schools, a school counselor or one trained educator.

5.4.2. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

As the sample of the study was selected from rural schools only, I recommend that a study with a sample from urban, semi-urban and rural schools should be conducted.

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5.5. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The study gave an insight on the effects of teenage pregnancy on the scholastic performance of pregnant learners. The general findings were that there is a significant difference on the scholastic performance of pregnant learners and that of non pregnant learners and also a significant difference in the scholastic performance of males with pregnant girlfriends and those with non pregnant girlfriends. The findings are significant especially in SA where teenage pregnancy is in the rise and recommendations are essential in guiding on how to support learners and educators in such schools.

If support be given to pregnant learners and prospective school father, their educational attainment would improve tremendously.

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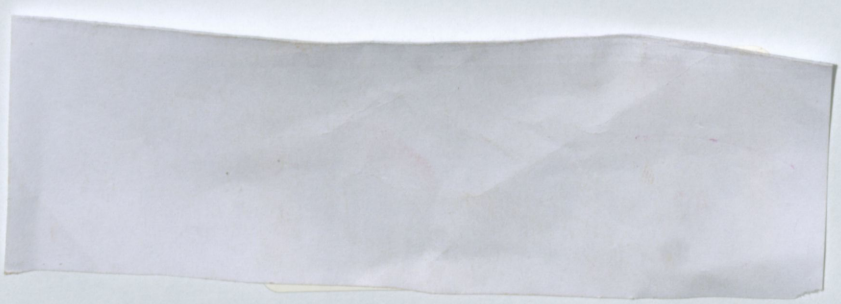
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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE ON TEENAGE PREGNANCY

THE SCHOLASTIC PERFORMANCE OF ADOLESCENT PREGNANT LEARNERS

This research is being carried out for the purpose of MED Degree studies at University of Venda. The purpose of the research is to investigate the scholastic performance of adolescent pregnant learners.

Your anonymity is guaranteed. Your name will not be use in the discussion of the results and your responses will be reported in way that protects your identity. If something you say is quoted, it will be introduced by a statement such as, "A respondent from school 1, 2 or 3".

Please, answer all the questions

YOUR ASSISTANCE IS VERY MUCH APPRECIATED.

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SECTION A: PERSONAL DETAILS

Indicate by putting a mark in the appropriate box what applies to you.

1. Gender

Male	1
Female	2

2. Age

10-12 years	1
13-14 years	2
15 years and older	3

3. In which grade are you?

Grade 7	1
Grade 8	2
Grade 9	3

4. Language

English	1
Xitsonga	2
Tshivenda	3

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SECTION B: Family background, assertiveness, perceived pregnancy repercussions, reasons for getting pregnant and the effects of on scholastic performance.

Family Background

5. With whom do you live? Mark all that apply.

Mother	1
Father	2
Step-father	3
Step-mother	4
Uncle	5
Aunt	6
grandmother	7
Grandfather	8
other	9

6. Relationship at home

Good	1
Fair	2
Bad	3

7. Financial status at home

Good	1
Average	2
Poor	3

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Sexual experience

8. Have you ever had sexual intercourse?

Yes	1
No	2

9. If yes, was it a voluntary experience?

Yes	1
No	2

8. When did you have your first boyfriend/girlfriend?

10-12 years	1
13-14 years	2
15 years and older	3

9. At what age did you first have sexual intercourse?

10-12 years	1
13-14 years	2
15 years and older	3

10. Are you pregnant?

Yes	1
No	2

11. Is your girlfriend pregnant?

Yes	1
No	2

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Assertiveness

12. Are your friends also engaged in sexual activities?

Yes	1
No	2

13. I know how to say no to a friend who wants to have sex with me

Yes	1
No	2

Reasons for getting pregnant

If you are pregnant, please answer question 14-16

14. How old were you when you/your girlfriend fall pregnant?

10-12 years	1
13-14 years	2
15 years and older	3

15. Are you happy that you are/your girlfriend is pregnant?

Yes	1
No	2

If your answer is yes, why? Mark all that apply.

The baby will love me unconditionally	1
I need the child support grant	2
It will strengthen my relationship with my girl/boyfriend	3
My friends will accept me	4
My family will be very happy	5
My community will accept me as a real man/woman	6

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16. Is your boyfriend giving you moral support?

Yes	1
No	2

If your girlfriend is pregnant, please answer questions 17-19

17. How old were you when your girlfriend fell pregnant?

10-12 years	1
13-14 years	2
15 years and older	3

18. Are you happy that you girlfriend is pregnant?

Yes	1
No	2

If your answer is yes, mark all that apply

The baby will love me unconditionally	1
I need the child support grant	2
It will strengthen my relationship with my girlfriend	3
My friends will accept me	4
My family will be very happy	5
My community will accept me as a real man	6

19. Are you giving your girlfriend moral support?

Yes	1
No	2

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20. Are you giving your girlfriend moral support?

Yes	1
No	2

Future aspirations

21. How far will you go with schooling? Mark only once

Will drop-out of school	1
Will complete this grade	2
Will complete grade 12 and start my own family	3
Complete grade 12 and get a job	4
Complete grade 12 and go to college	5
Not sure	6

22. If you are pregnant, mark all that apply

Statement	YES	NO
I fail to attend school regularly	1	2
I am acceptable to my educators	1	2
I am unacceptable to my fellow learners	1	2
My educators lack skills to assist me in my situation	1	2
My fellow learners and educators ridicule me	1	2
The whole school environment does not accept me	1	2
I feel alone	1	2
I feel frustrated	1	2
I am depressed	1	2
I lack confidence in myself	1	2
I am ashamed of my situation	1	2
My overall behavior has changed	1	2

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The effects of pregnancy on scholastic performance

23. For each of the following statements regarding the effects of pregnancy on your performance, mark only once.

Statement	YES	NO
I fail to pay attention in class	1	2
I do my home work with ease	1	2
I finish my assignments on time	1	2
I enjoy group work	1	2
I prefer doing individual work	1	2
I am failing my tests	1	2
My level scores have dropped	1	2
My overall school performance has deteriorated	1	2

24. If you are pregnant, answer the following questions:

To what extent do you think your scholastic performance has been affected by your pregnancy? Explain

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Do you feel like other learners are laughing at you?

Yes	1
No	2

If your answer is yes, how does this affect your participation in class?

As a pregnant learner, are you acceptable to your educators?

Yes	1
No	2

If your answer is no, how does it affect your involvement in the learning process?

Do you feel ashamed by being a pregnant learner?

Yes	1
No	2

If your answer is yes, what effects does this have on your scholastic performance?

THANK YOU

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MBUDZISA-ṬHOLI NGA HA U ḒIHWALA HA VHANA VHAṬUKU.

MASHUMELE A VHAGUDISWA VHO ḒIHWALAHO VHA TSHIKOLONI.

Marangaphanda: Ṭhoḓisiso iyi i khou itwa sa tshipiḓa tsha digirii ya MED kha Yunivesithi ya Venḓa. Ṭhoḓisiso iyi i katela na u ḓadza mbudzisa-ṭholi nga vhagudiswa na inthaviyu ya vhadededzi vhavho.

Ndivho ya ṭhoḓisiso: Ndivho ya ṭhoḓisiso iyi ndi u sedzulusa kushumele kwa vhagudiswa vho ḓihwalaho.

Pfulufufhedzeso: Hu ombedzelwa u sa ḓivhadzwa haṋu. Dzina ḽaṋu a ḽi nga shumisiwi kha nyambedzano ya mvelelo. Phindulo dzaṋu a dzi nga baḓekanywi na madzina aṋu. Itshi ndi tshiphiri tshaṋu na muṱoḓulusi. Arali zwine vha amba zwa tea u khouthiwa/redzwa, zwi do nekedzwa nga fhungo ḽi ngaho sa, " mufhinduli a bvaho kha tshikolo A, B kana C".

Fhindulani nga u fulufhedzea hoṱhe.

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KHETHEKANYO A: ZWIDODOMBEDZWA ZWA VHUṆE

Sumbedzani nga u vhea luswayo kha bogisi ḽo teaho.

1. Mbeu

Munna	1
Mufumakadzi	2

2. Miṅwaha

10-12	1
13-14	2
15 na u fhira	3

3. Ni kha gireidi ifhio?

Gireidi 7	1
Gireidi 8	2
Gireidi 9	3

4. Luambo

English	1
Tshivenḓa	2
Xitsonga	3

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KHETHEKANYO B: Nzulele ya muṱani, vhuḓifulufheli, kuvhonele nga ha u vhifha muvhilini, zwiitisi zwa u vhifha muvhilini, masia-ndaitwa nga u vhifha muvhilini kha kushumele kwa tshikolo.

5. Ni dzula na nnyi? Nangani nga luswayo.

Mme	1
Khotsi	2
Khotsi mufareli	3
Mme mufareli	4
Malume	5
Makhadzi	6
Makhulu tshifumakadzi	7
Makhulu tshinna	8
Vhaṅwe-vho	9

6. Vhushaka hayani

Ndi havhuḓi	1
Vhu khwine	2
A si ha vhuḓi	3

7. Nyimele ya masheleni mutani

Ndi yavhuḓi	1
Ndi yo linganelaho	2
A si yavhuḓi	3

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8. No thoma zwa vhatukana kana zwa vhasidzana ni na miṅwaha mingana?

10-12	1
13-14	2
15 na u fhira	3

9. No no vhuya na ita zwa vhudzekani naa?

Ee	1
Hai	2

10. Arali phindulo I ee, no zwi ita nga lufuno lwanu naa?

Ee	1
Hai	2

11. No thoma u ita zwa vhudzekani ni na miṅwaha mingana?

10-12 years	1
13-14 years	2
15 years and older	3

12. Arali ni musidzana no ḓihwala naa?

Ee	1
Hai	2

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13. Arali ni muṱhannga musidzana wanu o ḓihwala naa?

Ee	1
Hai	2

14. Khonani dzanu dzi a ita zwa vhudzekani naa?

Ee	1
Hai	2

15. Ni a kona u hanedza musi khonani I tshi ṱoḓa u ita zwa vhudzekani na inwi naa?.

Ee	1
Hai	2

Arali no ḓihwala, fhindulani mbudziso 16-18.

16. No vha ni na miṅwaha mingana musi ni tshi vha ni tshi ḓihwala?

10-12	1
13-14	2
15 na u fhira	3

17. Ni pfa no takala na musi inwi no ḓihwala ?

Ee	1
Hai	2

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Arali phindulo i ee, ndi ngani? Swayani zwoṱhe zwo teaho.

Ṅwana u do mpfuna hu sina zwiṅwe-vho.	1
Ndi khou ṱoḓa tshelede ya mundende wa vhana.	2
Zwi ḓo khwaṱhisedza vhushaka hanga na mufunwa wanga.	3
Khonani dzanga dzi ḓo nṱanganedza.	4
Muṱani wa hashu vha ḓo takala vhukuma.	5
Tshitshavha tshi ḓo nṱanganedza sa munna/musadzi vhukuma.	6

18. Muṱhannga wanu u khou ni tikedza naa zwino musi no ḓihwala?

Ee	1
Hai	2

Arali musidzana wanu o ḓihwala, fhindulani mbudziso 19-21.

19. No vha ni na miṅwaha mingana musi musidzana wanu a tshi ḓihwala?

10-12	1
13-14	2
15 na u fhira	3

20. Ni pfa no takala naa musi musidzana wanu o ḓihwala?

Ee	1
Hai	2

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Arali phindulo i ee, ndi ngani? Swayani zwoṱhe zwo teaho.

Ṅwana u do mpfuna hu sina zwiṅwe-vho.	1
Ndi khou ṱoḓa tshelede ya mundende wa vhana.	2
Zwi ḓo khwaṱhisedza vhushaka hanga na mufunwa wanga.	3
Khonani dzanga dzi ḓo nṱanganedza.	4
Muṱani wa hashu vha ḓo takala vhukuma.	5
Tshitshavha tshi ḓo nṱanganedza sa munna/musadzi vhukuma.	6

21. Ni khou ni tikedza musidzana wanu naa zwino musi o ḓihwala?

Ee	1
Hai	2

22. Arali no ḓihwala, swayani zwoṱhe zwo teaho

Fhungo	Ee	Hai
Ndi a kundelwa u ya tshikoloni misi yoṱhe	1	2
A thi ṱanganedzei kha vhadededzi vhanga	1	2
Vhadedezi vhanga a vha na zwikili zwa u nthusa kha nyimele yanga	1	2
Tshikolo tshoṱhe nga u angaredza a tshi pfesesi nyimele yanga	1	2
Vhagudiswa nga nṋe a vha nṱanganedzi.	1	2
Ndi tshiseiso kha vhadededzi na vha gudiswa nga nṋe	1	2
Ndi ḓi pfa ndi ndoṱhe kha nyimele yanga musi ndi tshikoloni	1	2
Kutshilele kwanga nga u ngaredza kwo shanduka	1	2

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23. Malugana na kushumele kwanu tshikoloni, swayani zwoṱhe zwo teaho.

Fhungo	Ee	Hai
Ndi a kundelwa u thetshelesa musi ndi kiḽasini.	1	2
Zwi a nndelutshela u ita tshuṅwahaya dzanga	1	2
Ndi fhedza asainimenthe dzanga nga tshafhinga	1	2
Ndi ḓiphina nga mushumo wa guṱe	1	2
Ndi takalela u shuma ndi ndoṱhe	1	2
Ndi khou feila dzithesiṱe	1	2
Maraga dzanga dzo tsa	1	2
Mushumo wanga wa tshikolo nga u angaredza wo tsa.	1	2

24. Arali no ḓihwala fhindulani zwi tevhelaho:

Mushumo wanu wa tshikolo wo kwamea u swika-fhi nga mulandu wa u ḓihwala haṋu?

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Musi ni kiḽasini na vhaṅwe vhaguswa ni pfa vha tshi nga vha khou ni sea na u ni sola?

Ee	hai
1	2

Arali phindulo i ee,zwi ni thithisa nga nḓila-ḓe kha mushumo wanu wa tshikolo ?

_____

_____

_____

Vhadededzi vhanu vha a ni ṱanganedza naa?

Ee	Hai
1	2

Arali phindulo i hai, zwi kwama hani mushumo wanu wa tshikolo? Ṱalutshedzani.

_____

_____

_____

Sa mugudiswa o ḓihwalaho, ni pfa ni na ṱhoni na u ḓinyala naa ?

Ee	Hai
1	2

Arali phindulo i ee, zwi kwama hani mushumo wanu wa tshikolo?

_____

_____

_____

NDI A LIVHUWA

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SCHOLASTIC PERFOMANCE OF ADOLESCENT PREGNANT LEARNERS: FOCUS GROUP QUESTIONS

Questions for Focus Group with educators

1. What subject do you teach?
2. For how long have you been teaching?
3. Approximately how many learners are pregnant in your school?
4. How does the scholastic achievement of pregnant learners compare to that of non pregnant learners.
5. Does being a pregnant learner affect their academic performance? If so how?
6. Do you think male learners whose girlfriends are pregnant are also affected in their scholastic performance?
7. Are you prepared to make special provisions to address missed classes by pregnant learners?
8. Do you feel sympathetic to the needs of pregnant learners?
9. As an educator, do you think you have the necessary skills to enable you to give moral support to pregnant learners?

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Tel. 082 785 8659

School of Education
University of Venda
Thohoyandou
0950
10 October 2011

Dear Principal,

I am currently conducting research in Scholastic Performance of adolescent pregnant learners and I have been granted permission by the **Limpopo Education Department** to conduct research in the school in which you are currently managing as it has been selected to take part in this research.

1. A questionnaire will be completed and an interview will be conducted and it will take approximately 30 minutes.
2. There is no known risk involved in the research.
3. There are no costs involved.

You are assured that your identity and responses to this interview will be regarded as **extremely confidential at all times and that they will not be made available to any unauthorized user.**

Should you have any queries or comments, you are welcome to contact me.

TP Mafhara

CONSENT

In terms of the ethical requirements of the University of Venda, you are now requested to complete the following section:

I _____,

have read this letter and understand the terms involved.

On condition that the information provided by me is treated as confidential at all times, 1 hereby (MARK the appropriate section)

☐ give consent

☐ do NOT give consent that the results may be used for research purposes.

Signature: _____

Date: _____

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LIMPOPO
PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

VHUMBEDZI CIRCUIT

University of Venda

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
VHUMBEDZI CIRCUIT OFFICE
2011 -10- 18
PRIVATE BAG X 1120
TSHAULU 0987
LIMPOPO PROVINCE

Ref.: Research
Enq.: Ndanduleni T.S.

Ms T.P. Mafhara
P.O. Box 2087
Thohoyandou
0950

REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH: YOURSELF

1. Your application to conduct research in this circuit refers.
2. Permission has been granted for you to conduct research in our schools.
3. The topic "Scholastic Performance of adolescent pregnant learners" will require you to visit both primary and secondary schools.
4. Kindly note that your activities should under no circumstances disturb the teaching and learning process. Individual schools should also grant you the necessary permission.
5. We wish you the best of luck in your studies.

CIRCUIT MANAGER

18/10/2011
Date

VHUMBEDZI CIRCUIT, MUTSHETSHE PRESIDENTIAL SCHOOL, PRIVATE BAG 1120, TSHAULU 0987 TEL. 015 978 3364, FAX 086 668 8025

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