

An investigation into the challenges facing educators with regard to managing teenage pregnancy and child grants receivers and its impact on school performance in Secondary Schools of Vhembe District: A case Study of Nzhelele West Circuit.

BY

MAVHUNGU DIANA RAMUSETHELI

11595462

Mini Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree of

MASTER OF PUBLIC MANAGEMENT

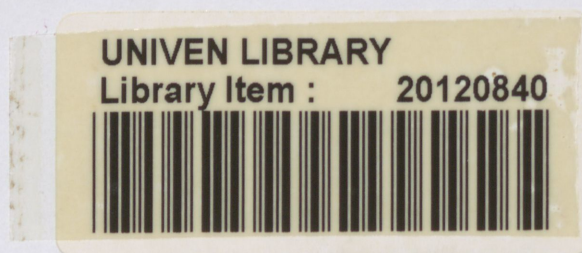
In the

SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES

At the

UNIVERSITY OF VENDA

Supervisor: **Prof M.P Khwashaba**



September 2011

DECLARATION

I, RAMUSETHELI MAVHUNGU DIANA student of the University of Venda hereby declare that the dissertation for the degree of Master in Public Management at University of Venda hereby submitted by me, has not been submitted previously for a degree at this university or any other university; that it is my own work in design and execution, and that all reference material contained therein has been duly acknowledged.

DR Ramusetheli

Signature

02/05/2012

Date

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

My sincere gratitude is directed to the following persons who supported me during the enormous task of my studies towards the Masters degree and who made the completion of this research possible:

- The Lord Almighty, who strengthened and protected me during my years of hard work and journeys to the University of Venda;
- My husband , Nthangedzeni Bernard Ramusetheli for his support and continuous motivation;
- My Promoter, Prof M.P Khwashaba for his valuable guidance and support during the course of my studies;
- To all my children Mufhatutshezwa Card, Murendeni Debra and Mufunwa, I thank you for your lovely encouragement,
- My sister Angy, brother Hezekiel, Samuel and Langanani, thank you for your support;
- Mr. K.M. Siobo & Mr. N.C Bono Mmbengeni for assisting in the conceptualisation of this topic from the educators perceptive.
- Mrs. J.R. Ramagoma for typing this dissertation accurately and professionally;
- I arrogantly thank Mushaathama George Mbulaheni Secondary School Staff for the support they gave by carrying my weight throughout my absence when attending and completing my course
- My Bishop, Muhali, for moral and religious support.

For all these people my thanks are due.

DEDICATION

On my personal note, I dedicate this project to my parents, Mr. Wilson and Mrs Kutama Emily Mmbodi, You were there for me all the way.

Nzhelele West Circuit
Vhembe District. The Child Support Grant (CSG) is the South African poverty-
alleviation strategy targeted at children. Despite its major impact on child poverty,
some CSG critics claim that it will 'cause teenage pregnancy'. Yet empirical
research has had limited success in unraveling this relationship: 415 out of 4356
mothers receiving the grant are teenaged mothers.

Teenage pregnancy has militated against the educational success of girls in
South Africa. Statistics show that four out of ten girls become pregnant overall at
least once before age 20. Education is important for these girls in order to break
the poverty cycle in which most of them are trapped. Though the girls are allowed
to return to school after becoming mothers, they face many challenges in trying
to balance motherhood and the demands of schooling. The aim of this study was
to find out how teen mothers cope with schooling, hence how much support is
required to them. A qualitative research approach was used to understand the
social phenomena of teenage mothers as learners. The result of the research
showed that teen mothers in Vhembe District receive insufficient support
(practically and emotionally) and the consequence is that many quit school or do
not interact with schooling.

The findings indicated that educators have positive attitudes and are sympathetic
towards pregnant teenagers, but displayed reservations about the level of stress
they have with regard to helping teenagers in the times of emergency (like
absences) in the classroom.

Abstract formulated some recommendations that the researcher hope (believe) will strengthen the relationship between educators and adolescent pregnant women in schools.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the nature of educators' attitudes towards teenage pregnancy in Secondary Schools of the Nzhelele West Circuit of Vhembe District. The Child Support Grant (CSG) is the South African poverty-alleviation strategy targeted at children. Despite its major impact on child poverty, some CSG critics claim that it will 'cause teenage pregnancy'. Yet empirical research has had limited success in unraveling this relationship: 415 out of 4356 mothers receiving the grant are teenaged mothers.

Teenage pregnancy has militated against the educational success of girls in South Africa. Statistics show that four out of ten girls become pregnant overall at least once before age 20. Education is important for these girls in order to break the poverty cycle in which most of them are trapped. Though the girls are allowed to return to school after becoming mothers, they face many challenges in trying to balance motherhood and the demands of schooling. The aim of this study was to find out how teen mothers cope with schooling, hence how much support is rendered to them. A qualitative research approach was used to understand the social phenomena of teenage mothers as learners. The result of the research showed that teen mothers in Vhembe District receive insufficient support (physically and emotionally) and the consequence is that many quit school or do not succeed with schooling.

The findings indicated that educators have positive attitudes and are sympathetic towards pregnant teenagers, but displayed reservations about the level of skills they have with regard to helping teenagers in the times of emergency (like delivery) in the classroom.

The study formulated some recommendations that the researcher hope (believe) will strengthen the relationship between educators and pregnant teenagers in schools.

Acknowledgement	ii
Dedication	iii
Abstract	iv
Table of Content	vii
List of Table	xi
List of abbreviation	xiii

CHAPTER 1: ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Background of the Study	2
1.3 Statement of the problem	3
1.4 Research Objectives	4
1.4.1 General Objective	4
1.4.2 Specific Objectives	4
1.5 Research Questions	5
1.6 Hypothesis	5
1.7 Significance of the Study	5
1.8 Limitation of the Study	6
1.9 Delimitation of the Study	6
1.10 Operational Definitions of the study	6
1.11 Summary of the Literature Review	7
1.12 Organisation of the Study	10

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

TABLE OF CONTENT

Declaration	i
Acknowledgement	ii
Dedication	iii
Abstract	iv
Table of Content	vii
List of Table	xi
List of abbreviation	xiii
2.8 School Environment	21
CHAPTER 1: ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY	22
2.8.2 Motivation to learn	22
2.8.3 Attitude towards learning	23
2.8.4 Substance abuse	23
1.1 Introduction	14
1.2 Background of the Study	24
1.3 Statement of the problem	30
1.4 Research Objectives	47
1.4.1 General Objective	47
1.4.2 Specific Objectives	48
1.5 Research Questions	50
1.6 Hypothesis	51
1.7 Significance of the Study	51
1.8 Limitation of the Study	60
1.9 Delimitation of the Study	60
1.10 Operational Definitions of the study	60
1.11 Summary of the Literature Review	70
1.12 Organisation of the Study	100
3.1 Introduction	34
3.2 Research design and methodology	34
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	35

3.4	Sampling Population	38
3.5	Sampling Size	38
2.1	Introduction	12
2.2	Pregnancy-related school dropouts	12
2.3	Public perspectives on teenage pregnancy	15
2.4	The consequences of teenage pregnancy and teenage parenting	17
2.5	Attitudes measurement of the research instrument	17
2.6	The nature of perception of educators towards teenage pregnancy	18
2.7	Importance of Sexuality Education by Parents	19
2.8	School Environment	21
	2.8.1 Learner profiles	22
	2.8.2 Motivation to learn	22
	2.8.3 Attitude towards learning	23
	2.8.4 Substance abuse	23
2.9	Potential Consequences	24
	2.9.1 The disruption of schooling	24
	2.9.2 Early reproduction and health	26
2.10	The outcomes of early reproduction for children	27
2.11	Welfare concerns – the child support grant	27
2.12	Attitude formation	28
2.13	Educators' attitudes in relation to educational level	30
2.14	Educators' approaches in relation to gender	31
2.16	Child Support Grant causes Teenage Pregnancy	33
2.17	Conclusion	33
5.5	Conclusion	60
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY		62
Appendix		71
3.1	Introduction	34
3.2	Research design and methodology	34
3.3	Population of the Study	35

3.4	Sampling Procedure	35
3.5	Sampling Size	36
3.6	Methods of Data Collection	37
3.6.1	Questionnaire Survey	37
3.7	Ethical considerations	37
3.8	Method of data analysis	40
3.9	Reliability and validity of the research instrument	40
3.10	Conclusion	41

CHAPTER 4: DATA INTERPRETATION, PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1	Introduction	42
4.2	Biographic Information	42
4.3	Educators attitudes towards teen mother	44
4.4	Conclusion	53

CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1	Introduction	54
5.2	Major Findings	54
5.3	Recommendations	57
5.4	Further Recommendation of the Study	59
5.5	Conclusion	60
	References	62
	Appendixes	71

List of Table

- Table 4.1: Gender of Respondents
- Table 4.2 Frequency distribution of subjects by age groups
- Table 4.3 Level of education
- Table 4.4: Respondents income generation
- Table 4.5 Relationship between teen mothers and educators is good.
- Table 4.6 Teenage pregnancy causes absenteeism at school.
- Table 4.7 Poverty contributes towards teenage pregnancy
- Table 4.8 Teenage pregnancy contributes towards poor results at school.
- Table 4.9 Teen mothers behave badly in class
- Table 4.10 Teen mothers come to school late.
- Table 4.11 Teen mothers pass grade 12 easily.
- Table 4.12 Educators treat all learners equally.
- Table 4.13 Teen mothers do homework.
- Table 4.14 Teen mothers progress well academically.
- Table 4.15 Teen mothers have time to do school work.
- Table 4.16 Teen mothers very often miss classes.
- Table 4.17 Teen mothers return to school without any counselling.
- Table 4.18 The majority of dropouts are teen mothers.
- Table 4.19 Teen mothers feel the educators do not accept their situation.
- Table 4.120 Educators support teen mothers at school.

List of Abbreviations

- **CSG** Child Support Grant
- **DoSD** Department of Social Development
- **SGB** School Governing Body
- **SMT** School Management Team
- **JPTD** Junior Primary Teachers Diploma

CHAPTER 1: ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

Teenage pregnancy is a very sensitive issue that parents do not wish to discuss openly. Educators in schools are faced with a great task of playing different roles. They have to look after learners in all respects. The problem of teenage pregnancy is rapidly escalating and is becoming more complicated. Secondary schools were mostly affected but the problem has taken its toll even in primary schools. Educators have to be midwives and nurses, using the skills they were never trained in. This chapter introduces the study on how educators view the problem of teenage pregnancy in secondary schools.

1.2 Background of the Study

In sub-Saharan Africa and other developing countries, girls and women are losing the battle for equal access to secondary education. In South Africa, 61 percent of the uneducated adult populations are women (James et al, 2000, pg. 18). In many developing countries, teenage pregnancy has been one of the major hindrances to the educational success of girls. Pregnancy among school girls is reaching crisis proportions in some South African schools. A recent report detailed the case of one school that had 144 pregnant pupils in 2006 (Sunday Times, 2007:10). Recent research in South Africa has shown that by the age of 18 more than 30 percent of teens have given birth at least once (NRC-IOM 2005:89).

It is evident that teenage pregnancy is becoming more and more a barrier to girls' education. In a study about the battle for equal access to education, Meena (2001:56) blames governments of the sub-Saharan countries for making little

effort to eliminate the discrepancies in the area of access to secondary education for girls. One way girls are denied access is when they fall, pregnant and when they become teen mothers (Meena, 2001:9). Wolpe et al (1997:45) states that there are some schools that do not allow pregnant girls and young mothers to attend classes. In some cases where teen mothers continue schooling, they are often “described and assumed to be poor or incapable students” (Pillow, 2004:111). In addition, Shultz (2001, pg. 584) asserts that “too often, pregnancy during high school is a signal for school personnel and families to abandon young women, designating them as school failures”.

Thus, educators and parents often give up on them. Nonetheless, teen mothers and their children are two particularly vulnerable groups in our society whose long term life chances are interconnected. They are both at critical points in their lives, where their courses may be shaped towards healthy development, stability and productivity or towards poverty and dependency. Without support for teen mothers to complete their education, many will struggle with poverty and its effects (Stephens et al 1999; Kunio and Sono, 1996; Mogotlane, 1993:3).

A decade ago, Macleod (1999a, 1999b) presented a comprehensive review of South African research on the consequences of teen-aged pregnancy and its „causes“. Now I return to research on these issues, highlighting changes in approach and new issues that have emerged in the literature in the last 10 years. I include in this review research on current rates of teen-aged pregnancy and termination of pregnancy (TOP), and questions of the intentionality and wantedness of pregnancy, which were absent in Macleod (1999a, 1999b).

Following on from this I discuss research on the outcomes of early reproduction, including the disruption of schooling, health issues, and consequences for the children and welfare concerns. I explore research on factors that may contribute to teen-aged pregnancy, such as knowledge and use of contraception, timing of sexual debut, age of partner, risky sexual behaviour, coercive sexual relations,

cultural factors and health service provision. I conclude by drawing attention to the major shifts in research in this area. I have excluded research that does not speak directly to the consequences and causes of teen-aged pregnancy (for example, we excluded reference to several publications by Macleod and colleagues in which teen-aged pregnancy is viewed through the lens of post-structural feminism), as well as research contained within unpublished theses. I included peer review published research, national surveys, and input to the Human Sciences Research Council's round table on teenage pregnancy.

1.3 Statement of the problem

The South African Schools Act, 1996 (Act no 2A-10 of 1996) had to prevent the expulsion of pregnant school girls; the dropout rate resulting from pregnancy is still very high among girls. Mogotlane (1993: 11) views this as temporary while with other girls it may exist permanently. This may be the result of the lack of facilities within the schools for pregnant girls and teenage mothers and the lack of provision thereof by the Schools action. Masuku (1998:2) believes that negative attitude of learners (boys and girls) is a major force that drives pregnant girls out of school. However Masuku did not look at educators' attitudes and how they treat pregnant girls within the school.

Despite the effort by the South African Schools Act, 1996 (Act no 2A-10 of 1998) to prevent the expulsion of pregnant school girls, the dropout rate resulting from pregnancy is still very high among girls. Mogotlane (1993: 11) views this as temporary while with other girls it may exist permanently. This may be the result of the lack of facilities within the schools for pregnant girls and teenage mothers and the lack of provision thereof by the Schools Act. Educators might be the cause of such high drop out rate among pregnant teenagers. Masuku (1998:2) believes that negative attitude of learners (boys and girls) is a major force that drives pregnant girls out of school. However Masuku did not look at educators' attitudes and how they treat pregnant girls within the school.

1.4 Research Objectives

This might be a factor that surpasses other causes. The poor academic performance of Grade 12 learners in the Limpopo Province has been a concern for quite some time. Musaathama and George Mbulaheni secondary schools are two of the schools in the Nzhelele West Circuit that are among the under performing schools. The problem is that most learners do not perform at a level that would allow them university entrance.

According to Chevalier and Viitanen, teenage motherhood reduces the chances of post-compulsory schooling by 12% to 24%. Chevalier and Viitanen conclude that teenage motherhood seems to impose long-term consequences on the career development of young mothers and hence is likely to lead to transmitting poverty from generation to generation. It would thus appear that policies preventing the long-term consequences of teenage motherhood should be focused on helping teenage mothers to succeed in their secondary school education (Chevalier and Viitanen, 2001:44). Locally, both the ANC's Policy Framework for Education and Training (1994) and The National Gender Summit (2001:99) have prioritized the need for research into gender inequalities in education.

In Nzhelele West Circuit, teachers believed that schools should be well equipped to cater for pregnant girls. This must include the provision of school nurses who are skilled in taking care of emergency situations. The lack of training in dealing with these issues in the classroom creates a negative attitude in educators. Educators revealed that they had a negative attitude towards teenage pregnancy. Educators believed that the school was not for mothers or pregnant girls but is for learners. Teenage pregnancy is associated with low achievement scores and low vocational aspiration. Teenage mothers are at risk of dropping out of school. Educators believe that when pregnant school girls absent themselves from school to attend ante-natal clinics, this occasional disruption of schooling may lead, in the long run, to under achievement.

1.4 Research Objectives

The research objectives will be discussed under general and specific objectives

do not have facilities for pregnant mothers in schools.:

1.4.1 General Objective

• Lack of skills of educators towards pregnant mothers makes educators to

The general objective of the study is to investigate the challenges faced by educators with regard to managing teenage pregnancy and child grants receivers and its impact on school performance in Secondary Schools

educators from their duties and therefore affecting their duties

1.4.2 Specific Objectives

• Special care is needed for pregnant learners to help them achieve quality

- To assess the individual, familial and educative impact of teenage pregnancy;
- To investigate the impact of the child grant support towards the adolescence and school performance;
- To investigate challenges faced by educators toward managing teen mothers in classroom;
- To identify and assess the impact of interventions for teenage pregnancy;
- To determine the nature of attitudes of educators towards teenage pregnancy;

1.5 Research Questions

actively address the poor performance of these

schools. This study would not only assist the Department of Education and

- What are the individual, familial and educative impacts of teenage pregnancy?
- What are the impacts of the child grant support towards the adolescence?
- What are the impacts of interventions for teenage pregnancy?
- What is the nature of attitudes of educators towards teenage pregnancy?

university

1.6 Hypothesis of the Study

- Presence of pregnant girls in schools pose challenge to the educators who do not have facilities for pregnant mothers in schools.;
- Lack of skills of educators towards pregnant mothers makes educators to develop negative attitude towards pregnant mothers.
- Needs for special care for pregnant scholars deviate attention of educators from their duties and therefore affecting their duties.

1.8 Delimitation of the Study

- Special care is needed for pregnant learners to help them achieve quality education at school.
- Needs for young mothers and children keep them away from school's interest, affecting the performance in schools.

1.7 Significance of the Study

The findings of this study would shed light on how to achieve quality education in comparable schools in the Department of Education. The study might provide insight into the problems whose solution might help inform specific actions to be taken to efficiently and effectively address the poor performance of these schools. This study would not only assist the Department of Education and School Management Teams of Mushaatama and George Mbulaheni to improve their level of performance, but it would also provide strategies to guide the educators attitude to improve better liaison with teen mothers, reduce teenagers pregnancy, provide better social education to the adolescences and to improve the performance of learners to a level that would allow them entrance to the university.

1.8 Limitation of the Study

There is a possibility that some participants could have lied deliberately in order to paint a bad depiction of the situation. Some of the learners who did not want to participate might be those who could have shed more light on the problems encountered as individuals or groups. Despite these limitations encountered, the responses provided shed light on our understanding of the factors that contribute to the poor academic performance of the teenager who getting pregnancy in secondary schools.

1.9 Delimitation of the Study

The study focused on the investigation of the educator's attitudes and perception towards the teen mothers in secondary schools of Nzhelele West Circuit

1.10 Operational Definitions of Concepts

- **Educator**

For the purpose of this study the term will mean a teacher within the school situation who is teaching secondary school learners (Van Heerden, 1999:78).

- **Attitudes**

Attitudes will mean evaluated beliefs which predispose the individual to respond in a preferential way, that is, to react positively or negatively to some object, phenomena, person, situation, institution or event (Herelson, 1987:23).

from • **Teenage pregnancy** collapse (Helge, 1989) to the sexual abuse of powerless female adolescents (McGurk et al, 1993), and lastly public ignorance

A teenager is any person who is between thirteen and nineteen years old. In this study, teenager will mean a teenage girl. Pregnancy is a process between conception and childbirth. In this study, teenage pregnancy will mean when a teenage schoolgirl falls pregnant while she is still at school (Kayo 1994:90).

pregnancy and parenting are the leading reasons girls give for dropping out of school • **Secondary school learner** and Dunn (2006) adolescent childbearing is especially disruptive to the educational process of girls and, as a consequence,

This term will refer to any learner who is enrolled at a school that caters for grade seven to grade twelve level of education (Langa, 1994:90).

In South Africa, Grant and Halfon (2006) have shown that in most cases the 1.11 **Summary of the Literature Review** teen mothers. There are factors that influence whether or not a teen mother is able to continue schooling after the

Although literature exists on the effects of race and class on youth in South Africa, research into gender and education, and in particular the challenges young teen mothers go through when they go back to school, and how to address the challenges so that the girls are able to finish their schooling, remain limited. Examples of the few authors in this subject include Thody and Kaabwe (2000) who have highlighted the critical role of education and gender in Africa, and Leo-Rhynie (1999) who provided tools and sector-specific guidelines for gender mainstreaming.

forms of discrimination which included suspension from class were reported (Ministry of Education, 2006). Although it may be illegal to refuse a learner the opportunity to complete their schooling, since education is their human right (UNESCO 2003), authors like Wolpe et al (1997) have

Gender and Education

While the situation concerning teenage pregnancy and schooling problems is less accounted for locally, it is widely accounted for globally (Pillow, 2004; Lutrell, 2003; Chevalier and Viitanen, 2001; Ornstein and Levine, 1997; McGurk et al, 1993; Creatsas, 1993; Helge, 1989; Olivier, 1996). According to Mokgalabone (1999) the situation relating to pregnancy and schooling disturbances in South Africa are inevitably associated with societal problems. These problems range

from ignorance and moral collapse (Helge, 1989) to the sexual abuse of powerless female adolescents (McGurk et al, 1993), and lastly public ignorance about early menarche (De Villiers, 1991; Creatsas, 1993).

Mothers, peer pressure and school environment negatively affect teen mothers in coping with schooling. Research by Kaufman et al (2001) shows that both pregnancy and parenting are the leading reasons girls give for dropping out of school. According to Theron and Dunn (2006) adolescent childbearing is especially disruptive to the educational process of girls and, as a consequence, many teen mothers leave school and never return.

Causes of teenager pregnancy

In South Africa, Grant and Hallman (2006) have shown that in most cases the birth of a baby marks the end of schooling for the teen mothers. There are factors that influence whether or not a teen mother is able to continue schooling after the birth of the baby. Most of the factors depend on the girls' ability to manage logistics and finances associated with mothering and schooling simultaneously (Kaufman et al. 2001).

In the 2000 Commission on Gender Equity report to the South African Ministry of Education, it was stated that a number of complaints had been received from pregnant learners concerning the manner in which their schools had been treating them. Some forms of discrimination which included suspension from class were reported (Ministry of Education, 2000). Although it may be illegal to refuse pregnant girls an opportunity to complete their schooling, since education is their human right (UNESCO 2003), authors like Wolpe et al (1997) have lamented that some school committees in South Africa are often unwilling to allow the girls to continue attending classes for fear that they may 'influence' other girls and encourage them to become pregnant. The unwillingness is still practiced in many public schools.

into **Forum for Africa Women Educationalists** of pregnancy-related school disruptions (Lloyd et al. 2000; Howell and Lloyd 2005:34).

The Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE) has worked since 1992 to promote Education for Women through advocacy, concrete actions and policy reforms. In the mid-nineties, the Forum successfully lobbied the ministries of education in several African countries to change policies that excluded pregnant girls from re-entering school. In South Africa, a policy formalised in 1996 allows pregnant girls and mothering teens to continue schooling logistically and financially (Grant and Hallman, 2006:90).

Causes of teenager pregnancy (Bledsoe 1992; HSRC 2005), the resources and strategies that pregnant adolescents draw upon (Probst 1996; Kaufman et al. 2001:67), and the factors that influence whether or not a young woman returns to school following a

While pregnancy and teen mothering are major causes of secondary school drop out for girls, social, economic and cultural issues also make girls' school attendance a complex decision for the girls' parents. Some parents may not send girls to school because they consider the benefits of education for girls to be limited and the cost of sending them to school to be unnecessary for the family (Swainson et al 1998; Lloyd and Mensch, 1999:34)

This study comprises of five chapters.

School girl pregnancy

CHAPTER 1: ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

Although considerable attention has been paid to the prevalence of adolescent childbearing in the less developed world (see NRC 1993; Mensch et al. 1998; Singh 1998; Singh et al. 2000; NRC-IOM 2005), few data are available concerning the likelihood that a young woman will become pregnant while she is still enrolled in school. Where data are available they usually pertain to births rather than to pregnancy. In sub-Saharan Africa, the combined effects of increasing levels of school enrollment, delayed school entry, grade repetition, and periods of temporary withdrawal from school lead many young women to remain enrolled at the primary or junior secondary level well past puberty and

into their late teens, thus increasing their risk of pregnancy-related school disruptions (Lloyd et al. 2000; Hewett and Lloyd 2005:34).

Few studies examine the direct association between continued school enrolment and adolescent pregnancy. Various qualitative studies, many from Southern Africa, have attempted to examine aspects of this issue, most using focus-group discussions and semistructured interviews to identify policy factors perceived to contribute to the risk of schoolgirl pregnancy (HSRC 2005:45), what adolescents perceive to be the consequences of schoolgirl pregnancy (Bledsoe 1992; HSRC 2005), the resources and strategies that pregnant adolescents draw upon (Preston-Whyte 1990; Tanga and Uys 1996; Kaufman et al. 2001:67), and the factors that influence whether or not a young woman returns to school following a pregnancy (Kaufman et al. 2001:40; & Johnson-Hanks 2002; HSRC 2005:89). These studies have made a significant contribution to the way that schoolgirl pregnancy is conceptualized and have identified issues for policy intervention.

Chapter 5 is a summary of conclusion and recommendations.

1.12 Organisation of the Study

This study comprises of five chapters.

CHAPTER 1: ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

This first chapter provides introduction, background of the study, statement of the research problem, research objectives, delimitation, limitations, significance of the study, definition of the terms and organisation of the study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter 2 deals with a review of the related literature of causes of the teenager pregnancy, attitude of educators, education and gender, challenges faced by the

educators, Public perspectives on teenage pregnancy, Perception measurement, and Importance of Sexuality Education by Parents.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Chapter 3 provides the overall research design which outlines research design and methodology, and methods of data collection, sampling methods and size, ethical consideration and data analysis.

CHAPTER 4: DATA PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION ANALYSIS

Data analysis and data presentation is provided in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Chapter 5 is a summary of conclusion and recommendations.

The South African Schools Act (1996:2A-10) had to prevent the expulsion of pregnant school girls however the dropout rate resulting from pregnancy is still very high among girls. Mogoitane (1993: 11) views this as temporary while with other girls it may exist permanently. This may be the result of the lack of facilities within the schools for pregnant girls and teenage mothers and the lack of provision thereof by the Schools Act. Educators might be the cause of such high drop-out rate among pregnant teenagers. Masuku (1998:2) believes that negative attitudes of learners (boys and girls) is a major force that drives pregnant girls out of school. However Masuku did not look at educators' attitudes and how they treat pregnant girls within the school.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

With the increase in the rate of HIV/AIDS infection, teenage pregnancies and child rape the Department of Education saw a need to introduce sexuality education in schools, to supplement parental education. Thus, sex education became compulsory and was incorporated into the Life Orientation learning area, which was then implemented in schools since 2002. The intention of the researcher was to conduct a programme evaluation study to investigate whether the needs of the educators and learners were being met by the implementation of this sex education programme, as this is an area that has not yet been investigated. The focus of this chapter is on brief history of sex education in South Africa, as well as existing policies on sex education internationally followed by a literature review.

The South African Schools Act (1996:2A-10) had to prevent the expulsion of pregnant school girls however the dropout rate resulting from pregnancy is still very high among girls. Mogotlane (1993: 11) views this as temporary while with other girls it may exist permanently. This may be the result of the lack of facilities within the schools for pregnant girls and teenage mothers and the lack of provision thereof by the Schools Act. Educators might be the cause of such high drop out rate among pregnant teenagers. Masuku (1998:2) believes that negative attitude of learners (boys and girls) is a major force that drives pregnant girls out of school. However Masuku did not look at educators' attitudes and how they treat pregnant girls within the school.

2.2 Pregnancy-related school dropouts

Even when studies focus on pregnancy-related school dropout, they do not address directly the question of which schoolgirls who become pregnant are likely to drop out of school. In most settings, if a girl becomes visibly pregnant, she is required to withdraw. If a young woman terminates her pregnancy before it is visible, however, school dropout can be avoided. Despite high rates of teenage pregnancy and the availability since 1996 of legal termination-of pregnancy services in South Africa, many adolescents are not aware of such services (SADOH, 1999:45) and availability of these services in public facilities is still lacking (Dickson et al. 2003:67).

Edmonds (2004:11) finds that receipt among elderly household residents of the Statistics on use of abortion services among adolescents are not readily available. One hospital based study in Soweto found the prevalence of legal abortion among pregnant teenagers to be 16 percent in 2001 (Buchmann et al. 2002:89). Meekers and Ahmed (1999:134) examine the probability of prior school dropout among pregnant women, but, because of data limitations, provide no control for whether the woman was enrolled in school at the time of her pregnancy. In contrast, Eloundou-Enyégué (2004:78) examines the relative role of pregnancy- and non-pregnancy-related school dropout in shaping the gender gap in educational attainment, but does not address what happens to girls who become pregnant while enrolled in school but do not drop out at that time. The broader literature on school dropout provides many insights that are relevant for determining dropout among pregnant schoolgirls, however; selected studies are discussed below.

In South Africa, even though little gender difference is found in educational attainment (Case and Deaton 1999; Lam 1999; UNDFW 2000:12), some researchers have given attention to the factors associated with female dropout (Fuller and Liang 1999; Hunter and May 2002:121). These studies focus on the association between a household's economic resources, its social structure, its

labor demands, and the continued schooling of young women. Using a non-cause-specific hazard model for the factors associated with school dropout, Fuller and Liang (1999:10) found an association between a family's financial strength, measured by level of household expenditure and access to credit, and the likelihood that a daughter will remain in school. In an earlier study conducted in Botswana, they found that household-asset ownership and housing quality were also consistently related to girls' educational attainment; these reflected the accumulated wealth and investment attitude of the household better than did short-term measures of consumption (Fuller et al. 1995, cited in Fuller and Liang 1999:45).

giving demands for the baby would otherwise make the girl's return to school prohibitively difficult. An ethnographic study in Cameroon indicated that Edmonds (2004:11) finds that receipt among elderly household residents of the state old-age pension in South Africa significantly increases school attendance of coresident children. Although education is a household investment that is often protected from external shocks (Moser 1996:77; Hunter and May 2002:9), the ability of a household to sustain this long-term investment may be hampered by short- and intermediate-term economic difficulties and labor demands. An adolescent's unwanted pregnancy not only endangers the long-term investment made in a daughter's education (NRC 1993:12), but also creates additional financial issues that poor households may be unable to handle. Qualitative results from the recent HSRC (2005:33) rural schooling study in South Africa indicate that among the small proportion of schoolgirls who apply for and receive the state child-support grant after giving birth, even though the money is seen as an important source of poverty relief for the extended family, it causes tension within the household. Some girls reported that the benefit of receiving the grant was more than offset by the additional hardships that having a baby imposes upon their lives.

the study sample consisted of all women aged 19-34 who had ever attended school and were unmarried at the time of their first birth, without Household labor demands also influence the likelihood that a young woman will remain in school whether or not she is pregnant. Fuller and Liang (1999:1) found that a mother's participation in the formal wage sector may depress a daughter's

likelihood of remaining in school, perhaps as a result of increased household labor demands. Hallman and her colleagues (2005:44) found that urban mothers of preschoolers in Guatemala are more likely to work for pay and work more hours when daughters aged 15–18 are coresident. Another analysis from urban Brazil indicates that girls aged 10 and older are a major source of childcare for preschoolers in their household (Connelly et al. 1996:112).

The public debate has at the issue of teenage pregnancy from different perspectives. The availability of other adult women in the household to share domestic responsibilities may be even more critical following childbirth to an adolescent when caregiving demands for the baby would otherwise make the girl's return to school prohibitively difficult. An ethnographic study in Cameroon indicated that young women sent their children to live in the father's household or otherwise relinquished parental rights to other relatives in order to continue their education (Johnson-Hanks 2002:100). Qualitative research in South Africa found that some young women marry or move into their partner's home following a pregnancy, and are thereby subject to the financial and labor priorities of their new household, which may not place a priority on their continuing education (Kaufman et al. 2001:45). Maharaj and her colleagues (2000:12) demonstrate that adolescent mothers whose children are not coresident are more likely to be attending school currently.

Although coresidence with parents may be an important indicator of the social support systems available to a young woman, Meekers and Ahmed (1999:56) found that women who lived with their parents at the time of their first pregnancy were two times more likely than women who lived elsewhere to have dropped out of primary school as a result of pregnancy. This finding may not be entirely clear, however, because the study sample consisted of all women aged 19–34 who had ever attended school and were unmarried at the time of their first birth, without reference to the mother's age at first birth or whether she was enrolled in school at the time of her first pregnancy. Without these controls, the likelihood of pregnancy-related primary-school dropout is a closer proxy to the timing of first

birth, because older women who are no longer living with their parents or enrolled in school when they become pregnant are clearly less likely to have a pregnancy-related school dropout.

Other public members believe that when secondary schools offer day care likely to graduate at a rate approaching that of non-pregnant teenagers. The public is divided into two

2.3 Public perspectives on teenage pregnancy

The public (adults) look at the issue of teenage pregnancy from different perspectives. Parents do not communicate with their children on issues of sex and the use of contraceptives. They might be aware that their children are undergoing change and are engaging in sexual activities but they prefer not to know what they are doing. This is according to Greathead (1998:34), associated with parents' view that talking about sex and contraceptive objectively confirms or encourage sexual activity on teenagers. This is running away from their responsibilities. Teenage pregnancy is normally wrong and the effects of the costs and its aftermath should be communicated to teenagers. One parent, in a study conducted by Kaya (1994:67), believes that causes of premarital pregnancies and massive problems many teenage mothers face in trying to further the life changes of their children must not be hidden. Finally, the pregnant

teenager absents herself from school because she has to attend antenatal clinic. Some parents have noticed that condemnation and resentment of unmarried mothers have little effect on teenage pregnancy rate. This has very little effect on the decision by young people to be sexually active. Should teenage mothers be assisted in raising their children? This question has raised eyebrows in many people all over the world. Logically the introduction of state child grant got mixed reaction from the public. There are those who believe that when teenagers get pregnant; the state will support by offering free medical or health care. When the baby is born, he/she becomes entitled to R260.00 grant. Once the baby is a year or older the teenager plans another pregnancy in order to increase the income. Eventually we find teenagers with 3 or 4 very weak, unhealthy babies within a short period of time. Those people believe that state child grant promotes

teenage pregnancy. Perverse incentive incites teenagers to get pregnant and get paid for that (Neubeck, 1986:56).

Other public members believe that when secondary schools offer day care centres (facility), teenage mothers are increasingly likely to graduate at a rate approaching that of non pregnant teenagers. The public is divided into two mutually exclusive categories on whether to prevent sexual activity on teenagers or to provide contraceptives. The former group focuses on helping young people to say no to sex (Luker, 1996:34). This is viewed by the public as having very little effect on the use of contraceptives. The latter group focuses on contraceptive use and skills. This is viewed by the public as ineffective in teaching young people to avoid sex. There should be consensus between these two methods and results must be seen to assist in bringing down the rate of pregnancy on teenagers.

2.4 The consequences of teenage pregnancy and teenage parenting

Pregnancy leads to loss of time to learn in two ways. Firstly, the pregnant teenager absents herself from school because she has to attend antenatal clinic. Secondly pregnancy in teenagers is associated with morning sickness which may lead to teenager absenting herself from school or being in class physically but mentally and absent. Once the baby is born, the teenage mother needs more time parenting the baby. This responsibility is also carried out during the night; which leaves the teenager with less time to study and do homework. There will be limited time to sleep. The teenager will fail to concentrate in the classroom because she is drowsy and exhausted. Poor performance in school subjects leads to failure and a year is wasted (Mogotlane, 1993:11).

2.5 Attitudes measurement

Attitude measurement is the measurement of the cognitive component of an attitude. McKenna (2000:269) sees attitude as multifaceted, therefore it is preferable to use an attitude scale composed of many questions. He believes that attitudes cannot be directly observed but can be measured indirectly. Burns defines attitude scale as involving the application of standardized questionnaires to enable individuals to be placed on a dimension indicating the degree of favorability towards the object in question. The assignment to a position on a dimension is based on individual's agreement or disagreement with a number of statements relevant to the attitude object (Burns, 2000:555).

Among the widely used techniques are Thurstone scale, Likert scale and the Osgood's semantic differential scale. In Thurstone scale, the researcher selects a large number of statements covering a full range of attitudes towards the object topic in question. Then a number of individuals is asked to judge the degree to which each statement expresses a positive or negative attitude towards the object. In Likert type scale the individual is not only asked to indicate agreement or disagreement, but also to signify how strongly he/she agrees or disagrees with a number of statements relevant to the attitude being measured. This is normally done on a 5 point scale or 7 point scale. The Osgood's semantic differential has three major rating factors (dimensions of judgment). An evaluative factor rate the object on a good-to-bad dimension. The potency factor involves the rating of strong -to-weak dimension. The activity factor is concerned with the active -to-passive dimension (Burns 2000:561).

2.6 The nature of perception of educators towards teenage pregnancy

This study aims to find out what the nature of educators is with regard to teenage pregnancy components, that is, the cognitive feelings and action tendency. The cognitive component incorporate beliefs, perceptions and expectations of an

individual about the attitude object. This may be negative or positive stereotype. The affective (feeling) component is pleasing or displeasing emotions about an object. Action tendency deals with the behaviour readiness of an individual connection with the object of the attitude. If the attitude is hostile, it presupposes an action to punish, injure or destroy the object. If the attitude is favourable it presupposes the action of helping, nursing, protecting; supporting the object of an attitude. Nzimande (1970:24) believes that these components of attitude have direction (that is, favourable or unfavorable) and the strength (intensity, that is, strongly hostile or strongly favourable).

Educators tend to polarise, falling into two opposite extremes. There is no neutrality in their attitude. Negative attitude of educators is shown by the stigmas which accompany pregnancy in schools (Davidow, 1998:8). The study by Davidow (1998:12) shows that, pregnant girls are mocked and ill-treated by educators to the extent that they would leave school without the knowledge of the principal. In her interview with educators, Masuku (1998:2) educators cited the lack of training and equipment to help pregnant girls creates a negative attitude. Educators, on the other side, show support and help the pregnant teenagers. In one study the teachers believes that the school should be equipped to cater for pregnant teenager. The provision of a school nurse was recommended by educators. This shows willingness to help but lack of skills and training is a buffer.

2.7 Importance of Sex Education to Learners by Parents

Sexuality education is a lifelong process of acquiring information and forming attitudes, beliefs and values about identity, relationships and intimacy. It encompasses sexual development, reproductive health, interpersonal relationships, affection, intimacy, body image and gender roles. The behavioural approach to personality has three principles. The first principle is that all behaviour patterns are learned. One can explain the differences between people

in the way they behave by showing that they have been through different learning experiences (Louw & Edwards, 1994:23). The second principle is that behaviour can best be understood as a collection of learned habits. These behaviouralists believe that instead of looking for personality traits or general character logical structures to account for personality differences, we should study how particular habits are acquired. This will explain how and why one person's habits differ from those of another.

The third principle is that we need to look at the persons observable habits. These behaviouralists recognized that we cannot understand people and help them change, unless we know about their experiences, their thinking patterns, desires and emotions. It is worth mentioning that the behavioural approach was too narrow, but some behaviouralists used the principle as basis for developing their own theories. The same principles can be used to educate adolescents because they also learn certain behaviour patterns as they grow up (Nkosi, 1988:78).

The good or bad patterns will provide evidence and testimony to the adolescents learned behaviours. Sometimes adolescents learn certain behaviours from their peers. The behavioural approach to personality can also help in understanding a collection of learned habits as demonstrated by parents in their own upbringing, when they were adolescents themselves. Parents also have learned habits, which may inhibit them from educating their adolescents about sexuality. Cultural inhibitions and taboos for instance are learned. Other people, social norms, intentions and extraneous, uncontrollable restrictions could inhibit parents from talking about sexuality to their adolescents. When attitudes are strong, central and meaningful to a person then they will relate more strongly to behaviour (Ajzen, 1988:76).

The social learning theory advocated by Bandura provides that we can learn about the consequences of behaviour without experiencing these consequences

directly (vicarious learning) and we can imitate the behaviour of others and learn complex new behaviours without having to discover them ourselves through trial and error (Louw & Edwards, 1994:34). Bandura also contributed to the concept of self-efficacy. He stated that a person who has a high score in self-efficacy will be thinking thoughts like: This is difficult but I can deal with the situation, or if I succeed it will be great, but if I don't, it will not be the end of the world". Self-efficacy is necessary in life as it propels an individual to venture into new territories without fear of failure and humiliation. The self-efficacy theory is important for personality theory, as it demonstrates that thinking patterns are closely linked to emotions and behaviour. Furthermore, self-efficacy demonstrates the cognitive basis of the trait called self-confidence. Lastly, it demonstrates that retraining can modify an important personality trait. This is the training parents must undergo, to be able to impress these positive principles upon their children.

If parents refuse or fail to play their roles, the deaths we witness in South Africa today will not stop. There must be ways of encouraging attitude change of parents. Adolescents must also be trained to resist negative media pressure. Some adolescents fall into the trap of being one-night stands. It is amazing how being a one-night stand can ruin one's life.

This could be a life changing experience. Again, adolescents think everything they see on television, newspapers; Internet etc. should be imitated because it is cool (good). Without the life skills adolescents would acquire from sexuality education offered by their own parents and guardians, they will not be able delay the onset of sexual activity, negotiate condom use with their sexual partners, resist negative peer pressure, avoid teenage pregnancy and know the importance of thinking, planning and self-determination in human behaviour. Drug abuse is rife in our country and in the world, and so is alcohol abuse. These young adults do things they regret, when the unthinkable happens and they are in prison. Equipping them with skills and healthy attitudes is an absolute

necessity. Sexuality lessons are first learned from parents who have the primary responsibility for providing sexuality education for their children (Synovitz et al., 2002:34). These authors go further to state that as a child starts primary and secondary schooling; the responsibility expands to engage teachers. The community as well has an obligation to provide sexuality education programmes. Sexuality is a lifelong process that encompasses the biological, emotional, psychological and social domains and is a natural and healthy part of living. Proper sexuality education assists the youth, teenagers and adolescents in understanding sexuality, engendering a positive view of sexuality and helping them make responsible decisions regarding their sexual health.

2.8 School Environment

According to Saiduddin (2003:2), it is a convenient scapegoat to pass the blame and responsibility for the low academic performance to factors such as socio-economic status, family, culture and the learner being less intelligent than the others. Research conducted at high schools in South Dakota has shown that all learners are educate able, and that the way in which the school is managed is the most critical factor in determining the quality of education for its learners. Researchers at the Ohio State University attribute the academic failure to the economic and social conditions while administrators and educators have also developed this mindset. The study was undertaken at a high school on the Pine Ridge Reservation, South Dakota. This argument can be disputed based on the status quo of most rural schools in South Africa because how can learners perform well in chemistry, life science, and physical science without the necessary facilities (laboratory) and chemicals that are necessary for them to perform experiments.

2.8.1 Motivation to learn

A study in England noted many factors that influence both the rate and enjoyment of learning. Once an individual has experienced something, and has stored that experience, he is able to refer to and use it at a later stage. As such, learning and memory are inextricably linked. The reward and punishment levelled at learners in the past will affect their motivation and attitude towards learning in the present. The expectations of others and the climate which surround learners will determine their readiness to learn, which in turn will result in learners performing poorly academically (Mullins, 2005:39). Another study suggests that maintenance of high motivation influences psychological and social functioning and facilitates academic performance as well as positive school perceptions (Gilman & Anderman, 2006: 375-391).

2.8.2 Attitude towards learning

Attitudes are learned throughout life and are embodied within our socialisation process. All of us observe others and assess attitudes on the basis of communication style (verbal and nonverbal) and behaviour. This is an example of an informal approach, which is spontaneous and based on our understanding of social cues. We may be wrong in our judgment of learners who turn up late for classes and do not ask questions, but they may still hold very positive attitudes towards the subject that was being presented at that time. The negative attitude towards learning could result in learners performing poorly preventing them from obtaining required results for university entrance (Mullins, 2005: 365).

2.8.3 Substance abuse

Cunningham (1994:272) found that 94% of high school learners at Pine Ridge Reservation have used alcohol. He indicated that drinking among this age group is considered 'normal' where males are twice as likely as females to drink daily,

which disturbs their concentration and their level of performance at school. In South Africa, the problem of learners abusing alcohol is also an issue that needs serious attention since most rural schools are near liquor outlets. Marijuana and cigarettes are easily accessible to learners these days; it becomes even more difficult for educators to control learners who use such substances. The abuse of such substances impairs the learner's ability to learn and respond to questions relating to the learned information.

In most cases of the crime committed at schools substance abuse is involved. Research conducted by Colorado State University (Hodgkinson, 1990:88) points out that more than a third of the African Americans adolescents use marijuana on a regular basis, compared to only 5% regular users among White Americans. It is assumed that crime and unbecoming behaviour at schools were the result of substance abuse. This problem is becoming a threat to our high school learners because of the accessibility of substances (alcohol, marijuana, cigarettes, and drugs).

2.9 Potential Consequences

There are thus numerous factors, besides pregnancy, that lead to school leaving. Some of the major reasons for leaving school before the end of Grade 12 include:

- Poverty,
- Frustration associated with the inexperience of teachers,
- A lack of relevance of the curriculum and teaching materials,
- The absence of parents at home, and
- The need to care for siblings or sick family members (Human Sciences Research Council, 2007:23).

2.9.1 The disruption of schooling

The relationship between early pregnancy and school disruption is complicated. Data presented in Macleod (1999a) indicated that many young women who became mothers in fact left school before pregnancy. More recently, 20.6% of the pregnant teenagers in the survey conducted by Manzini (2001:89) in KwaZulu-Natal had left school prior to conceiving. The 2003 General Household Survey statistics indicate that of all the females who had dropped out of school, only 13% cited pregnancy as a reason (Crouch, 2005:45). Nevertheless, this is higher than the 10.3% in the household survey conducted amongst urban black youth by Richter (1996:78), prior to the introduction of the Schools Act, which prevents discrimination against pregnant learners. For those who leave because of pregnancy, a significant new factor may be the Department of Education's (2007:11) guidelines entitled „Measures for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy“ that makes it possible for educators to „request“ that learners take a leave of absence of up to two years.

Biddecom and Bakilana's (2003:90) investigation of the transition to adulthood through significant events in young people's lives (first sex, stopping school, pregnancy, birth and union) provides a glimpse into the complexity of the sequencing of these events. The researchers conclude that adolescents seldom experience all five events during their teenage years, and that there is "more disorder than order in terms of the variety of combinations and chronological sequences of important social and family formation transitions" (p. 15). Studies reviewed in Macleod (1999a) indicated that a substantial minority of pregnant or mothering young women did not plan to return to school.

More recent evidence gives a better picture of actual returns (as opposed to plans to return). Manzini (2001:78) found that 48% of young women who left school because of pregnancy returned to school. The major reason cited for not returning to school was the need to care for the child. In the survey by Grant and

Hallman (2006) 29% of the 14-19 year-old women and 52% of the 20-24 year-old women who had dropped out of school had returned. With every year that passes the chance of a return to school diminishes, with very little chance of return after four years (Grant & Hallman, 2006:90).

According to the 2003 SADHS, compared to pregnant women 20 to 34 years old. Various reasons for drop-out and return have been explored. Lloyd (2005:112) ascribes the drop-out rates to the child support grants (see later discussion of the controversy regarding this). Grant and Hallman (2006:23) found that prior poor school performance (e.g. non-pregnancy-related repetition of grades) and having to be the primary caregiver for the child are strongly associated with the likelihood of dropping out when pregnant. In terms of returning to school, Kaufman, De Wet and Stadler (2000:124) suggest that the increased bride price that accompanies higher educational status is a motivating factor for parental support in this regard.

Grant and Hallman's (2006:88) data suggest that young women are more likely to return to school if they have never repeated a grade or withdrawn temporarily from school before, and if they live with an adult female. The presence of older female relatives allows a young mother to relinquish domestic duties to older women and return to school. Young women who marry and move to their husband's household may, however, have increased domestic responsibilities and there may be less support for their continued education (Matthews, et al., 2008:89).

2.9.2 Early reproduction and health

The studies cited in Macleod (1999a) that had a health focus tried to tease out the obstetric outcomes of early pregnancy. Some of these studies showed increased risks, while others ascribed the risk to socio-economic status or poor antenatal care. We failed to locate any recent South African research on the obstetric outcomes of early pregnancy. Instead the focus has shifted to concerns

over the increased risk for young women in terms of contracting HIV (Jewkes, Vundule, Maforah & Jordaan, 2001:11) and the level of antenatal care young pregnant women receive.

According to the 2003 SADHS, compared to pregnant women 20 to 34 years old, pregnant women under the age of 20 are more likely to receive care from a nurse or midwife than from a doctor and are more likely not to receive care at all. The components of antenatal care also reflect less adequate antenatal care for younger women compared to women in the age category of 20 to 34 years. They are less likely to be informed of the signs of pregnancy complications, to have their weight, height and blood pressure measured, to have urine and blood samples taken or to receive iron supplements.

2.10 The outcomes of early reproduction for children

Research reviewed in Macleod (1999a:8) pointed to inadequate mothering, neglect, maltreatment and abuse as consequences of early childbearing. The concern about whether these effects were owing to the age of the mother or constraints imposed by poverty were raised. Interestingly, we were not able to locate any recent research that spoke to the issue of mothering or neglect/abuse. Neonatal mortality is the probability of dying within the first month of life; post-neonatal mortality is the difference between infant and neonatal mortality; infant mortality is the probability of dying in the first year of life; child mortality is the probability of dying between exact age one and five; under-five mortality is the probability of dying between birth and exact age five).

2.11 Welfare concerns – the child support grant

Macleod (1999a) reported that concerns around welfare dependency were a feature of the Euro-American, but not the South African, literature on teen-aged pregnancy. This is no longer true. With the introduction of the child support grant

(CSG), research on the possibility of the CSG acting as a „perverse incentive“ has been conducted. The popular concern, as raised in the South African media, that young women are deliberately conceiving in order to access the CSG is supported, to a certain extent, by the PPASA (2003:45) survey in which it was found that 12.1% of pregnant teen-aged women who had deliberately conceived cited the CSG as the reason.

However, other research (Department of Social Development, 2006; Makiwane & Udjo, 2006:2) concludes that there is no evidence that the CSG leads to a „perverse incentive“ to conceive. These authors base their conclusion on the following: (1) early fertility decreased after the introduction of the CSG; (2) only 20% of teen-aged mothers are beneficiaries of these grants; (3) older female relatives who take over care of the child are often beneficiaries rather than the teen-aged mothers; (4) of those who would qualify for the grant, the proportion of teen-aged mothers taking them up is considerably lower than those in older age groups; and (5) during the period in which the CSG has been offered, rates of termination of pregnancy have increased.

Indeed, the fact that many young women who are eligible for the grant are not receiving it should be of concern. In general, the CSG is associated with an increase in school attendance, and improved child health and nutrition, which in turn contributes to school-readiness of the child, as well as extra money to pay for school fees and uniforms (Case, Hosegood & Lund, 2005:88).

The concern about the social cost of early reproduction through teen-aged mothers depending on welfare has also been criticised within the United States. Researchers compared teen-aged mothers with teenagers who were pregnant but had a miscarriage (i.e. who would have been mothers had the miscarriage not occurred). Their conclusions are startling; given the usual assumption in the United States that early reproduction contributes to welfare dependency. They state that if all teenagers delayed childbearing, public assistance expenditure

would increase slightly and that the lifetime earnings of these women would decrease (Hotz, McElroy & Sander, 1996:94).

2.12 Attitude formation

In the formation of attitudes, personality and socialisation are two important variables. Personality, in terms of introversion or extroversion, is said to create a disposition favourable or unfavourable to the acceptance of attitudes. Membership to a group (that is, socialisation) can be influential in determining the attitudes of individual. Socialising influence at work also play a role in the formation of attitudes. It is widely acknowledged that, during training, professional people develop attitudes towards the practice of their chosen vocation that colour their vision and affect their approach to the reality of the work situation. The nature of the attitudes may vary according to the extent to which it is more cognitive or more emotional, which is reflected in the behavioural component, through which the attitude becomes perceptible. According to Bergh and Theron,(1999: 186), some attitudes are relatively stable and difficult to change.

These are central attitudes and they form part of individual's personality structure and are related to individual's self concept. Other attitudes are regarded as peripheral attitudes, as they are temporary and subject to change. Attitudes may be based on beliefs. The cognitive aspect of an attitude is related to individual's value system, that is, the internal frame of reference which directs his/her behaviour. An individual with a humanistic value system, for example, will have a favourable attitude towards democracy and related beliefs on social and political issues. In the work situation this value system may affect his/her attitude towards co-workers and subordinates in that these attitudes will be based on beliefs upholding human dignity, liberty, equality and solidarity (Bergh & Theron, 1999:187).

Different researchers define attitudes in different ways. Nkosi (1988) defines attitude as acting favourably or unfavorably towards an object. Hawkins and Alien (1991:88) see attitude as a way of thinking or a settled opinion. Nimbi (2002:19) defines attitude as the individual's tendency to react positively or negatively to some person, object, situation, institution or event. Govender (2002:7) views attitude as a settled opinion or a way of thinking or a feeling directed towards something. Attitude, according to McKenna (2000: 253) helps individuals to adopt a stable view of the world in which they live. Attitudes facilitate the organisation of diverse thoughts into a coherent pattern, thus reducing the uncertainty and allow individuals to operate without the discomfort of having to evaluate all stimuli in order to make correct responses. An insight into the attitudes of others helps us to understand and interact with them.

Attitudes determine the meaning of facts and situations. An individual may protect his/her attitude by rationalizing about facts that conflict with the attitude (Bergh & Theron 1999: 187). The research that shows that males ascribe male manager's success to intelligence and competence while ascribing success of female managers to luck and favourable circumstances illustrate this point.

Studies conducted by such researchers as Govender (2002), Ntshole (2002)

2.13 Educators' attitudes in relation to educational level

Among the issues, which occur in the study of the attitude, is the relationship between attitudes and the level of education of an individual. Dressel and Hehmann (Nene, 1969: 10) observed that senior students no longer accepted specific tenets or dogma of their particular church after being subjected to the influence of university education. This observation suggests that college education affected the attitude of the students towards education and religion. These findings demonstrated the fact that the exposure to college education had a broadening effect on the attitudes and items of students. In her study on attitudes of parents towards teenage pregnancy, Zama (1991:12) found that educated parents send their teenage daughters back to school after child birth.

Parents with less education maintain that teenage mothers should remain at home or go to work. Dallirnore (2002:3) found that adolescents who have low educational aspirations and do not do well at school are also more likely to become sexually active at an earlier age. In most studies on relationship between factors of education and ethnic prejudice, it is noticed that there is a tendency of a decrease in ethnic prejudice when the educational level of an individual becomes higher (Nzimande, 1970:26). [s this the case in the way highly qualified educators view teenage pregnancy? Are highly educated educators positive in their attitude with regard to learners who fall pregnant at schools, when compared with less qualified educators? This study is trying to find that relationship, if it exists, and its extent.

2.14 Educators' approaches in relation to gender

Gender is one of the educators' characteristics, which might influence their attitudes. There is much literature that deals with the existence or non existence of the relationship between respondent's gender and the attitude displayed. Studies conducted by such researchers as Govender (2002); Ntsholo (2002) Medical Research Council (2002); Majova (2002) show the significant relationship between gender and attitudes. Mallam (Ntsoko, 2002) finds that girls attending all girls' high school have a highly positive attitude towards Mathematics than those females attending mixed schools. He further concluded in his findings that having a male educator should discourage females from studying Mathematics. Ntsholo (2002: 35) believes that biasness of educator exists due to gender type roles. In her study she discovered that males and females differ in their attitude towards Mathematics.

The study by the Medical research Council (2002:77) showed gender as a predictor of condom use, with more males than females reporting having used condoms. Males and females were found to differ in their attitudes towards sex

education in a study conducted by Majova (2002:45). Majova concluded that gender influences secondary school learners' attitude towards sex education (Majova, 2002: 35). Zama (1991:89) found that 60% of the sample respondent angrily and were shocked by teenage pregnancy. Males were angered most by teenage pregnancy. Gender stereotype plays a very important role in attitude function. It is common for males to insist that a woman bear full responsibility for contraception. This is what Newbeck (1986:122) called institutional sexism.

It is not true that basic biological and psychological differences between sexes require each to play such a sex delineating roles in social life. Sex roles vary from society to society and those roles differences that do exist are learned. Newbeck (1986: 287-294) stated that most boys and girls find it easier to live up to their parents expectations. Many parents are becoming conscious of the negative impact of sex role stereotype. Boys' attitudes are therefore influenced by these sex role stereotypes. Sibaya (1984: 69) did not find any relationship between sex and perception in his study. He concluded that helping behaviour was independent of the sex. Other researchers confirmed this belief in their studies.

In a survey by Planned Parenthood Association of South Africa (PPASA), Govender (2002: 60) confirmed the null hypothesis which said there is no significant relationship between gender of respondent and the attitude towards school desegregation. In another study, Ntsholo (2002: 38) found that learners did not differ in their attitudes towards the use of calculator. Nkosi (1988) failed to establish relationship between gender of respondents and their attitudes towards new nursing diploma. In their study of 207 Black teenagers, Banks and Wilson (Makhanya, 1993:234) found that 49.3% of boys compared to 26.6% of girls indicated that the birth control is the responsibility of the girls only. It becomes clear from the studies that are discussed that the role of gender in respondents' attitudes cannot be ignored.

2.16 Child Support Grant causes Teenage Pregnancy

Theories of fertility (and family size) which allow for optimizing behaviour in this field will attach significance to the net cost of rearing children where these costs may actually be negative in environments where child labour is useful for subsistence purposes or is in demand in the labour market. Clearly a CSG will reduce the cost of child-rearing. The effect is likely to be more marked in poor households, where male budgetary control is strong and favours adult male consumption and reflects high rates of time preference.

Could it be that this fertility effect might also be present in poor families where there is little control but high rates of time preference by young woman generating higher teenage or single-parent pregnancies? There is hearsay evidence which is loosely consistent with this view. "My life has gotten better since I get R170 (each) for the three children. Woman is reported as saying. They [the ANC] care about us. I see more women having babies because they know they can get this [Child- Care] grant (Deane, 2004).

In a survey by Planned Parenthood Association of South Africa (PPASA), respondents were asked about circumstances under which teenage fall pregnant. According to some respondents girls fall pregnant so that they can get the CSG (PPASA 2003:29). Hassim (2005:19) says CSG is responsible for increasing teenage pregnancy. Girls misuse the CSG: they spend it on things like 'clothing and lipstick' this is supported by a claim by the Minister of Social Development that women have 'rented' out their children to their friends so as to access the CSG. There is nickname for CSG: thigh grant, meaning that girls 'spread their thighs' to get the grant.

2.17 Conclusion

This chapter highlighted different views which have been brought by a number of researchers on attitudes and various educator characteristics that may have influence on attitudes. Different views of the public on teenage pregnancy confirmed that there are disadvantages of teenage pregnancy even though teenagers may find some advantages of it. Attitude in relation to characteristics like, age, gender, religious affiliation, race, level of education and work experience was discussed.

These views showed that there are very few, if any, parents who are happy when their teenagers fall pregnant. Every parent is dreaming of seeing his/her girl developing normally until she gets married before engaging in sex and child bearing, but parents are not playing their role in accompanying the teenagers to the ultimate goal of adulthood. One wonders if this journey to proper adulthood can occur without parents playing their role. The next chapter will deal with research design and methodology, the collection of data and sampling design.

The study follows a quantitative research paradigm and is descriptive in nature. This study aimed at precisely measuring and reporting the characteristics of the phenomenon under investigation. In descriptive research there is no random assignment of participants into groups. Participants in this study were already members of various levels of variables (Huysman, 1994:97). Descriptive approach will provide clarification and description of accurate information about educators' attitudes and that will permit generalization. This approach is suitable because it tests factual hypotheses (Glass & Higson, Smith, 2000:83).

Neuman (2002: 22) states that much of social research is descriptive in nature. Descriptive approach is seen by Govender (2002: 40) as an accurate quantitative account of a phenomenon rather than discovering the cause of it. It answers the question how and who, not why. According to Majova (2002: 21), in descriptive

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to outline the research methodology adopted to conduct this survey and to reflect on choices made by the researcher in operationalising it. Mouton (2001:89) states that, the research methodology focuses on the research process and the kind of tools and procedures to be used. De Vos et al. (2002:12) argue that in this section of the study the research methodology is described comprehensively so that the reader develops confidence in the methods used. According to Mouton (2001:78), research methodology indicates how the researcher intends conducting the study. This study conducted in Nzhelele West Circuit of Vhembe district, Limpopo Province.

3.2 Research design and methodology

The study follows a quantitative research paradigm and is descriptive in nature. This study aimed at precisely measuring and reporting the characteristics of the phenomenon under investigation. In descriptive research there is no random assignment of participants into groups. Participants in this study were already members of various levels of variables (Huysamen, 1994:97). Descriptive approach will provide clarification and description of accurate information about educators' attitudes and that will permit generalization. This approach is suitable because it tests factual hypotheses (Bless & Higson, Smith, 2000:63).

Neuman (2002: 22) states that much of social research is descriptive in nature. Descriptive approach is seen by Govender (2002: 40) as an accurate quantitative account of a phenomenon rather than discovering the cause of it. It answers the question how and who, not why. According to Majova (2002: 21), in descriptive

research there is no manipulation of subjects. The researcher measures things as they are. Descriptive study provides answers to the research question. Majova (2002:22) believes that this approach is suitable in cases where time and resources are limited. Descriptive study provides an accurate profile of a group and presents a picture of the specific details of a situation, status of events, social setting or relationship (Ntsholo, 2002: 23-24).

The researcher began with a well defined subject and conducted research to describe it accurately. In describing the subject, the researcher found out how many members of a population have specific attribute or how often certain events occur. In descriptive study; the researcher establishes the boundaries of research problem. The results of this study therefore indicated the percentage of educators who hold positive or negative attitudes towards teenage pregnancy. The study was conducted in a small area; hence it cannot be called a survey. This study described the nature of challenges faced by educators within the Nzhelele West Circuit have towards teenage pregnancy. The researcher attempted, to find out if educators' characteristics have any influence on the perceptions educators have.

3.5 Sampling Size

3.3 Population of the Study

In this study, the research sample consisted 70 participants. There were 40 The sample is a portion of the population. The information was obtained from selected participants who are rich in information and easy to reach (Schurink, in De Vos 1998). The population of this study was composed of educators, teen mothers and parents at the Mushaathama and George Mbulaheni secondary at Nzhelele West Circuit.

3.4 Sampling Procedure

The aim of sampling is to identify parameters for gathering data and to select participants who will be knowledgeable about the phenomenon under study (Polit

& Hungler, 1995). In this study, probability sampling was very important, as the aim was to make exact statements about the population under study on the basis of the results of the study.

The sampling technique was very important to accurately generalize results from this sample to the entire parent population of the school. The reason for having samples from the above-mentioned areas was to ensure that participants were matched on the basis of their socio-economic status. Demographic factors like race, age, ethnicity, geographical position, language (Tshivenda) and location were taken into cognizance.

By so doing, biases and extraneous factors were eliminated. Qualifying conditions were set for respondents to be contained in the sample. The parent or guardian should have a child of between thirteen and twenty years of age who goes to this school. The participant's residential area had to be one of those mentioned above. The sample comprised single fathers, single mothers, parents living together and guardians (aunts, grannies etc.).

3.7 Ethical considerations

3.5 Sampling Size

In this study, the research sample constituted 70 participants. There were 48 learners from the two high schools (Mushaathama and George Mbulaheni), 10 parents, 10 educators and 2 principals. There were more females than males. Out of 48 learners, 38 were females and 10 were males, 5 females and 5 males represented the educators. All 10 parents were females and both principals were males. In terms of gender the sample of 70 constituted 53 females and 17 males.

3.6 Methods of Data Collection

Both primary and secondary data was used for this study. Secondary data was obtained from government publications, research publications and reports.

3.6.1 Questionnaire Survey

In order to supplement the interview data, a questionnaire was also administered to 48 students, 10 educators, 10 Parents and 2 Principals in the selected schools to find out how they accept and relate with the teen mothers. The questionnaire respondents were drawn from classes where at least one of the learners is a teen mother so that their responses are based on their observations and experiences as they are in contact with their teen mother classmate(s) on a daily basis. The teachers who responded to the questionnaire were those that come into contact with at least one teen mother in any of their classes. The response rate for the questionnaires from the students was surprisingly. An explanation to this could be the fact that the questionnaires were administered to the respondents in classroom situations. Similarly, the response rate of questionnaires to educators was 55%. The reason for the high rate could be that questionnaires were handed to educators personally and fetched when they were completed.

3.7 Ethical considerations

In most dictionaries, and in common usage, ethics is typically associated with morality, and both deal with matters of right and wrong. But what is wrong and what is right? What is the source of the distinction? For individuals, the sources vary. They may be religious, political ideologies, or the pragmatic observation of what seems to work and what doesn't (Babbie, 1998). Webster's New World Dictionary is typical among dictionaries in defining ethical as "conforming to the standards of conduct of a given profession or group" As a researcher, one must be conversant about what is the general agreement shared by researchers about what is proper and improper in the conduct of scientific inquiry.

Social research often, though not always, represents an intrusion into people's lives. The interviewer's knock on the door or arrival of a questionnaire in the mail

signals the beginning of an activity that the respondent has not requested and one that may require a significant portion of his or her time and energy. Participation in a social experiment disrupts the subject's regular activities. Social research, moreover often requires that people reveal personal information about themselves-information that may be unknown to their friends and associates. Again, if you, as a researcher are going to live in a particular society, then it is extremely useful for you to know what the society considers ethical and unethical. The same holds true for the research community.

Voluntary participation was the norm in this study, but it must be mentioned that it goes directly against a number of scientific concerns. For instance, the scientific goal of general may be threatened if experimental subjects or survey respondents are all the kinds of people who willingly participate. This orientation probably reflects more general personality traits. Most clearly, in the case of descriptive survey, a researcher cannot generalize the sample survey findings to the entire Nzhelele population unless a substantial majority of scientifically selected sample actually participates i.e. the willing respondents and somewhat unwilling. That's what the researcher did.

The survey did not injure the people being studied in any way as is required by the „no harm to participants“ norm. There was no revealing of information that would harm or embarrass them or endanger their home life, friendships, jobs etc. Again, this was a qualitative research. Qualitative research is an interpretative, multi method approach that investigates people in their natural environment (Denzin & Lincoln 1994, cited by Christensen). This definition has three primary components that are essential to understanding qualitative research. The first is that qualitative research is interpretative.

Qualitative research data consist of words, pictures, clothing, documents or other non-numerical information. Once this information is collected, some meaning has to be extracted from it. This multi method approach includes diverse data

collection methods as an individual's account of personal experience, introspective analysis, an individual's life story, interviews with an individual, observation of an individual or individuals, written documents, photographs and historical information.

SPSS for Social Science (SPSS) was used to analyse the questionnaires which were used to interview disabilities students and other staff. Questions were presented in a written format and participants indicated their responses. Open-ended questions on the attitudes of participants towards sexuality education were formulated to solicit responses. Participants were requested to select a response by indicating that they agree or disagree with the statement. A scale that had responses like the following was formulated to indicate responses: Strongly agree with statement (SA), Agree with statement (A), Neither agree nor disagree with statement (N), Disagree with statement (D), Strongly disagree with statement (SD). The survey questions were tied to the research questions. Participants co-operated as the researcher had obtained their consent to participate in the survey.

The sensitive nature of the study raised salient ethical issues which had to be carefully considered during the research process. Consideration was taken to adhere strictly to ethical measures as outlined in the faculty ethics regulations. In order to ensure the safety and rights of the participants, they were informed about the prevailing ethical consideration, for instance, informed consent of the Education Department, the participants and their parents, voluntary participation, anonymity and confidentiality (Berg, 1995).

3.8 Method of data analysis

In this study, quantitative method of data analysis was used. Firstly biographical information was assigned numerical values since these responses did not have a quantitative relationship. Data was analysed using chi-square. Bless & Kathuria (1993:186) applied chi-square to analyze data recorded in mutually exclusive categories, for example, gender, religious affiliation of respondents and so on.

This inferential statistical tool is suitable when dealing with a nominal data. Earlandson, Harris, Skipper and Allen (1993:111) define data analysis as the process of bringing order, structure and meaning to a mass of collected data. Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) was used to analyse the questionnaires which were used to interview disabilities students and other staff members. Quantitative studies emphasise the use of numerical measures to arrive at specific findings. The obtained information from questionnaires was first coded for each and every question and then entered in the Microsoft excel spreadsheet in words and number. Data from questionnaires was analysed by means of using tables and figures. The entered data from the spreadsheet was exported to the SPSS so that it could be analysed to yield the results.

This chapter presents analyses and interprets data.

3.9 Conclusion

4.2 Biographic Information

This chapter gave a detailed description of the research methodology that was used in this study. The rationale and theoretical support for the methodology and tools used was explained. The next chapter presents analyses and interprets data.

Female	53	78
Male	17	22
Total	70	100

Table 4.1 indicates that, Male respondents made 22% of the final study sample. There were 53 female Making 78 percent of the final study sample. This is proportional to the percentages of males and female participants in the population.

CHAPTER 4: DATA INTERPRETATION, PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

This study investigated educator's attitudes towards teenage pregnancy. Aims of the study were identified and hypotheses generated. In order to investigate the aims, a questionnaire (a 5-point Likert type scale) was used as a research instrument. This instrument was completed by secondary school educators in the Nzhelele West Circuit. Data was organised into frequency tables. This chapter presents analyses and interprets data.

4.2 Biographic Information

Table 4.1: Gender of Respondents

	Frequency	Percentages
Female	53	78
Male	17	22
Total	70	100

Table 4.1 indicates that, Male respondents made 22% of the final study sample. There were 53 female Making 78 percent of the final study sample. This is proportional to the percentages of males and female participants in the population.

Table 4.2 Frequency distribution of subjects by age groups

	Frequency	percentage
15-25	48	69
26-35	10	14
26-45	10	14
46 and above	2	3
Total	70	100

Most educators in the study sample fell within 15-25 years age range. They make 69% of the sample. Only 14 percent of the sample was between 26-35 years of age. Respondents of various ages were well distributed in the final study sample.

Table 4.3 Level of education

	Frequency	Percentage
None	0	0
Primary	48	69
Secondary	10	14
Tertiary	12	18
Total	70	100

Table 4.3 shows that the education level of the respondents is very low; more than 69% of the participants did not go beyond matric level (grade 12). Only 18 have Diplomas and Degrees. Finally 69% of the interviewed population has primary level of education and 14% received secondary education.

Table 4.4: Respondents income generation

	frequency	Percentage distribution (%)
R100-R1000	40	57
R1000-R2000	5	7
R2000-R5000	8	11
R5000-R10 000	15	25
R10 000 Plus	2	3
Total	70	100

Table 4.4 shows that the participant's income varies with income source. A significant part of participants with the lowest income (57 %) depend on social grants whilst 7% of this income category depends on remittances and 11% depends on piece jobs. Most of the high income participants depend on monthly salaries (Educators). Their studies found out that the majority of participants have an income in the range of R100-R2000 (Table 4.4). This shows a high degree of income inequity where very few people have high incomes while many are poor. Of those who are formally employed, the highest incomes are for those who work in the public sectors representing only 28% of the total population.

4.3 Educators attitudes towards teen mother

Table 4.5 Relationship between teen mothers and educators is good.

	Frequency	Percentages
Strongly Disagree	25	35.7
Disagree	15	21.4
Neutral	0	0
Strongly Agree	15	21.4
Agree	15	21.4
Total	70	100

Table 4.5 confirms that 57% of the respondents disagree that relationship between teen mothers and educators is good, and this could be based on the attitude of educators towards teen mothers. Very often educators expect learners to make progress in education. 43% of the respondents agree that the relationship between teen mothers and educators is good, something based on the perception of other educators. It must be noted however that other educators sympathise with teen mothers and this is likely to improve the relationship between teen mothers and educators.

Table 4.6 Teenage pregnancy causes absenteeism at school.

	Frequency	Percentages
Strongly Disagree	5	8
Disagree	10	14
Neutral	0	0
Strongly Agree	30	42
Agree	25	36
Total	70	100

Table 4.6 shows that 78% of the respondents agree that teenage pregnancy causes absenteeism at school. This might have been based on the fact that teen mothers could not cope with the responsibilities of being mothers. 22% of the respondents disagree that teenage pregnancy causes absenteeism at school. This is based on the notion that if the teen mothers are highly motivated they are likely to make considerable.

Table 4.8 indicates that 72% of the respondents agreed that teen mothers behave badly in class and this could be the fact that the teen mothers must look after the children before going to school. It must be noted that rearing children is too demanding and this is likely to affect teen mothers.

Table 4.7: Poverty contributes towards teenage pregnancy.

	Frequency	Percentages
Strongly Disagree	10	14
Disagree	10	14
Neutral	0	0
Strongly Agree	25	36
Agree	25	36
Total	70	100

Table 4.7 confirms that 72% of the respondents agreed that poverty contributes towards teenage pregnancy as teenagers would opt to get money from those who are working. 28% of the respondents disagree that poverty contributes towards teenage pregnancy, the notion which could be based on the lack of knowledge of the respondents.

Table 4.8 Teen mothers behave badly in class.

	Frequency	Percentages
Strongly Disagree	10	14
Disagree	10	14
Neutral	0	0
Strongly Agree	30	43
Agree	20	29
Total	70	100

Table 4.8 indicates that 72% Of the respondents agreed that teen mothers behave badly in class and this could be the fact that the teen mothers must look after the children before going to school. It must be noted that rearing children is too demanding and this is likely to affect teen mothers.

Table 4.9 Teen mothers come to school late.

	Frequency	Percentages
Strongly Disagree	11	16
Disagree	16	23
Neutral	0	0
Strongly Agree	20	26
Agree	23	33
Total	70	100

Table 4.9 reveals that 43 of the respondents who constituted 59% of the total sample agreed that teen mothers come to school late something which could be based on the workload encountered by teen mothers. It must be noted that teen mothers are not really experienced in looking after the children, and this is likely to disturb teen mothers in the morning, and the possibility of coming to school late can not be ruled out. 27 respondents who constituted 39% of the respondents disagreed that teen mothers come to school late, something which could be based on the lack of information of respondents of the workload of respondents.

Table 4.10 Teen mothers pass grade 12 easily.

	Frequency	Percentages
Strongly Disagree	30	43
Disagree	15	21.4
Neutral	0	0
Strongly Agree	10	14.2
Agree	15	21.4
Total	70	100

Table 4.10 shows that 45 respondents who constituted 64.4 % of the total sample disagreed that teen mother pass grade 12 easily. This could be true if one looks at workload surrounding teen mothers, particularly with rearing

children. 25 respondents who constituted 35.6% of the total sample agreed that teen mothers pass grade 12 easily, the point which is based on the lack of knowledge of the respondents.

Table 4.11 Educators treat all learners equally.

	Frequency	Percentages
Strongly Disagree	34	49
Disagree	23	33
Neutral	0	0
Strongly Agree	7	10
Agree	6	8
Total	70	100

There were 57 respondents, constituting 82% of the total sample that disagreed that educators treat all learners equally. 13 respondents representing 18% of the respondents agreed that educators indeed treat all learners equally and this could be based on the fact that teen mothers are mostly discriminated by educators and other learners.

Table 4.12 Teen mothers do homework.

	Frequency	Percentages
Strongly Disagree	30	43
Disagree	15	21
Neutral	6	9
Strongly Agree	10	14
Agree	9	13
Total	70	100

Concerning homework, 45 respondents representing 64% of the total respondents disagreed that teen mothers do homework. There was a slight difference between the respondents agreeing that teen mothers do homework. Those

agreeing were 19 constituting 27% of the total sample. It is evident from the results that teen mothers do not have time to do homework as results of the pressing duties related to child rearing.

Table 4.13: Teen mothers progress well academically.

	Frequency	Percentages
Strongly Disagree	33	47
Disagree	22	31
Neutral	4	6
Strongly Agree	6	9
Agree	5	7
Total	70	100

Table 4.13 shows that 55 of the respondents constituted 78% of the total sample and those respondents disagreed that teen mothers progress well academically, the fact which could be justified, taking note of the number of teen mothers who progress academically every year. 11 of the respondents who constituted 16% of the total sample agreed that teen mothers progressed well academically. The 4 respondents who constituted 6% of the total sample are neutral and this could be based on the lack of information affecting those respondents as to whether teen mothers progressed well academically.

Table 4.14: Teen mothers have time to do school work.

	Frequency	Percentages
Strongly Disagree	35	50
Disagree	10	14.3
Neutral	7	10
Strongly Agree	8	11
Agree	10	14.3
Total	70	100

Table 4.14 reveals 45 respondents who constituted 64.3% of the total sample disagreed that teen mothers have time to do school work, the notion which could be based on the fact that teen mothers were hard pressurised by the duties related to child rearing. Against the above, 18 respondents who constituted 25.3% agreed that teen mothers have time to do school work, while 7 respondents who constituted 10% of the respondents remained neutral

Table 4.15: Teen mothers very often miss classes.

	Frequency	Percentages
Strongly Disagree	12	17
Disagree	10	14
Neutral	4	6
Strongly Agree	30	43
Agree	14	20
Total	70	100

Table 4.15 confirms that 44 respondents who constituted 63% of the total sample agreed that teen mothers very often miss classes, and this could be the results of the pressure surrounding teen mothers in their attempt to look after the children. The fact that 22 respondents who constituted 31% of the total sample disagreed demonstrated the misconception affecting certain respondents.

Table 4.16: Teen mothers return to school without any counselling.

	Frequency	Percentages
Strongly Disagree	12	17
Disagree	15	21
Neutral	0	0
Strongly Agree	23	33
Agree	20	29
Total	70	100

Table 4.16: Teen mothers feel the educators do not accept their situation.

Table 4.16 confirms that 43 of the respondents who constituted 62% of the total sample agreed that teen mothers return to school without counseling. This could be the fact that there are no structures in place to address the question of counseling amongst teen mothers. The 22 of the respondents who constituted 38% disagreed, those teen mothers who return to school lack the necessary information about teen mothers' position with regard to counseling.

Table 4.17: The majority of dropouts are teen mothers.

	Frequency	Percentages
Strongly Disagree	15	46
Disagree	7	27
Neutral	7	10
Strongly Agree	32	21.4
Agree	19	10
Total	70	100

Table 4.19: Educators support teen mothers at school.

Table 4.17 confirms that 51 of the respondents who constituted 73% of the total sample agreed that the majority of dropouts are teen mothers, and this could be the fact that teen mothers are mostly disturbed by children. On the other hand 22 of the respondents who constituted 31% of the total disagreed that the majority of dropouts are teen mothers, while 7 of the respondents who constituted 10% of the total sample were neutral. This could be the fact that the respondents know little about the problems surrounding teen mothers.

Table 4.19: reveals that 43 of the respondents who constituted 68% of the total sample disagreed that educators support teen mothers at school, while 22 of the respondents who constituted 29% of the total sample agreed that educators support teen mothers at school. The disagreement of the respondents could be

Table 4.18: Teen mothers feel the educators do not accept their situation.

	Frequency	Percentages
Strongly Disagree	14	20
Disagree	15	21
Neutral	0	0
Strongly Agree	21	30
Agree	20	29
Total	70	100

Table 4.18: confirms that 41 of the respondents who constituted 59% of the total sample agreed that teen mothers feel that educators do not accept their situation, this could be the fact that educators want to see learners progressing in education. 29 of the respondents who constituted 41% of the total disagree that teen mothers feel that educators do not accept their situation, something which could be based on the misconception of the respondents.

Table 4.19: Educators support teen mothers at school.

	Frequency	Percentages
Strongly Disagree	36	51
Disagree	12	17
Neutral	0	0
Strongly Agree	10	15
Agree	12	14
Total	70	100

Table 4.19: reveals that 48 of the respondents who constituted 68% of the total sample disagreed that educators support teen mothers at school, while 22 of the respondents who constituted 29% of the total sample agreed that educators support teen mothers at school. The disagreement of the respondents could be

based that educators totally do not support teenage pregnancy, while the agreement on the side of other respondents reveals lack of information.

4.4 Conclusion

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presented the distribution of the final study sample. Data was presented, analysed and interpreted. The next chapter will discuss the findings and limitations of the study. Recommendations with regard to the findings will be presented.

Problem of teenage pregnancy in schools has reached a crisis stage. Despite the effort by the South African Schools Act (1996: 210) to prevent the exclusion of pregnant teenagers from school this is still happening in most schools. The drop out rate resulting from pregnancy is still very high among girls.

Dropping out of school is a result of a number of factors. Partly, it is caused by the stigmatization by fellow learners. Part of the problem (cause) is the attitude displayed by educators towards pregnant learners. The lack of facilities for pregnant girls within the schools and provision thereof by the South African Schools Act create a problem in so far as taking care of pregnant learners in schools. Masuku (1998:2) believe that negative attitudes of learners (both boys and girls) are a major force that drives pregnant girls out of school.

5.2 Major Findings

- The notable findings that emerged from the biographical data gathered from the teachers, revealed that the Foundation Phase teaching at the schools where I have conducted my research is predominantly and exclusively a female domain. The majority of teachers have more than ten years teaching experience. The qualifications of these teachers are mainly consisting of the Junior Primary Teachers Diploma (JPTD). There are few exceptions, as one teacher has a Bachelor of Education Honours degree.

CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents summary, findings and recommendations of this study. It further looks at limitations of the study and avenues for future research. The problem of teenage pregnancy in schools has reached a crisis stage. Despite the effort by the South African Schools Act (1996: 210) to prevent the expulsion of pregnant teenagers from school this is still happening in most schools. The drop out rate resulting from pregnancy is still very high among girls.

Dropping out of school is a result of a number of factors. Partly, it is caused by the stigmatization by fellow learners. Part of the problem (cause) is the attitude displayed by educators towards pregnant learners. The lack of facilities for pregnant girls within the schools and provision thereof by the South African Schools Act create a problem in so far as taking care of pregnant learners in schools. Masuku (1998:2) believe that negative attitudes of learners (both boys and girls) are a major force that drives pregnant girls out of school.

5.2 Major Findings

- The notable findings that emerged from the biographical data gathered from the teachers, revealed that the Foundation Phase teaching at the schools where I have conducted my research is predominantly and exclusively a female domain. The majority of teachers have more than ten years teaching experience. The qualifications of these teachers are mainly consisting of the Junior Primary Teachers Diploma (JPTD). There are few exceptions, as one teacher has a bachelor of education honours degree,

and another one has a Bachelor of Arts degree added to their qualifications.

- Teachers indicated that it was pleasing to engage these learners in different activities. According to the teachers, learners were performing activities that were familiar to them and which they even practised at home. The argument went on to say if resources were sufficiently provided by the Department of Education, the work would be much easier.
- According to the results of the survey, only allowing teen mothers back to school does not help them succeed in their secondary education. There is a need for support to prepare teen mothers for schooling and mothering before they return to school. As teen mothers, they are expected to be mother and student simultaneously. This is a big responsibility for a teenager who is still developing psychologically (Theron and Dunn, 2006; Nathanson, 1990:89). In addition Pearton (1999:67) argues that adolescents are mostly too young and emotionally immature when they first fall pregnant. Therefore, if these girls are to succeed academically it is important to provide adequate support.
- In most cases teen mothers cannot afford child-care facilities and their families do not offer much help in taking care of the babies. Consequently, as parents, teen mothers do not have enough time to do their school work. This is worsened when the teen mothers have to miss classes due to the illness of their babies. Unfortunately, their teachers do not know how to handle these girls' situation; and they do not have the means to help the mothers catch up with missed lessons. As such most teen mothers usually lag behind in their school work and these results in their failure to succeed with their secondary school education.

- Lack of proper counselling for teen mothers as indicated by the heads of schools is a serious problem for these girls. Teen mothers need to be counselled regarding their stigma and schooling. That is, because they have become mothers before completing school and while they are still young, they are stigmatised and their peers and society judge and view them as girls with low morals.
- The findings of the study indicate that, teen mothers are usually alienated by their fellow students and sometimes by their teachers. This negatively affects them by their feeling out of place, resulting in poor school performance. Through counselling teen mothers would be ready to face the reactions of their fellow students and teachers without being emotionally hurt and becoming overwhelmed with the situation.
- The survey also found that some teachers expressed that they are not sure how to handle teen mothers at school. This is unfortunate as it is assumed that the teachers would support and encourage the teen mothers to deal with their situation which makes them 'learners with special needs'. In addition, some teachers see teen motherhood as a private issue and none of their concern and concede that they should treat teen mothers like any other student.
- Teachers themselves might need guidance with respect to how teen mothers can be encouraged and supported academically. That is, teachers may need training on how to encourage teen mothers so that they do not make these students' lives worse because of insensitivity.
- Looking at the results of this survey and the literature, one can easily see that teen mothers need much support if they are to complete schooling successfully. The results and literature show that there is a need for parents and teachers to equip teenagers with life skills which would

enable them to handle their problems and challenges (Olivier, 2000). Bloem (2000) also emphasises that teachers need to be knowledgeable regarding the problems teens face, including teenage motherhood.

- The literature also concurs with the unnecessary stigma attached to teenage motherhood during schooling (Olivier, 2000). Results have shown that parents are not keen to organise counselling for their daughters when they return to school as mothers because they do not want to publicise their situation to the community, and this is done at the expense of their girls. That is, parents make the decision on behalf of their pregnant child for the sake of their own status in society.

5.3 Recommendations

According to the findings of this research, the following recommendations could be adopted and put into practice so as to help teen mothers succeed in their education:

- Educators should teach the learner holistically. Subjects like life skills or life orientation must be taken seriously. Prevention of deviant (sexual) behaviour is better than solving a problem of teenage pregnancy.
- The study revealed that the majority of the unemployed are amongst women of between twenty-one and thirty years old and that unemployment leads to social withdrawal and low-self esteem.
- When learners are allowed back to school after the delivery, it is recommended that a day care centre be provided in each school. Learners will come to school daily and a nurse will attend to the babies while the teenagers are attending their classes. This is done in schools in United States of America.

enable them to handle their problems and challenges (Olivier, 2000). Bloem (2000) also emphasises that teachers need to be knowledgeable regarding the problems teens face, including teenage motherhood.

- The literature also concurs with the unnecessary stigma attached to teenage motherhood during schooling (Olivier, 2000). Results have shown that parents are not keen to organise counselling for their daughters when they return to school as mothers because they do not want to publicise their situation to the community, and this is done at the expense of their girls. That is, parents make the decision on behalf of their pregnant child for the sake of their own status in society.

5.3 Recommendations

According to the findings of this research, the following recommendations could be adopted and put into practice so as to help teen mothers succeed in their education:

- Educators should teach the learner holistically. Subjects like life skills or life orientation must be taken seriously. Prevention of deviant (sexual) behaviour is better than solving a problem of teenage pregnancy.
- The study revealed that the majority of the unemployed are amongst women of between twenty-one and thirty years old and that unemployment leads to social withdrawal and low-self esteem.
- When learners are allowed back to school after the delivery, it is recommended that a day care centre be provided in each school. Learners will come to school daily and a nurse will attend to the babies while the teenagers are attending their classes. This is done in schools in United States of America.

- In South Africa, we have very few Hospital schools. The Government must increase the number of such schools as well as special schools for pregnant learners. Teenagers will be well cared for during pregnancy and even after delivery.
- The respondents experienced financial deprivation as well.
- Provide proper counseling to the teen mothers before they return to the school system;
- Make lessons and time available for teen mothers at times that are convenient to them;
- The School Governing Body must come up with means to curb vandalism and petty-thievery of school property and facilities. The SGBs are encouraged to install security measures and employ night-watch and security personnel. The proper management of school buildings and classroom facilities by the SMT and SGB should be encouraged. This can be done by involving the school in competitions on clean classrooms, school building and school projects. An annual budget geared towards maintenance and minor renovations of school buildings should be set aside. The SGBs must be motivated to allocate funds after assessment for maintenance and minor renovation.
- Provide teacher training on how to support teen mother students in their schools;
- It was also noted from the findings that although 68% of respondents showed positive attitude, 32% still find it difficult to help pregnant learners. It is recommended that as educators act in loco parents, they need to develop a "parent-like" attitude. Intervention by professionals like

educational psychologists might help in trying to change their attitudes towards pregnant teenagers.

- Schools may consider providing creche facilities for teen mother students.
- Procedures and programmes at the level of individual municipalities should create an enabling environment for youths to become economically active. One such approach is where the local municipality develops a biased local-first tendering system that exploits access to such a pool of cheap local labour for projects. This requires that each local municipality keeps a register of all unemployed people and their contact addresses and periodically up-date such a register.
- It is evident that unemployment has a negative impact on young men and women. The focus should be on what could be done to address the problem. Youth employment programmes should be established to provide them with skills, which are likely to increase their chances of finding productive employment and enabling them to be marketable. Education and training should not be separated as early as the foundation phase. Job-creation strategies need to be increased in number and pace. In addition, government policy should aim at transforming social attitudes at household level away from a dependency complex and welfare support to that of self sufficiency.

5.4 Further Recommendation of the Study

- The absence of capacity building programmes minimises the productive involvement of educators. This gap in skills education translates into poor utilization of support relationship between educators and pregnant teenagers.

- Educators need to be skilled with elementary midwifery course. This can be made possible by the working together of the Department of Education with the Department of Health. Workshops of this nature may minimise the dangers of helping highly pregnant learners within the school.
- It is further recommended that the school nurse be available in each ward. When the school within a ward has an emergency delivery (labour), the school nurse would be available as soon as possible.

5.5 Conclusion

This research has noted that while girls are allowed to be back at school after becoming mothers, they face many challenges in trying to balance both motherhood and schooling demands. Due to parenthood, the teen mothers do not have enough time to do their school work. As a result, many teen mother students usually lag behind and this hampers their progress with secondary school education.

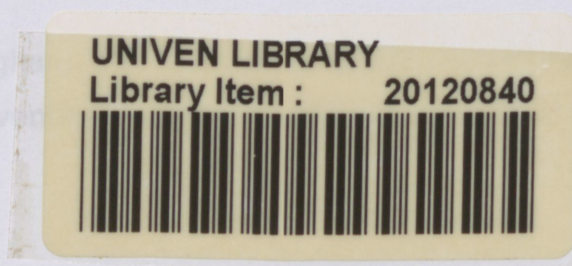
Lack of proper counseling for the teen mothers about their stigma and schooling seem to be one of the most serious problems these girls experience. Because many of these girls come back to the school system as mothers without any emotional preparation of their new situation, they are overwhelmed with the new expectations and these results in them not performing well academically and in many cases, dropping out of school.

The positive attitudes that educators display towards teenage pregnancy need to be translated into constructive co-operation between educators and pregnant teenagers. Mutual trust should be evident in both sides. Learners need to be taught to disclose as soon as possible that they are pregnant. This will allow educators enough time to plan different ways of support. This is not possible

when learners do not trust educators. If learners feel that they will be expelled from school because of their state, they will have no trust in any educator.

The department of education should have a clear policy on teenage pregnancy. This policy, once formulated, must be disseminated through all schools. Educators are not aware of their responsibilities when they encounter the problem of teenage pregnancy in schools. When parents are called to school about this issue, they don't come. Those who come have no solution, but want their children to attend school. Some schools have experienced the problem of emergency delivery within the class.

An educator in one school in Nzhelele Circuit was charged with negligence because as she was trying to help, the baby died. A policy will help educators know what to do in such situations. The Department of Education need to workshop parents (through the School Governing Bodies) about this problem. When one exercises his/her constitutional rights, one needs to know that there are responsibilities that go with the rights. When parents insist that pregnant teenagers must attend school they should know that they are pushing their responsibility to educators.



REFERENCES

Ajzen, I. & Fishbein, M. (1980). **Understanding Attitudes and Predicting Behaviour**. New Jersey. Prentice Hall.

Barbie, E. (2001). **The Practice of Social Research**. 9th Ed. Australia: Wadsworth.

Barbie, E. (2004). **The Practice of Social Research**. 10th Ed. Australia: Thomson Wadsworth.

Barrious, F., Guillaurne, S. (1998). **Student think twice about teenage pregnancy**. **New York: Amsterdam News**. 8 (37), 22.

Beesharn, N. (2000). **The Life world of he School-mother**. **Unpublished Masters Thesis**. University of Zululand. KwaD1angezwa

Bell, B.G. (1999). **Teenage pregnancy/abction and sex education in USA and UK (Northern Province)**.**Unpublished Report**. Research and Information Services.

Bell, J. (1993). **Doing your Research Foject. A guide for fusty time researcher in education and social science**. USA. Open University Press.

Bergh, Z.c. & Theron, A.L. (1999). **Psychology in the Work Context**. **Johannesburg**. International Thornpson Pulishing (Southern Africa).

Blankenship, K., Cunningharn, J.L. & Smith,D. (2002). **Creating a successful teenage pregnancy preventing programme** What's New. 34(2), 24.

Bless, C. & Higson-Smith, C. (2000). **Fundamentals of Social Research Methods: An African Perceptive**. 3'd Ed. Cape Town.

February 2004.

Bless, C. & Kathuria, R. (1993). **Fundamentals of Social Statistics: An African Perspectives**. Cape Town: Juta and Co.

educational underachievement A prospective study of a New Zealand birth

Brits, WJ. (1989). **The Inadequate Realization of Socio-pedagogical Essence as a Cause of Teenage Pregnancy**. Unpublished masters thesis. University of Pretoria.

M. (ed.) (1967). *Readings in Attitude Theory and Measurement*. USA: John Wiley & Sons inc.

Burns, R.B. (2000). **Introduction to Research Methods**. London: Sage Publications.

(1973). *Social Research Methods*. London: Prentice-Hall.

Chetty, L.S. (1997). **Problems experienced by Teachers in a Multicultural Classroom Setting**. Unpublished Masters. Durban University of Zululand.

Bury Park: Sage.

Chilisa, B. (2002). **National Policies on Pregnancy in education Systems in SubSaharan Africa: The case of Botswana**. *Gender and Education*, 14(1),21-35.

Dallimore, A. (2002). **Adolescent Risk Taking Behaviour in an Era of HIV/AIDS infection. A case study of youth in KZN Province, South African**. Unpublished Masters Dissertation Durban: University of Natal.

Dane, F.C. (1990). **Research Methods**. California: Brooks Cote.

school Learners Towards Desegregation. Unpublished M.Ed. Dissertation, University of

Davidow, A. (1988). **Back to School 1-vith a Baby**. *The Teacher*, 10 (2), 8.

Delano, D.F.; Kay, J.W. & Philliber, S. (1999). **Students and faculty attitudes towards a programme for teenage pa'-nts and their children**. *Social Work in Education*. 14 (2),167.

- Greenwald, A.G., Brock, T.A. & Ostrom, T.M. (1968). Psychological
- Ferguson, M. (2004). **The truth about teenage sex**. True Love issue 300 February 2004.
- Ginn, L.G. (1992). *Statistical Applications for the Behavioural Sciences*.
- Ferguson, D.M. & Woodward, L.I. (200). **Teenage pregnancy and female educational underachievement A prospective study of a New Zealand birth cohort**. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 62(1),147. *Encyclopedic English Dictionary*. Oxford: Clarendon Press
- Fishbein, M. (ed.) (1967). **Readings in Attitude Theory and Measurement**. USA: John Wiley & Sons Inc.
- Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Forcese, D.P. (1973). **Social Research Methods**. London: Prentice-Hall.
- Freedman, E.W. & Rickels, K. (1993). **Early Childbearing: Perspectives of Black Adolescents on pregnancy, abortion and contraceptive**. New Bury Park: Sage.
- Payasman, G.K. (1994). *Methodology for the Social and Behavioural Sciences*.
- Garber, J.G. (1996). **Effective Research in the Human Sciences**. Pretoria: J.L. van Schaik.
- Kaulinan, C.E., De Wet, T. & Stadler, J. (2001). *Adolescents' pregnancy and*
- Gokar, K.K. (1998). **The Attitudes of Secondary School Teenagers Towards Parental Involvement in School Governance**. Unpublished Masters Dissertation. Durban: University of Durban-Westville.
- Govender, S. (2002) **A Study of the Attitudes of High School Learners Towards Desegregation**. Unpublished M.Ed Dissertation. University of Zululand. KwaDlangezwa.
- Teachers Understanding and the Use of Assessment in the Context of OBE: A case study of Hermansdale School.
- Greathead, E. (Ed) (1998). **Responsible Teenage Sexuality**. Pretoria: J.L. van Shaik.

Greenwald, A.G., Brock, T.e. & Ostorm. T.M. (1968). **Psychological Foundations of Attitudes**. New York: Academic Press.

Grimm, L.G. (1993). **Statistical Applications for the Behm'ioural Sciences**. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Hawkins, J.M. & Alien, R. (eds.) (1991). **The Oxford Encyclopedic English Dictionary**. Oxford: Claredon Press.

Heiman, G.W. (1996). **Basic Statistics for Behavioural Sciences**. USA: Houghton Miffling Company.

Herelson, M.E., Moris, & Fitz-Gibbon, C.T. (1987). **How to Measure Attitude**. California: SAGE Publications Inc.

Huysamen, G.K. (1994). **Methodology for the Social and Behavioural Sciences**. Halfway House: Southern Book Publishers.

Kaufman, C.E., De Wet, T. & Stadler, J. (2001). **Adolescents' pregnancy and parenthood in South Africa**. *Studies in Family Planning*. 32(2), 147.

Kaya, RO. (1994). **Knowledge and Attitudes Towards Sex Among Youth in South Africa with Special Reference to the North West Province**. Unpublished report. Rustenburg: University of North West.

Langa, R.R.R.F. (2003). **Teachers Understanding and the Use of Assessment in the Contact of OBE: A case study of Hermarsdale School**. Unpublished M.Ed Dissertation. Durban: University of Natal.

- Lesch, E. (2000). **Female Adolescent Sexuality in a Coloured Community**. Unpublished doctoral thesis. Cape Town: University of Stellenbosch.
- Lukes, K. (1996). **Dubious Conceptions. The Politics of Teenage Pregnancy**. England: Harvard University Press.
- Luthuli, T.M. (2003). **African Learner perception of Vernacular Language in Desegregated Schools**. Unpublished Masters Dissertation. University of Zululand. KwaDlangezwa.
- Macleod, C. (1999). **The causes of teenage pregnancy**. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 29 (1), 8-16.
- Madima, S.c. (1996). **The Development and Evaluation of a Programme for the Prevention of Teenage Pregnancy in Rural Venda**. Unpublished masters thesis. Johannesburg: Rand Afrikaans University.
- Magane, S.M. (2001). **Father Absence: Psychological Experiences of Rural Adolescents**. Unpublished M.Ed dissertation. University of Pretoria.
- Majova, C.N. (2002). **Secondary School Learners' Attitudes Towards Sex Education**. Unpublished M.Ed Dissertation. University of Zululand. KwaDlangezwa.
- Makanya, IN. (1993). **Exploration of sexuality education as experienced by Black Adolescents in Urban Area**. Unpublished Masters dissertation. Durban: University of Natal.
- Maphalala, M.C. (2002). **Teachers' Stress in Primary Schools at Ensingweni Circuit**. Unpublished Masters Dissertation. University of Zululand. KwaDlangezwa.

- Mogotlane, S. (1983). *Teenage Pregnancy: An Unresolved Issue*. Unpublished
- Masuku, N. (1998). **Pregnancy Among School Girls at KwaMgaga High School Umlazi. Pupils Perceptions and the Schools' Response**. Unpublished dissertation. Durban: University of Natal.
- McCleod, C. (1996). **Teenage Pregnancy and the Construction ~(Adolescent Sexuality and Gender Relationship**. Unpublished Doctoral Thesis. KwaDlangezwa: University of Zululand.
- McKenna, E. (2000). **Business Psychology & Organisational Behaviour. A students' Handbook**. 3'd Ed. Canada: Psychology Press Ltd.
- McMillan, I.H. & Schumacher, S. (1993). **Research in Education. A Conceptual Introduction**. Virginia: Harper Collins.
- McWhiter, J.J., McWhirter, B.J., McWhiter, A.M. & McWhirter, E.H. (1998). **At Risk Youth. A Comprehensive Response**. 2nd Ed. Pacific Grove. Braks/Cole Publishing Company.
- Medical Research Council (2003). **Umthente Uhlaba Usamila. The ISI South African National Youth Risk Behaviour Survey 2002**. Pretoria: Department of Health.
- Mgwaba, M. (2002). **Adolescents' Perception of Risk of AIDS and Condom Use**. Unpublished Masters dissertation. Durban: University of Natal.
- Mkhatshwa, M.M. (2002). **An Exploratory Study of Social Perception and Attitudes Towards HIV/AIDS Orphans in Esikhawini and its Surroundings**. Unpublished M.Ed Dissertation. University of Zululand. KwaDlangezwa.

- Mogotiane, S. (1983). **Teenage Pregnancy: An Unresolved issue**. Unpublished Masters dissertations. Cape Town: Medical University of Southern Africa. University of Zululand KwaDlangezwa
- Msomi, T. (1999). **School for Pregnant Pupils. Drum Magazine Issue 362** p. 18-19.
- Z.E. (1997). **Teenage Pregnancy. Psychological and Educational Implication**. Unpublished Masters dissertation. Durban: University of Natal.
- Musick, J.S. (1993). **Young, Poor and Pregnant**. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Manda, AM (1971). **A Study of the Attitudes of Two Groups 'Jute Zulu Tribe Towards the Indians**. Unpublished Doctoral thesis. Pretoria: UNISA
- Nash, E.S. (1990). **Teenage Pregnancy - Need a Child, Bear a Child. South African Medical Journal, 77 (10) 147-151.** Teachers Expectation of Educational Psychologists' Role Function. Unpublished Med dissertation. University of
- Nash, R. (2002). **Sex and schooling: The sexual activity of young people and implication for education. Gender and Education, 14 (2),149-165.**
- Nene, L.M. (1969). **The Attitudes of Bantu Students Towards University Education. Unpublished Masters dissertation.** Pretoria: University of South Africa.
- Robb, S. (2004). **Rights or Wrongs. Public Attitudes towards Moral Values.**
- Neubeck, KJ. (1986). **Social Problems: A critical approach.** 2nd Edition. New York. Random House.
- Schumacher, J.E. & Mullen, R. (1983). **Understanding Educational Research.**
- Neuman, L.W. (2000/1997). **Social Research Methods. Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches.** USA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Sizzi, N.H. (1994). **The Effect of Cultural Diversity on the Minority Children**
- Nkosi, L.G. (1988). **A Study of Black Professional Nurse's Attitudes Towards the New Comprehensive Nursing Diploma.** Unpublished Honours dissertation. Pretoria: MEDUNSA

Ntsholo, A.S. (2002). **Attitudes of High School Learners Toward Mathematics and the Use of Calculators.** Unpublished M.Ed dissertation. University of Zululand. KwaDlangezwa

Nxumalo, Z.E. (1997). **Teenage Pregnancy. Psychological and Educational Implication.** Unpublished Masters dissertation. Durban. University of Natal.

Nzimande, AM (1971). **A Study of the Attitudes of Two Groups 'Jute Zulu Tribe Towards the Indians.** Unpublished Doctoral thesis. Pretoria: UNISA

O'Connor, W.C. (2002). **Primary School Teachers Expectation of Educational Psychologists' Role Function.** Unpublished Med dissertation. University of Zululand: KwaDlangezwa.

Pagelow, M.D. (1984). **Family Violence.** New York: Praeger.

Resnick, M.D. (1997). **Protecting adolescents from harm: Findings form the national longitudinal study on adolescent's health.** JAMA, 278(10), 483.

Rule, S. (2004). **Rights or Wrongs. Public Attitudes towards Moral Values.** HSRC ReView, 2 : (3) 4-5.

Schumacher, J.E. & Mullan, R. (1993). **Understanding Educational Research.** Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Shezi, N.H. (1994). **The Effect of Cultural Diversity on the Minority Children in the Desegregated Secondary Schools in the Durban Metropolitan Area.** Unpublished Masters Dissertation. University of Zululand. KwaDlangezwa

Sibaya, P.T. (1984). **A Study of Black University Students' Perception of the Handicapped Person in the Country.** Pietermaritzburg: University of Natal: Unpublished M.E.D Dissertation.

South African Schools Act No. 84 of 1996. Cape Town.

1. Gender

Terre Blanche, M. & Durrharn, K. (1999). **Research in Practice: Applied Methods for the Social Science.** Cape Town: UCT Press.

Vadum, A.C. & Rankin, N.O. (1998). **Psychological Research: Methods for Discovery and Validation.** USA: McGraw-Hill Co. Inc.

Van Heerden, M.E. (1999). **My School, Your School, Our School? Issues of Attitudes Behaviour and Identity Among Black and Whiter Pupils in Desegregated South African High School** *Ethnology*, 67-68.

Weideman, E. (1996). **Sex: The Tragedy of Unwanted Pregnancy.** *Drum Issue*. October 31 1996. p. 38-39.

Zama, N. (1991). **Attitudes of Parents Towards Teenage Pregnancy.** B. Cur (Hons) dissertation. University of Zululand: KwaDlangezwa.

4. Respondents income generation

R100-R1000	
R1000-R2000	
R2000-R5000	
R5000-R10 000	
R10 000 Plus	

Appendix

Section A: Biographical information

1. Gender

Male	
Female	

2. Subjects by age groups

15-25	
26-35	
36-45	
46 and above	

3. Educational level

< Matric	
Matric	
Diploma	
Degree	

4. Respondents income generation

R100-R1000	
R1000-R2000	
R2000-R5000	
R5000-R10 000	
R10 000 Plus	

Section B: Educators Attitude

Please complete all questions Mark with an "x" Mark from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree

Statement	Strongly agree	agree	uncertain	disagree	Strongly disagree
Relationship between teen mothers and educators is good.					
Teenage pregnancy causes absenteeism at school.					
Poverty contributes towards teenage pregnancy					
Teenage pregnancy contributes towards poor results at school.					
Teen mothers behave badly in class					
Teen mothers come to school late.					
Teen mothers pass grade 12 easily.					
Educators treat all learners equally.					
Teen mothers do homework.					
Teen mothers progress well academically.					
Teen mothers have time to					

do school work.					
Teen mothers very often miss classes.					
Teen mothers return to school without any counselling.					
The majority of dropouts are teen mothers.					
Teen mothers feel the educators do not accept their situation.					
Educators support teen mothers at school					

Thank you for your Participation