

**PROBLEMS RELATED TO THE LEARNING
SITUATION OF SCHOOLGIRL MOTHERS
IN VENDA SECONDARY SCHOOLS**

by

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DECLARATION

I declare that **PROBLEMS RELATED TO THE LEARNING SITUATION OF SCHOOLGIRL MOTHERS IN VENDA SECONDARY SCHOOLS** is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Me Ramalebana". The signature is written in black ink and is positioned above a horizontal dashed line.

ME RAMALEBANA

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I thank my wife and children for their unfailing support which increased in proportion each time I needed it.

I thank God.

SUMMARY

PROBLEMS RELATED TO THE LEARNING SITUATION OF SCHOOLGIRL MOTHERS IN VENDA SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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SUMMARY

It is not an uncommon feature anymore to find young mothers in Venda secondary schools busy with their studies. These young mothers, referred to as schoolgirl mothers in this investigation, do however, battle in general with their studies and experience problems different from those of ordinary schoolgirls. It was, therefore, decided to launch an investigation into the problems related to the learning situation of such schoolgirl mothers.

The formation of relationships by the adolescent has been used as a point of departure for this study. Contrary to expectations, the empirical investigation has revealed that schoolgirl mothers maintain basically good relationships with themselves, their studies and others. On the other hand, their academic achievements are significantly lower than those of ordinary schoolgirls. Further research is necessary to shed more light on the situatedness of schoolgirl mothers in general and in Venda secondary schools in particular.

KEY WORDS:

Teenage pregnancy

Illegitimate children

Unmarried mothers

Adolescent girls

Learning situation

Schoolgirl mothers

Adolescence problems

Teenage mothers

Relationships

Secondary schoolgirls

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CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION, STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM, OBJECTIVES AND PLAN OF STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

There has been an enormous rise in unwanted teenage pregnancies in recent years (Quinn & Daughy 1985:231). This is true, not only in the USA but in other parts of the world as well, including Venda. Traditionally, very few pregnancies occur amongst secondary schoolgirls in Venda, but there has been a shift in this over the years. Today, more and more girls who are already mothers, are attending secondary schools. In this research, such girls will be referred to as schoolgirl mothers.

Whilst schoolgirl pregnancy is a problem in itself, it seems to be of minor magnitude; the major problem is encountered when the girls come back to school to continue with their studies. In short, the consequences of teenage pregnancy are both far-reaching and cyclical. Far-reaching in the sense that teenage parenthood has severe implications for the education, health and well-being of both parents and offspring. Cyclical in the sense that the children of teenage parents frequently become teenage parents themselves and thus face the same consequences that their parents faced (Compton, Duncan & Hruska 1987:14-15).

Unless people and institutions intervene, these parenting teenagers will continue from generation to generation.

1.2 ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM

1.2.1 Becoming aware of the problem

It seems as though having a baby while a girl is still at school is no longer regarded as a curse or stumbling block by many secondary schoolgirls in Venda. However, the sudden unexpected "maternity leave" automatically drops a girl behind her peers.

Some girls come back to school after a year, which means a year behind their peers, others come back after two years, which worsens the situation.

Some girls back at school (after giving birth) develop emotional problems, negative attitudes or low self-concepts. In many cases, the boy responsible for the pregnancy rejects the responsibility. This kind of rejection without warning will possibly have a traumatic effect on the girl, which will dent her self-image significantly and might result in unpleasant learning experiences. Schoolgirl mothers in Venda generally display the following characteristics:

- They achieve academically poorer than the "ordinary" schoolgirls. For example, they tend to fail more tests and examinations than ordinary schoolgirls.
- Their achievements are lower, worse, weaker than before they had babies.
- Their brightness has gone, their general ability dented and they seem to be depressed most of the time.
- In many instances, they under-achieve. In other words, there is a discrepancy between their possible and actual performance.
- They seem to be generally demotivated.

There is a growing tendency among Venda secondary schoolgirls to temporarily drop out of school for the sake of giving birth. The new mothers then come back to school as pupils to repeat the standards they were doing before they went on "acouchement leave". These girls find it difficult to readjust to a school learning situation.

The situation worsens where some schoolgirl mothers between Std 6 and 10 have more than one child; or, as in one known case, a schoolgirl mother doing Std 10

while her biological first-born daughter was in Std 6 at the same school in the same year. The effect which this state of affairs will have on the mother and her learning situation will no doubt be negative. Schoolgirl mothers have to fulfil an ambivalent role. On the one hand, they are expected to behave like ordinary schoolgirls but on the other they have to be mothers to their babies or children. On the one hand they have to educate their own children while they themselves are still in need of education.

1.2.2 Statement of the problem

From the exposition above, it is evident that the schoolgirl, having a child (or even children) and trying to further her studies at school, experiences problems which are unique to her situation. It seems necessary, therefore, to undertake an investigation into the learning situation of the schoolgirl mother and, more specifically, to the problems related to her learning situation. For the purpose of this study therefore, the following question needs to be investigated. **What is the nature of the problems related to the learning situation of schoolgirl mothers in Venda secondary schools?**

1.3 OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

The main objective of this study is to investigate the nature of the problems related to the learning situation of schoolgirl mothers in Venda secondary schools. In order to reach the stated objective, the research process will be executed as follows:

- 1.3.1** A theoretical study will be undertaken into the problems encountered by the adolescent in general, with specific reference to unmarried mothers.
- 1.3.2** An empirical study will include the design and compilation of a measuring instrument as no such instrument exists which fulfils the requirements of this research project.
- 1.3.3** This measuring instrument will be applied to a selected target group.

1.3.4 The obtained data will be processed and analysed in order to try and identify the expected problems in the learning situation of the Venda schoolgirl mother.

1.4 CONSTRUCTION OF HYPOTHESIS

From what has been discussed so far, a few tentative hypotheses are now stated:

1.4.1 Schoolgirl mothers experience problems in their relationships with other people.

1.4.2 Schoolgirl mothers experience unpleasantness in their learning situation.,

1.4.3 Schoolgirl mothers achieve more poorly academically than ordinary schoolgirls.

1.4.4 Schoolgirl mothers are not satisfied with their personal circumstances.

1.5 DEFINITIONS OF CONCEPTS

1.5.1 Learning

Learning is a change in behaviour as a result of experience (Gage & Berliner 1991:10). According to Vrey (1990:222), learning is defined as an action whereby new relationships are established or existing ones improved. Jordaan and Jordaan (1989:499) define learning as the name we give to the process or processes which underlie observable behavioural changes in situations involving education, training, practice and life experience. Jordaan and Jordaan (1989:498) have also this to say about learning:

Broadly speaking, we can say that learning has taken place when a person has acquired knowledge of something that was previously unknown to him, or when he can do something he previously could not do.

The traditional view of learning is that it is a change in behaviour brought about by experience (Gerdes 1988:171). Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:135) defines learning as the process of acquiring meaning from the potential meaning present in the learning material. They go on to state that learning brings about change in behaviour which is not fleeting but has a degree of permanence.

Hamachek (1985:162) defines learning as a process by which behaviour is either modified or changed through experience or training. Quinn and Daughy (1985:85) state that learning is often but not always reflected in a relatively permanent change in behaviour. Instinct, reflexes, abilities and skills which result from maturation are not learned.

The *World Book Encyclopedia* (1982:143) defines learning as the process by which changes in behaviour result from experience or practice. Learning, then, is the organization of behaviour as a result of individual experience (*The New Encyclopedia Britannica* 1979:731). From the definitions above we may conclude that learning is a change in behaviour, from not knowing to knowing or from cannot to can.

1.5.2 Learning situation

The term "learning situation" as used in this research embraces the teaching-learning situation as it is found in the educational situation with its three components, namely the pupil, the teacher and the subject matter.

The teaching-learning situation (also called the didactic situation) is an activity or a meeting point between the teacher, the pupil and the learning content. The pupil responds by learning and assimilating the subject-matter in which he receives instruction from the teacher. His act of learning is his response and from his point of view it is a learning situation (Gunter 1982:46).

1.5.3 Schoolgirl mothers

Different authors use different terminology when they refer to schoolgirls who have children but are still at school themselves. Rubinstein (Burman & Preston-Whyte 1992:185) refers to these girls as unwed mothers or unmarried mothers while Daria (1988:25) defines them as young mothers. Compton, Duncan and Hruska (1987:16) refer to them as teenage mothers while Brunson (1981:6) calls them adolescent mothers.

In this study the concept "schoolgirl mothers" refers to those girls of school going age who fall pregnant, have their babies and then come back to school to continue their studies. For the purpose of this research all girls who have children and are back to school, whether they are married or not, will be referred to as schoolgirl mothers.

1.5.4 Secondary school

In Van Schalkwyk (1986:149) the secondary school is defined as the educational passage leading from the primary school with its general education to a tertiary educational institution with its special and complete vocational education. On the one hand, it builds on primary education and on the other, it lays a foundation for tertiary education. According to *Heinemann English Dictionary* (1982:978), secondary school is defined as a school for children over the age of about 11 years.

For the purpose of this study, the term "secondary school" will refer to those schools accommodating Std 6 to 10 or Form 1 to Form 5. In Venda, schools accommodating Stds 6 to 8 are termed Junior secondary schools, while schools offering Std 9 and 10 are called senior Secondary schools.

1.5.5 The adolescent (adolescence)

Hurlock (1973:2) states that adolescence usually starts when an individual attains sexual maturity and ends when he becomes legally independent of his parents.

Legally, as Thom (Louw, Botha, Gerdes, Louw, Meyer, Piek, Raubenheimer, Schoeman, Thom, Van Ede & Van S. Wait 1992:377) puts it, adolescence ends when the individual becomes eligible to vote (age 18) or do military service (from age 16), when he no longer needs parental permission (age 21) or when he can be held liable for contractual obligation (age 21). Van Aswegen (Mellet, Van Aswegen & Van Rensburg 1985:5) has it that physical development indicates the start of adolescence, but to determine exactly when it ends is more difficult. To say that adolescence ends with the attainment of adulthood is academically correct but has little practical significance.

Pupils enter secondary school as children, but at matriculation level pupils are sexually mature. According to Bloom (1972:578) they become physiologically adults; that means, parenthood becomes possible. Because adolescents cannot cope with the responsibility of marriage, mating must be delayed for some years.

Smart and Smart (1977:588) define adolescence as a period of shakeup and testing of all that has gone before. Freud (Rice 1984:58) characterized adolescence as a period of internal conflict, psychic disequilibrium, and erotic behaviour.

1.6 METHOD OF RESEARCH

Research methods can generally be assumed to be the techniques used by scientists to collect and order data, to use statistical manipulation and to arrive at a logical conclusion (Treece & Treece 1982:78).

In this research the following procedure is followed: First a literature study is done as well as an empirical study. The literature study entails consulting a wide spectrum of books, periodicals, newsletters, newspapers, magazines, reports, documents and theses consulted in order to acquire an in-depth understanding of the theme under investigation. The empirical research is mainly in the form of a nomothetic study, using a questionnaire. The data obtained are subjected to acceptable statistical analysis. If needed, a qualitative investigation in the form of interviews will be held.

1.7 PLAN OF THE STUDY

Chapter 1 concentrates mainly on the exposition of the problem, the objectives of the study, explanation of the main concepts and the method of study.

Chapter 2 examines the adolescent and his/her problems, including scholastic problems. Special attention is devoted to the relationships of the adolescent.

In chapter 3 attention is given to the unmarried mother and her learning situation.

Chapter 4 concentrates on the empirical research and the gathering of data.

In chapter 5 the results of the empirical research are analyzed.

Chapter 6 presents conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER 2

THE ADOLESCENT AND HIS/HER PROBLEMS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

As pregnancy and subsequent motherhood is only applicable to girls, the literature in this chapter will be based mainly on girls. Though both sexes practise sex, it is only girls who will finally bear the visible consequences of having yielded to the pressure of sexual desire.

Scholastic problems are many and varied but the role played by the heterosexual relationship, sex and motherhood seem to be the major role players which serve as stumbling blocks in the learning situation of adolescents. Schloss (1971:13) therefore concludes that in secondary school, the adolescent experiences the most trying time.

Though the adolescent is physiologically an adult, psychologically he is not. Hamacheck (1985:105) defines the adolescent as sexually mature while at the same time being viewed as socially and psychologically immature. Adolescence is seen as a transitional period and is characterized by problems and feelings of instability. The feeling of instability is caused mainly by the fact that the adolescent is neither a child nor an adult. He is, as Bloom (1972:578) puts it, in the halfway house between childhood and adulthood,. Because of his sexual maturation, a greater interest in sexual matters must arise, but then taboos are imposed and the sexual urges must be suppressed. This then leads to perplexity which may be expressed in moodiness and other manifestations of maladaptation (Bloom 1972:578).

Gage and Berliner (1991:140) and Beck (1986:151) say that one of the most important crises, the identity crisis, occurs most commonly in adolescence. Beck (1986:250) further says that as a young person enters adolescence, he begins to consider the future. He may consciously "try on" different roles before finding a proper identity. During this tryout period there may be a mixing up, a confusion of roles. As early as

1904, Stanley Hall believes that young people's efforts to adjust to their changing bodies usher in a period of "*Strum und Drang*" or "storm and stress" (Papalia & Olds 1990:561). This statement is confirmed by Gage and Berliner (1991:140) and Triandis and Lambert (1980:38).

The *World Book Encyclopedia* (1982:54) states that all adolescents have problems from time to time. It further explains that most of the problems that adolescents have are related to schoolwork, peer group and family relationships. Some of the problems experienced by adolescents will now be discussed with special emphasis on adolescent girls.

2.2 EMOTIONAL PROBLEMS

Though this study mainly has to do with schoolgirl mothers, the emotional or affective life of ordinary adolescents will serve as a basis in trying to understand the emotional problems of schoolgirl mothers. If ordinary adolescent schoolgirls have emotional problems, how much greater will the problems be if such girls have children? Such emotional problems will have an effect on the scholastic path of the girls in some or other way.

Van Aswegen (Mellet, Van Aswegen & Van Rensburg 1985:17) states that emotional life constitutes one of the three aspects of conscious phenomena, the other two being the cognitive life and the conative life. The emotional life plays an important part in the study of child development. Emotions add colour and variety to the life of man but, unless they are directed and controlled, they may have the effect of a consuming fire. According to Hurlock (1980:229), the period of adolescence is characterized by emotional tension. Adolescent emotionality can be attributed mainly to the fact that they come under social pressures and face new situations for which they receive little, if any, preparation during childhood. Again, with the end of their schooling in sight, adolescents begin to worry about their future. Most investigators of adolescent emotions agree that adolescence is a period of heightened emotionality.

The following are a few common examples of expressions of heightened emotionality in adolescence: fear, anger, moodiness, nervous habits, emotional outbursts and quarrels. All of these have a negative effect on the learning situation of adolescents (Mellet et al. 1985:18; Hurlock 1980:123; Jersild, Brook & Brook 1978:16; Hurlock 1973:45). Hurlock (1973:44) holds that to the psychologist, heightened emotionality extending over a period of time, is what fever is to a doctor - a danger signal. Like fever, its effects may be far-reaching.

Emotionally, the adolescent is still growing. For a period of years the adolescent seems to be on a see-saw between childhood and adulthood. Larson (Brunson 1981:15) states that at first the balance may be more towards childhood, but as the adolescent years continue, the balance moves gradually towards adulthood. For example, during early adolescence, outbursts of anger and physical violence are common, but as adolescents grow older, they do their best to control such aggressive behaviour (Mwamwenda 1990:50).

It is said that boys will be boys, similarly girls will be girls. Though there are different cultures between the Western world and Africa for instance, adolescence remains a period of "storm and stress". A secondary schoolgirl must move from the simple, sheltered emotional life of the child to the complex, affective life of the adult. Sometimes the girl may face shocking discoveries, such as the first menstruation.

Unless a girl is informed about menstruation in advance, she will definitely experience problems with menarche. Research conducted in Botswana (Mwamwenda 1990:52) revealed that most girls found menarche traumatic because while they were growing up, they had been told and believed that menstruation occurred only once a girl had sexual intercourse. At the time of menarche, most had not been sexually active and did not even know what having sex meant. Thus the experience disturbed them (Mwamwenda 1990:52). One American girl regarded menarche as "the curse" (Dacey 1982:92) and this may be true for many other adolescent girls.

According to Mwamwenda (1990:53-54), African girls experience different emotional

reactions when it comes to pubic hair and the growing of the breasts. One group feels happy whilst the other group is worried by having hair in their genital region. To them, women's hair should grow on their heads and armpits and nowhere else.

Concerning breasts, some girls hate having breasts and, according to Mwamwenda (1990:53) they even try to "sweep" them away so that they disappear. In other instances, some girls feel bad if their breasts are small and they then resort to stuffing their bras with socks or wearing padded bras (Mwamwenda 1990:54). All this is usually accompanied by emotional fluctuations which may eventually lead to learning problems.

Research indicates that girls are more likely than boys to experience depression (Hamachek 1985:111). This seems to be partly related to the idea that girls are socialized in a way to believe that they have less control over their lives than boys. Girls are more susceptible to the development of what Seligman (Hamachek 1985:111) has termed "learned helplessness", an emotional state that converts into depression.

2.3 CONFORMITY

Reber (1985:146) describes conformity as the tendency to allow one's opinions, attitudes, actions and even perceptions to be affected by prevailing opinions, attitudes, actions and perceptions. More specifically, it is important to appreciate that there are at least three distinct patterns of use of this term:

- behavioural, when it refers to the tendency to "go along with the group", to attempt to act in ways consistent with the majority
- attitudinal, when the reference is to changed attitude or belief, as a result of pressure from others, that may or may not result in behavioural change

- as a personality trait, when it implies an underlying characteristic of an individual's personality manifested as being subjected to either of the two above tendencies to conform.

Adolescents want to be like other adolescents. They want to be one of the group. They want to be accepted. They are even ready to give up some of the things they like for the sake of this acceptance. They conform. Vrey (1990:171) states that conformity tends to cancel identity. Mwamwenda (1990:45) and Louw et al (1992:424) state that conformity with peers is reflected in dress, hair styles, vocabulary and adornments, and gives an adolescent a sense of belonging. Van Aswegen (Mellet et al. 1985:24) confirms this and adds that the adolescent adopts styles of dress and hair and other forms of behaviour even if his/her parents and other adults disapprove.

While it is good for an adolescent to conform with peers, it also has disadvantages. Rice (1984:303) states that conformity can be a helpful, positive social influence, or a negative one, depending on the group and its values. The adolescent boy who wants to belong to a juvenile gang of delinquents has to pull off a robbery. To do so is obviously conforming, but to a peer code that may get him in trouble.

Group pressure can lead to undesirable behaviour. Davies (Mwamwenda 1990:45) concludes that adolescents sometimes tend to be so eager to please others and to be popular that some develop popularity neurosis.

As stated above, conformation to the peer group is greatest during early adolescence, possibly attributable to a lack of independence, a lack of self-confidence and a lack of identity. In his study on adolescence conducted in the USA (1980), concerning average confirmation as a function of age, Coleman (Louw et al. 1992:421) found the following:

- Adolescent girls aged between 11 and 13, 15 and 17 and 19 and 21 years had an average conformation of 8,5; 7,4 and 6,0, respectively.

This indicated that with the increase in age, the urge to conform decreases. Conformity in this context is a problem, especially for young girls, because a girl may mess up her life and even risk pregnancy for the sake of harmonious relations, social approval and acceptance.

According to Rice (1984:304), a comparison of boys and girls on conformity indicates that adolescent females show a greater degree of conformity than do adolescent males. This greater degree of conformity may lead to many problems for certain girls, such as the use of drugs and alcohol, juvenile delinquency, unacceptable social behaviour, among other things, which, in turn, possibly culminating in unwanted pregnancies. In Venda, the situation is no different and, in addition to the already existing problem of illegitimate pregnancies amongst secondary schoolgirls, we can expect other problems to increase in future. Obviously, under such circumstances the learning situation must deteriorate.

2.4 FRIENDSHIP BETWEEN ADOLESCENTS

Before a child is born, he depends 100% on the mother. After birth the child struggles towards his independence. By the time he reaches adolescence, dependency on the mother had decreased tremendously. Now he has his own friends. He may even trust them more than his parents. When asked about their friendships, the high school adolescent respondents discriminated between "good", "best" and "casual" friends (Smart & Smart 1977:568).

According to Rice (1984:303), best friends are chosen partly on the basis of homogeneity, the choice of someone like oneself. He goes on to say that adolescents choose their friends so as to maximize the congruency or similarity within the friendship pair. Friends play a crucial role in socialization during adolescence. Joseph (Hurlock 1973:77) states that friends may be the most important "area of the adolescent's world". Thus, the kinds of friends the adolescent has will, to a large extent, determine whether he will develop into a social, an unsocial or an antisocial person.

For the adolescent friendship is crucial. According to Rice (1984:300), one of the reasons friendships are crucial is that adolescents are insecure and anxious about themselves. They lack personality definition and secure identities. Consequently they gather friends around them from whom they gain strength and who help establish the boundaries for themselves. Rice goes on to state that from their friends, adolescents learn the necessary personal and social skills and societal definitions that help them to become part of the larger adult world. They become emotionally bound to others who share their vulnerabilities and their deepest selves. They become comrades in a hostile world (Rice 1984:300).

According to Vrey (1990:170), close friendship is the most important relationship an adolescent can form with a peer. Such friendship averts the torment of loneliness that can be expected even in a group. An American adolescent is reported to have commented as follows:

I'm really lonely. My mom and dad both work, so are not home a lot. My brother is six years older than I am, so we don't have too much in common. If it weren't for some friends, I wouldn't have anyone to talk to (Rice 1984:300).

Vrey (1990:170), therefore, concludes that the most meaningful friendships arise where the parties meet as equals because close friendships are unforced and there is no room for formality.

Friendship amongst adolescents permits soul searching and the sharing of experiences, plans, ambitions and intimate secrets (Louw et al. 1992:425). This does not mean that friendship amongst adolescents is always a smooth relationship. Rice (1984:301) states that adolescent friendships are sometimes stormy if needs are not met. Adolescents may make a bad choice. Instead of their best friends meeting their needs, they stimulate frustration and anger.

In Venda many children get to know about the facts of life from their friends, many of

which are incorrect. Wrong facts are told purposely just to get the ignorant friend in trouble. Many girls who fall pregnant by mistake allege that they were told by other girls that they will not fall pregnant if they only have sex once per day. The ignorant friends are told that if one abstains from sexual intercourse altogether, one will go mad or, as they put it, "... *blood will run to your head*". As a result, though friendship is a good thing, it becomes a problem if it is the source of the adolescent's troubles.

When asked why they became pregnant, many girls blame their friends. Friendship among adolescents at times results in enmity when one discovers that one has been made a fool of by the very friends one trusted so much.

In conclusion it is evident that friendship amongst adolescents can have either a positive or negative effect on the individual. Where friendships fail and result in emotional disturbances in adolescents, we can expect their schoolwork and general scholastic achievement to be negatively affected.

2.5 SOCIAL REJECTION

As they emerge from the physical transformation that accompanies puberty, young adolescents once again feel the need for social life. They then attempt to create a society for themselves that will meet their more mature interests and needs. This they do by associating with different kinds of social groupings (Hurlock 1973:73). Hurlock (1973:73) states further that peer groups dominate the adolescent's social world and are the strongest social force in his life. It is important that the adolescent should enjoy social acceptance because rejection resulting from peer rejection increases the adolescent's dissatisfaction with school and his tendency to underachieve (Hurlock 1973:210). Concerning adolescents, social rejection is such a mammoth problem that their learning situation will be affected adversely. Even adults get upset if they are not accepted or rejected.

Jersild, Brook and Brook (1978:365) state that to assess the meaning of high acceptance by peers, it is also necessary to consider the price a person pays for it.

Young persons who take extra pains to win popularity may be ones who lack confidence in themselves. They may be ones whose assurance of their own worth is so weak that they must endlessly strive to prove, by way of hard-won popularity, that they are worthy persons. Jersild et al (1978:365) conclude that among those who win a high degree of social acceptance in a sociometric test, there are some who are *seriously disturbed*. This group of the 'seriously disturbed', normally have problems at school. They normally find school boring. In extreme cases, they even hate school while there is nothing wrong with the school. They then associate school with negative things. Obviously their learning situation must be affected negatively.

Hurlock (1980:234) describes conditions contributing to acceptance amongst adolescents. Among others, she lists attractive appearance, poise, cheerfulness, willingness to conform and participation in group activities. Rice (1984:307) states that in general, it can be seen that popular adolescents are accepted because of their personal appearance, sociability and character. They are the neat, well-groomed, good-looking, friendly, happy, fun-loving, outgoing and energetic ones, having developed a high degree of social skills, and like to participate in many activities with others. They are usually those with a high self-esteem and a positive self-concept. Rice (1984:306) concludes that one of the principal ways adolescents find group acceptance is by developing and exhibiting personal qualities that others admire and by learning social skills that assure acceptance.

Van Aswegen (Mellet et al. 1985:22) states that adolescence is a period of the paradoxical quest for three things not easily found simultaneously:

- a role in society
- social acceptance
- a supremely personal and individual life

He goes on to state that to be socially acceptable is of extreme importance to the adolescent since he fears loneliness, which to him, symbolises exclusion or rejection. He concludes that social acceptance shows a high positive correlation with success

(Mellet et al. 1985:24) which implies that social rejection will most probably lead to failure.

According to Vrey (1990:170), in every peer group there are adolescents who are generally popular and others who are generally rejected. He states further that sociometric studies have taught us a great deal. For instance, the findings of Jersild (Vrey 1990:170) indicate that popular adolescents are cheerful, friendly, active and natural, that they participate readily in all sorts of activities and are quite willing to take initiative. This group, which enjoys social acceptance, will find themselves in a learning situation conducive to learning. Compared to the 'seriously disturbed' group which lacks acceptance, this group will have a good chance of performing well at school. As stated above, social acceptance is necessary for the adolescent. Poorly-accepted adolescents are, therefore, often moody, sad, anxious and insecure.

Louw et al (1992:423) state that it is easier for an adolescent to be accepted by a group if he conforms to its values, customs and interests, and if he comes from the same socio-economic background and its members. His description of characteristics of adolescents who are accepted by their peers (Louw et al. 1992:423) almost overlaps with that of Jersild et al. (1978:363) and Rice (1984:307). Adolescents who have no self-confidence, who are withdrawn, nervous, shy and self-centred, who are tactless and sarcastic, are usually not accepted by the group. Such a group may have problems staying at school and may finally drop out.

Louw et al (1992:423) conclude that social rejection can also adversely affect the adolescent's ability to learn. Acceptance by the group is, therefore, preferable, particularly if it is based on mutual helpfulness and support but social rejection is a problem which will directly affect the adolescent's learning situation.

2.6 SEXUAL PROBLEMS

During adolescence, heterosexual contact increases and relationships develop. These relationships are characterized by different forms of lovemaking, such as holding

hands, kissing, embracing and more intimate forms of contact, including sexual intercourse (Louw et al. 1992:396).

As the adolescent grows older, the pressure increases to a more serious dating level, such as "going steady" (Brunson 1981:14). Craig (Brunson 1981:14) suggests that an important fact with teenagers is the need for strong security. Sexual intimacy is one way of answering deep security needs by establishing closeness with another person during a confusing and often lonely time of life. However, such relationships may cause problems for adolescents in that they must face their own sexuality before they know how to cope with it. Sexual problems include a wide range: frigidity, impotence, excessive masturbation, homosexuality, machismo, sadism and exhibitionism (Vrey 1990:195; Gerdes 1988:115; Hurlock 1980:284).

According to Hurlock (1973:274), the moral aspects of sex behaviour give rise to many problems because of the conflict between adolescent and adult standards, double standards and the different standards for different sub-cultural and socio-economic groups. She goes on to state that since the roles of the two sexes are more clearly defined in adolescence than in childhood, learning and accepting an approved sex role may present many problems for the adolescent. Hurlock (1973:274) concludes that to satisfy the normal sex urges and at the same time behave in a morally approved manner presents problems for both boys and girls.

2.7 THE ADOLESCENT'S RELATIONSHIP WITH THE SELF

The life-world of the adolescent consists of relationships formed with the self, others, objects and God. The individual's self is the Gestalt of what he can call his own. It includes his system of ideas, attitudes, values and whatever he commits himself to. The self is the individual's total subjective environment, the center of experience and of meaning (Vrey 1990:31).

Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:205) define the self as that part of us of which we are consciously aware and what we know about ourselves. According to

Jersild et al (1978:22), the self as known includes all the ideas and feelings an individual has regarding the properties of his body, qualities of mind, and personal characteristics. The components of the self range from neutral details of self-perception to attitudes that are charged with feeling, such as pride or shame, inferiority or superiority, self-esteem or self-reproach.

Self, self-concept and self-esteem are all overlapping concepts and each refers to some particular aspect of our being. Reber (1985:677) states that self-concept is one's concept of oneself in as complete and thorough a description as it possible for one to give.

According to Rice (1984:227), the adolescents' self-concept (what one thinks about himself) and self-esteem (what one feels about himself) are important to their mental health, to their competence in social relationships, and to their progress in school. He states further that self-concept and self-esteem affect vocational aspirations and success and determine whether or not adolescents may become socialized members of society. In fact, these concepts affect everything they are, try to be, or do. Adolescents with inadequate self-concepts and low esteems, whose concepts of themselves are much less positive than their images of an ideal self, manifest internal conflict and anxiety. This, in turn, influences all their external relationships.

Self-concept can either be positive or negative. Academic success depends largely on the effects of self-concept. An adolescent whose achievement in most of his school subjects is high by his own standard will have a positive academic self-concept that will assist his general self-concept. An adolescent with a positive self-concept has fewer doubts about his ability (Vrey 1990:169). The opposite will be the case if the adolescent's self-concept is negative. The poorer the self-concept, the less effective will be the strategy that the adolescent uses to cope with anxiety or tension (Vrey 1990:169).

2.8 RELATIONSHIP WITH AUTHORITY

Jersild et al (1978:15) state that there are conspicuous signs of tension in adolescence and there is an increase in rebellion against authority at home and at school. According to Smart and Smart (1977:570), boys are more negative to authority than girls.

Many young people hate any form of authority. They want to be "free". They abhor control. They are rebellious. They want to break loose. Authority to them is equated with bondage. Adolescents in general are against any form of supervision, management or control. They want to do their own thing. Authority to them is a form of oppression. According to Rice (1984:7-10), adolescents are rebellious, pampered and spoiled, irresponsible, hedonistic, immoral and cynical.

For the average adolescent, parents and teachers are the two most important authoritative aspects in his/her life. We will now take a brief look at each.

2.8.1 Relationship with parents

The adolescent is a young person (in this context a young girl) who is gradually, in a biological and cultural sense, growing into the adult world. In a way she is an adult. She, therefore, starts to undermine the authority of parents. She may even be tempted to challenge this parental authority.

According to Jersild et al. (1978:9), one of the tasks an adolescent faces in establishing an identity of his/her own is to outgrow dependency on his/her parents. This frequently involves a struggle that is mixed with rebellion. But when adolescents satisfactorily cross this hurdle, they will be capable of self-direction without feeling a need, as they grow older, either to depend on their parents or defy them.

According to Brunson (1981:14), most young people manage to be increasingly independent of their parents and enter into heterosexual relationships as they emerge

to the middle adolescence period which is 15 to 18 years (Vrey 1990:165) or 15 to 17 years (Brunson 1981:11). Adolescents want and need privacy. Entering into heterosexual relationship, is nature's way of preparing them to be more on their own and eventually leave home. A girl must finally do away with the authority of her parents. She must finally get married and cling to her husband and no longer cling to her parents; she must then submit herself to the authority of her husband (according to certain cultures) and that is why she starts to abdicate parental authority during adolescence.

To achieve stature as adults, adolescents must outgrow their childhood dependency on their parents. They must renounce major allegiance to their parents and be able, under normal circumstances, to shift their allegiance to prospective mates. This sort of emancipation may cause conflict (Mwamwenda 1990:47; Brunson 1981:13; Jersild et al 1978:304). Such conflict leads adolescents at times to defy parental authority. Adolescents may like to be treated like adults while adults would still like to treat them as children.

Finally, the conflict between the adolescents and their parents also affects the adolescent's learning situation negatively. On the one hand, when there is conflict between parents and their children, we can expect the latter to be emotionally upset which is definitely not conducive for optimal learning to take place. On the other hand, sometimes adolescents are attending school simply because their parents force them to do so. Again, we cannot expect learning to take its normal course.

2.8.2 Relationship with teachers

Secondary school adolescents spend most of their time from Mondays to Fridays with the teachers at school. Their relationship with teachers is important because it has a direct bearing on their scholastic situation. Taking into account that adolescence is a period of storm and stress, adolescents are usually dissatisfied with almost everything, including their teachers, studies and extracurricular activities (Hurlock 1973:208).

Pupils are dissatisfied with their teachers' teaching methods and attitudes, among other things. Rice (1984:517) states that adolescents are highly critical of teachers who are "never prepared", and are "lazy", "aren't interested in teaching", "who don't care if we learn". The adolescent's relationship with teachers and their teaching also depends on whether the adolescent is bright or dull. Very bright adolescents are especially dissatisfied with the teacher's classroom work and their teaching methods.

Pupils are rebellious against the authority of teachers because the latter represent society. Pupils break rules pretending that they forgot a rule. Except when discipline is strictly authoritarian, the pupils tend to argue with teachers about rules and often openly defy them (Hurlock 1973:37). Many adolescents, when they find that they cannot get teachers to revive their method of control, drop out of school (Hurlock 1973:255-256).

Teachers favour the bright, intelligent, attractive students. This causes conflict in the classroom. Rice (1984:516) states that too many teachers love only bright and attractive, well-adjusted, socially acceptable students but reject dull, rebellious, different adolescents who may present problems.

Teachers misbehave with pupils. In Venda, for example, young secondary school male teachers often misbehave with their pupils of both sexes. They smoke cigarettes and drink beer with school boys and have sexual relationships with the girls. A relationship of this nature erodes the authority of the teacher and relegates him to being an "adolescent". It goes without saying that this will affect the pupils' learning situation negatively.

2.9 CONCLUSION

From the exposition it is clear that the adolescent (and more specifically the adolescent girl) experiences many problems in her daily life. In essence all these problems are situated in the relationships formed by the adolescent, that is relationships with self, peers, parents, teachers and others.

The relationships formed by the adolescent play a vital role in the learning situation. The influence of these relationships can either have a positive or negative effect on the learning process of the adolescent. For instance, the adolescent who believes in himself/herself, accepts himself/herself (in other words, the adolescent who maintains good relationships with the own self) will be able to concentrate on his/her studies and achieve academically. On the other hand, the adolescent with a poor self-concept will battle to master the learning material which will lead to failure and disappointment. The same argument holds for the other relationships formed by the adolescent.

In a nutshell we can conclude by saying that wherever the relationships of the adolescent go wrong or fail, the adolescent will be emotionally upset or disturbed. At the end this will have a negative effect on the learning situation of such an adolescent.

CHAPTER 3

THE UNMARRIED MOTHER, INCLUDING THE SCHOOLGIRL MOTHER

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Adolescent girls are sexually mature, but sexual maturity is no longer the sole criterion for adulthood as in the olden days (Vrey 1990:166). Today though adolescent girls are sexually mature, they normally cannot marry because they are usually still at school. Their male counterparts, the would-be husbands, are normally also still at school and dependant on their parents.

Although an adolescent girl is able to have sex, according to the Venda culture it is forbidden. Gage and Berliner (1991:140) state that their bodies and hormones change so that sexual forces often overwhelm other concerns, capture the imagination and arouse forbidden desires or tabooed pleasure (Hurlock 1980:240). Many of the problems and emotional difficulties of adolescents develop because of this paradox (Bloom 1972:578). This means that adolescent girls with all their potential of sexual readiness should first wait until they are through with schooling. It is this strenuous waiting that some girls (apparently most of them) cannot contend with. In the USA the number of out-of-wedlock births to women under twenty years of age tripled between 1960 and 1981 (Jones & Battle 1990:12) while, according to Stuart and Wells (1982:Xi), adolescent pregnancies in the USA have reached epidemic proportions. The extent of motherhood at secondary school level in the USA is so serious that Brunson (1981:6) conducted a study into the special needs for educational experience in secondary schools created by motherhood. Already in 1971 Bernstein concluded that if the then trend of schoolgirl motherhood continue, the USA would rapidly be producing a sizable and permanent population of school dropouts (Bernstein 1971:130).

As far as South Africa (including Venda) is concerned, the situation is also depressing. For example, in 1985 South Africa had the highest teenage pregnancy rate in the world while in Venda in the same year, 27% of all babies born at three specific hospitals belonged to girls under the age of 18 years. (See par. 3.2.1 for more details.)

In the following sections special attention will be given to the circumstances surrounding the unmarried mother, including the schoolgirl mother where the latter refers to the girl who first dropped out of school because she was pregnant but then comes back to school to further her studies after she has had a baby, whether she is married or not. (See also par. 1.5.3, chapter 1.)

3.2 THE GENERAL PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED BY THE UNMARRIED MOTHER

An unplanned and unwanted pregnancy usually causes major physical, emotional and practical upheavals in any woman's life. When this occurs in the life of an (unmarried) adolescent, the event can be traumatic (Boult 1991:72-72).

The primary crisis for an unmarried mother starts when she first realises she is pregnant. Such girls usually did not engage in sex because they wanted to have a baby at that stage, but have instead become pregnant by accident (Papalia & Olds 1990:587). Adolescents want sex, but do not want to become pregnant and assume parental responsibilities so soon (Hurlock 1980:48).

Pregnancy, the experience that under other circumstances would have brought personal gratification and social approval, has been converted into a social and psychological hazard, if the girl conceives out of wedlock (Bernstein 1971:41). When motherhood occurs outside marriage, it loses much of its ordinarily accepted meaning. Unmarried women experience motherhood in an atmosphere of social disapproval (Bernstein 1971:12).

3.2.1 The unwanted illegitimate baby

According to the *Chambers' Etymological English Dictionary* (1958:308), illegitimacy means not according to law, not in the legal position of those born in wedlock. In the context of this research, an illegitimate baby will be one whose father is not legally married to its mother. In most cases, the child will never know who the father is.

The rate of illegitimacy is increasing. In Rotterdam alone, as early as 1911 to 1920 3,8% of the total births were illegitimate (Cronjé, Van der Walt, Retief & Naudé 1987:134). In Britain 5,4% of all live births registered in 1960 were illegitimate. This percentage increased to 6,92% in 1963 and to 7,9% in 1966 (Pochin 1969:4).

The increased pregnancy rate among young teens is partially attributable to black teens beginning sexual activities earlier than other teens. Nearly all births in the USA to those under fifteen are to black adolescents (Williams 1991:8).

The population in Venda is almost 100% black and the rate of premarital sex and pregnancy is noticeably high. In Transkei, one of the former TBVC states, 25% of all women delivering in hospitals during 1986 and 1987 were teenage girls (Boult 1991:2). She states further that at a Human Sciences Research Council seminar on teenage pregnancy in 1989, Black teenage pregnancy was estimated to be 14% of all Black births in the RSA.

The following facts may help us to see the intensity of teenage pregnancy and of adolescent parenthood in South Africa, including Venda.

- In 1985 South Africa had the highest teenage pregnancy rate in the world.
- Africa and America have more than 1 million teenagers falling pregnant every year, 30 000 before they reach the age of 15.

- At one black hospital in Natal an average of 30 babies are delivered daily and between 20% and 25% of these deliveries are to teenage mothers.
- South Africa has a large teenage population, of which 41% are black.
- After every decade, girls menstruate three months earlier than previously and so girls become sexually "mature" at a younger age than in the past (Fiat 1988:17).

Maphaha (1987:1) presents the following facts concerning teenage pregnancies in Venda. The data below is from all the three hospitals in Venda i.e. Tshilidzini, Siloam and Donald Frazer.

DELIVERIES OF GIRLS UNDER 18 YEARS			
YEAR	TSHILIDZINI	SILOAM	DONALD FRAZER
1985	8%	10%	9%
1986	7%	11%	13%

Maphaha (1987:1) also provides data concerning teenage pregnancies according to age groups for the Tshilidzini Hospital for the period 1985 to 1986.

- 12 years old x 2 girls
- 13 years old x 1 girl
- 14 years old x 21 girls

Except for the few teenage girls who decide to practically throw their babies away, generally these days (in contrast with previous practices) girls keep their children,

though unwanted and actually unplanned. In the USA (one of the countries with the highest pregnancy rates in the world), 90% of the adolescents who have babies keep them (Papalia & Olds 1990:586) while research conducted in Rotterdam between 1911 and 1920 revealed that only 26,5% of the mothers wanted to keep their babies (Cronjé et al. 1987:134).

These girls are, in fact, at a point of crisis. They must cope and try to handle the shame and loneliness of having an illegitimate child (Burman & Preston-Whyte 1992:100). As has been said: *I would rather have been born crippled than illegitimate* (Report of a Day Conference 1967:4). When the girl is still pregnant she may get antenatal care at clinics or hospitals, but once the child is delivered the medical model stops. It stops at exactly the point at which services are needed most after childbirth (Compton et al. 1987:140). Colletta (1981:535) concludes that adolescents are aided during pregnancy but abandoned when they become parents. Lack of support will make the illegitimate child even more unwanted. Allen (1980:ix) concludes that adolescent child-bearing has unfortunate consequences for everyone involved. It is unfortunate for the offspring as well as for the young parents.

The present-day attitude towards illegitimacy is different from that of the past, more especially in the first world countries like America and Britain. In Britain, for instance, the problem of adolescent pregnancy is no longer news (Pochin 1969:3). In a third world country like Venda the rumour about a girl's pregnancy still spreads like veld fire. Once a girl falls pregnant outside marriage, she will obviously lead a traumatic life. Her illegitimate child is regarded as the wages of sin and she, the mother, is regarded as the sinner.

Whether we are dealing with a first or third world country, one thing in common in both is that being pregnant by "mistake" derails girls from their normal course. More especially if they are still at school or return to school after delivery of the baby.

In conclusion it can be said that although having a child is one of the most beautiful experiences on earth, to the young adolescent it might become a nightmare and

traumatic experience she will never forget. Depending on personal circumstances, the illegitimate baby is a heavy weight around the mother's neck and causes her to be depressed sometimes, feel rejected and battle to cope with life. Even more so with the young girl who, after having the baby, wants to study further, in our case referring to the schoolgirl mother.

3.2.2 Rejection by the boyfriend

Many adolescent boyfriends refuse to accept being the father of the child even though they were seriously involved in sexual activities (Cronjé et al. 1987:134). Some boys are afraid that if they bring up the possibility of pregnancy and suggests the use of contraceptives, the girl will change her mind about having sexual intercourse (Papalia & Olds 1990:588).

Contrary to the traditional black culture, these days boys are primarily after sexual pleasure. They only want to satisfy their sexual lust. Some boys and girls think there is sex for pleasure and sex for 'making' a baby. Boys then wonder why the girl decided to 'make' a baby when they did not first consult them (the boys) before doing so. They think, therefore, that the babies are not theirs and refuse responsibility bluntly.

In many cases the boyfriend does not even bother to support the child. According to Burman and Preston-Whyte (1992:100), even those who do, do so via the courts or social welfare and usually only after a legal battle. According to Daria (1988:25), "I am pregnant" may have different meanings and implications, depending on whether the speaker is married or unmarried. To a couple, these words can evoke joy and anticipation. But when the speaker is an adolescent girl, the same words can spark guilt, embarrassment and recrimination. And almost inevitably, they spell the end of courtship, romance and also the end of her formal education.

In most instances the pregnancy changes the girl's physical and emotional relationship with the baby's father (Bernstein 1971:13) and the result is the dissenting spouse

(Gerdes 1988:233). Barber (1975:19) states that the position facing the unmarried father, particularly a young male, is consequently extremely bewildering. Under the circumstances his initial denial of responsibility is entirely understandable.

Some males compare themselves with others. Thus when one peer impregnates a girl, others are often impelled to prove themselves equally capable. In these instances the girl will have fulfilled her role and she will probably be abandoned. The unmarried mother must now face reality and facing reality may mean having to acknowledge that she has been abandoned by the baby's father, and that she is in social or economic jeopardy (Bernstein 1971:31). According to Burman and Preston-Whyte (1992:101), the girl must also face the possible social stigma of the fatherless family.

Allen (1980:234) states that after young boys have had some fun, they become fathers but not husbands. Such boys are less sure than girls about what to do in their new role. Allen (1980:24) further gives a typical case that occurred in Farmville to illustrate rejection by a boyfriend.

... Patti Davies (all names are fictitious), age 16, stood in a Farmville phone booth, crying. She dialled number after number, but hung up before anyone had a chance to answer. She was upset, confused, and at times angry. The reason? She was pregnant, and had no idea where to turn for help. Her boyfriend had left her (Robinson 1988:28).

When pregnancy without marriage occurs the boyfriend is labelled the exploiter, she the exploited, a greedy seducer (Barber 1975:18).

Callister (1991:44) states that if you are the father of an unplanned-for baby, your perspective is different. Because you do not experience any of the physical symptoms, you might feel a whole range of emotions, from excitement to anger, to fear to joy. You might not acknowledge any responsibility at all, thus rejection of the

girlfriend.

While teenage pregnancy is so high, the majority of boys still disagree that it is okay to tell a girl that you love her so that you can have sex with her. Most disagree with the adage, "Getting a girl pregnant proves that you are a man" (Robinson 1988:29). But many of the teenage fathers whom Robinson talked to, felt unprepared for the consequences that parenthood brought (Robinson 1988:39). If the boyfriend is unprepared to face the consequences, his only alternative will be rejection of his girlfriend.

In matters related to pregnancy, society seems to understand that boys may be teenage fathers but girls should not be teenage mothers. In Western culture the male is often regarded as a relatively free agent whose pre-marital or extra-marital indiscretions are, in some measure, tacitly accepted or overlooked (Barber 1975:19). To say that unmarried fatherhood has been openly condoned may be an overstatement, yet it is not without its kernel of truth. We still place the major onus for out-of-wedlock conception on the girls while the boys are often subjected only to raised eyebrows, along with considerable subrosa approval that they have proved their masculinity. Barber (1975:115) states further that the very obvious fact that for every unwed mother there is an unwed father has been virtually ignored by social agencies and the helping professions.

We can, therefore, rightly conclude that adolescent parenthood is a problem for both the girls who have babies and the boys who father them. And perhaps it is a problem that we must all face if solutions are to be found. It seems that the obstacles and stumbling blocks that adolescents encounter make it difficult for the relationships to last, with the rejected girl (mother) being affected more seriously than the boy (father). In the case of schoolgirl mothers, rejection by the boyfriend has an even more dramatic influence on their lives.

3.2.3 Rejection by parents

Pregnant girls are normally afraid to tell their parents about the pregnancy. Many girls

tell the nurse or the doctor before they tell their parents. Some girls never tell their parents by themselves but rather choose to have an intermediary. Daria (1988:25) concludes that whether a girl is pregnant or not, some parents do not seem to care.

Parents in a normal family structure will define boundaries, rules and roles to their children. They will normally give their children guidance. Parents wish their children the best in life. If the child does not live up to the standard that the parents had hoped for, they will obviously be disappointed. Normally, if a girl falls pregnant parents feel bitter and in some extreme cases, girls are then literally expelled from home after falling pregnant. Stuart and Wells (1982:302) state that a family that has a history of difficulty in resolving crises, will have greater difficulty resolving the crisis caused by the pregnancy of an adolescent member.

Colletta (1981:534) states that the adolescent's pregnancy and its subsequent child-bearing and child-rearing lead to disrupted relationship with parents. The girls' pregnancy and their motherhood seem to have different impacts on fathers and mothers (parents). For example, the fathers of some unmarried mothers seem to be the chief source of their unhappiness. They appear to their daughters as cruel, rejecting or tyrannical (Cheetham 1977:66).

Langeni (Fiat 1988:17) explains that the teenage pregnant girl experiences depression because she may be ostracised by her family, the very people from whom she needs support. Unmarried mothers are regarded as individuals in crisis. When individuals are in crisis, their parents are in crisis, too. Parental rejection of an unmarried teenage mother may indirectly be a rejection of her crisis and not exactly of herself.

Langeni (Fiat 1988:17) concludes that parent education is all important in order to improve their communication with their children. Parents are too embarrassed or shy or just could not be bothered to take the time to speak to their children about growing up.

Finally, if an unmarried mother (including the schoolgirl mother) is emotionally and otherwise affected through rejection by the boyfriend, how much more will rejection by her parents have a traumatic influence on her life? It is virtually impossible for any child to achieve academic success when the relations with his or her parents are not healthy. The dramatic events surrounding an illegitimate pregnancy make it even worse for the unmarried mother to cope with life and schoolwork if she is denied the loving and caring support of her parents.

3.2.4 Scholastic problems

Although not empirically proved, we can expect a direct correlation between an increasing incidence of teenage pregnancy and scholastic problems. The first potential problem that the girl will encounter is that she could be asked or told to leave school by either her parents, kinfolk or the school authorities (Boult 1991:73). In many cases, therefore, schoolgirl mothers first drop out of school. They then come back to continue with school. They are automatically behind their age group by a standard or more. One of the problems facing teenage mothers in coping with their schoolwork is lack of concentration (Burman & Preston-Whyte 1992:188). This is understandable if we keep in mind the traumatic experience this young mother has gone through. Her emotional life has probably been shattered while she still has to face the world around her. Keeping the baby does not improve the situation for it further divides her attention between her schoolwork and attending to the baby. No wonder she battles to concentrate.

As teenage pregnancies are unplanned, in many cases there are no preparations for who will remain with the young baby when the mother goes back to school. This gives schoolgirl mothers additional problems. Osofsky (1968:63) states further that the lower socio-economic girl, and especially the non-white (black) girl, neither conceals the pregnancy nor puts her infant up for adoption. This means that the girl will go back to school and her child will remain behind.

In Venda to date (1994) there is no record of any schoolgirl who has ever placed her

infant up for adoption. This means that schoolgirl mothers are not just mothers simply because they once delivered babies, but because they play a part in child rearing as well. Some schoolgirl mothers are continuously absent from school because their babies are admitted to hospitals and their babies need breast feeding. Schoolgirl mothers are, it seems, "admitted" to hospitals on the ground of the illness of their siblings. These incidents directly interrupt the scholastic progress of the girl.

Research has consistently shown that unplanned and premature parenthood preempts the educational and vocational experience of the adolescent girl, which is essential to prepare her for her adult roles. According to Robinson (1988:40), data from Project Talent has revealed that adolescent mothers obtained substantially less education and guidance than their classmates. The younger they were at the time of their child's birth, the more severe the educational setback they endured. Research by Osofsky (1968:64) has indeed shown that more than 50% of schoolgirl mothers drop out of school again within one year. This confirms the fact that motherhood has a direct negative influence on schoolwork.

Some schoolgirl mothers find school boring. Arlene (Howard 1975:226) shares her experiences:

... it's just that day after day it's get up, take care of the baby, go to school, come back home, take care of the baby, go to bed, get up, get the baby ready, go to school, pick up the baby, go home, take care of the baby, and on and on and on. I think a lot about dropping out of school.

This kind of life is, of course, monotonous and one can assume that little or no successful learning will take place under such circumstances.

In conclusion, taking into consideration the traumatic experience of an unexpected pregnancy (and baby), we can expect young girls to struggle academically, whether they keep the baby or not. Robinson (1988:40) found that girls who became teenage

parents reported having lower academic abilities at the age of 15 than their classmates. They also have lower educational aspirations. From investigation Card and Wise concluded that, regardless of background factors, teenage parenthood is a direct cause of "truncated" schooling (Robinson 1988:40).

3.2.5 The ambivalent role of schoolgirl mothers

Schoolgirl mothers must be mothers on the one hand and ordinary schoolgirls on the other. During school hours, the schoolgirl mother must be *persona grata* amongst other girls. After school hours, however, she must pretend to be a mother *par excellence* to her child. This state of affairs, in itself, is a problem and is confusing.

The term "adolescent" itself is confusing even if the girl is not a mother. Hamacheck (1985:95) states that there is, all in all, a good bit of confusion about what adolescence means and when it ends. Adult ambiguity about adolescence reinforces adolescents ambiguity about themselves. Whether adolescent girls should be addressed as teenagers or girls or ladies is hard to know. If the adolescent is a mother, the ambiguity about her state of affairs will be exaggerated.

It should be noted that the adolescence period is difficult for most adolescents. For the adolescent mother it will be worse, because the developmental process is increased in complexity because of the additional role of parenting. Parenting and schooling do not seem to go hand in hand. Brunson (1981:27) concludes that adolescent mothers are thrust into an adult role before completing their own development.

When a girl comes home with a newborn from hospital her parents will still relate to her as their child, but at the same time she will be establishing her identity as an adult (Roles 1990:46). The girl may struggle to assert her independence in her new role as a parent. If she is living under their roof then she will still be dependent on them. Roles (1990:46) goes on to say that as a girl, her role as a parent may overlap with her mother's role as parent and homemaker. Sometimes two mothers in one house

and in one kitchen can be too much. According to Ballon (Stuart & Wells 1982:310), the resolution of ambivalent feelings toward motherhood is one of the major object relation tasks of pregnancy. She sees the difficulty of this task as dependent upon the degree of ambivalence in the daughter/mother relationship.

If we take into consideration the responsibility and emotional and physical impact which go hand in hand with ordinary motherhood, we begin to feel sorry for the schoolgirl mother who has to face the battle on two sides: first as a mother at home and then as a pupil in the school, and we ask ourselves the question: What are the real chances of this person succeeding, not only as a mother at home but also on an academic level? It seems quite obvious that her chances for failure in both areas are better than her successes.

3.3 THE RELATIONSHIP OF SCHOOLGIRL MOTHERS WITH PEERS

The unmarried schoolgirl mother is confronted with a lot of social problems (sometimes in contrast to the married schoolgirl mother). After delivering a baby, the young mother loses her peers and becomes lonely. According to Gerdes (1988:233), unmarried mothers are also despised by their peers. Therefore, the unmarried mother does not fit in with either her childless peers or married peers. The only peers left will be other unmarried mothers.

Research has indeed revealed that unmarried mothers tend to group themselves together and do not mix freely with ordinary girls at times (Beck 1986:8). Colletta (1981:534) mentions isolation from a peer group as one of the factors that cause additional stress for adolescent mothers. Research has revealed that young mothers who dropped out of school reported the most difficult life circumstances, mainly because they were isolated from their peer group and also received the least support from their families. Roles (1990:47) states that as a single parent, one may find it difficult to get back with one's old crowd of friends. One's needs may be different, and one may find oneself drifting toward new friends.

Bearing in mind the difficulties the schoolgirl mother faces concerning her baby, family, boyfriend and so on, the rejection from her peer group will contribute to the deterioration of her learning situation.

3.4 THE RELATIONSHIP WITH TEACHERS

The relationship of a schoolgirl mother with teachers is a two-way process. On the one hand, she has her own perceptions about teachers and on the other, teachers and principals have got their own about her. Teachers and the authorities in general regard pregnancy as a misconduct and misbehaviour. Girls who fall pregnant and then deliver babies are faced with the teachers' disapproval. Teachers and principals alike, may treat the girl as one who cannot be trusted under any circumstances especially when there is knowledge of prior pregnancy. According to Osofsky (1968:77), teachers and principals have informed girls that their behaviour will be watched carefully. This is mainly caused by the fear that schoolgirl mothers may repeat pregnancy.

On the other hand, not uncommonly, teenagers who have been pregnant have considerable concern about the attitudes which teachers will have towards them in the future. Concerns often voiced express anxiety over being judged delinquent, immoral, or promiscuous. Unfortunately, there appears to be considerable truth to this fear (Osofsky 1968:77). This gives an impression that having a baby is not regarded as something inappropriate, but it is regarded as a crime which must never be repeated.

Rains (1971:128) gives the impression that teachers are relatively unconcerned with their pupils' out-of-class lives. Their non-involvement in any but the strictly educational aspects, makes teachers treat all girls the same irrespective of whether one group has got children or not. Though schoolgirl motherhood seems to be a special case, it normally will not receive its due attention from teachers.

The relationship between schoolgirl mothers and teachers is another factor affecting the learning situation of schoolgirl mothers negatively. One can only speculate how

different the situation of schoolgirl mothers could have been, had the relationship between them and their teachers (and of course other significant people) been one of understanding and acceptance.

3.5 THE RELATIONSHIP WITH THE SELF

It is important to note that the self-concept is inversely proportional to anxiety. The weaker the self-concept, the greater the anxiety. The greater a person's self-acceptance, the fewer the frightening situations he anticipates or encounters since he has fewer doubts about his ability or acceptance (Vrey 1990:169).

As far as girls are concerned, premarital sex these days has become an issue of a lower magnitude, but having a child while unmarried still makes people raise eyebrows. Whatever the outlook for unmarried mothers may be in the future, having an out-of-wedlock child today remains for many women an unhappy experience, socially and emotionally (Bernstein 1971:11). She further on states that a woman who is having a child out of wedlock will come away from the experience with an inferior sense of herself (Bernstein 1971:16). Sarrel (1974:5) shows that pregnancy can represent entrapment in a mire in which self-esteem becomes very low.

Both Gerdes (1988:236) and Bernstein (1971:30) regard an unmarried mother as a woman in crisis, who is prone to feelings of guilt and self-depreciation. Furthermore, unmarried mothers exhibit a whole range of reactions, namely denial, hostility, suspicion, excessive guilt and depression (Bernstein 1971:19).

Boys seem to care less about the well-being of their illegitimate babies and the child's mother. This will obviously affect the girls negatively as research has indicated that being alone and lacking a secure commitment on the part of the child's father affect the mother's self-esteem (Hartley 1975:13). Colletta (1981:534) puts it that, in terms of personal characteristics, teenagers who become pregnant are more likely than their age-mates to have low self-esteem. This is confirmed by Brunson (1981:19), who states that a teenage mother needs to develop her own identity and sense of self-

worth. Often her self-esteem is low, she feels unattractive and unfit because she is still growing and maturing.

During pregnancy and immediately thereafter, the girl will look or seem deformed and ugly. She will possibly regard herself as unattractive and unwanted. If the girl is rejected by her boyfriend during or after pregnancy, she will be sure that her beauty, which once served as the magnet to attract the boy, has faded. Her physical self-concept will deteriorate forthwith.

The relationship with the self is a most crucial factor in a person's achievement. Even if circumstances are not ideal, when a person believes in himself or herself, achievement is still possible. But for a person with low self-concept, chances of achieving high scores or rising above circumstances are very poor.

There is, therefore, a positive correlation between self-concept and achievement. When the self-concept is high, chances are that achievement will be high, too. When self-concept decreases, achievement will also shift downward. As already stated above, we expect a low self concept in respect of both the unmarried mother and the schoolgirl mother with the expected impact it will have on their studies.

3.6 SOCIAL/EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Teenage pregnancy is a world-wide problem. The main concern is not pregnancy per se, but the consequences that will follow after the child has been born. Whilst pregnancy will directly affect the adolescent scholastically, there will also be a significant effect on the girl's social and emotional development.

Teenage pregnancy is causing much concern in many countries, including South Africa (Gerdes 1988:235). This statement is applicable to Venda. Venda forms part of region G. The following are some of the reasons why pre-marital adolescent pregnancy is viewed in such a serious light. Socially, it may perpetuate the conditions of deprivation and poverty that often characterise the teenage mother's background

(Gerdes 1988:235). Whilst Colletta (1981:535) mentions material support as a form of support that should be given to adolescent mothers, she stresses emotional support as well.

Emotionally, pregnancy or subsequent motherhood may be an attempt to satisfy unmet emotional needs for intimacy, bonding and being needed. It may relate to the girl's search for identity or becoming a mother; the girl may feel she has attained a certain identity and status. However, her identity may become foreclosed because she may seek no further clarification of her individual identity (Gerdes 1988:235).

To trace the unmarried mother's social/emotional development better, it is necessary to notice the point where there was a sudden emotional change. The problem starts during pregnancy and is fuelled by an anxiety about the unknown motherhood which is just around the corner. Roberts (1966:111-112) states that during the first pregnancy in particular, women are apt to suffer terrifying dreams and fantasies of giving birth to a dead or misshapen child. He states further that pregnancy constitutes a continuing experience in physiological and emotional change.

Each period seems to have its biological characteristics and typical emotional concomitants, but Roberts (1966:112) admits that there is still much uncharted territory in our knowledge of this psychobiological phenomenon.

Even where financial support is not a problem (Burman & Preston-Whyte 1992:190; Hartley 1975:12), the emotional warmth, security and consistency which are so important in life are less likely to be available to unwed mothers. The unwed mother may even expect her child to provide emotional support for her and may interpret the child's crying as a personal rejection.

According to Brunson (1981:18), adolescent mothers experience emotional changes similar to adult mothers. They are happy one moment and emotionally sad the next. This emotional fluctuation is also influenced by the fact that adolescent mothers are still growing and maturing and, therefore, their own identity and sense of self-worth is

undeveloped. The emotional relativeness and interpersonal stress evident in pregnant women is compounded in the young adolescent mother because of her immaturity.

As teachers we are well aware of the close relationship between emotional stability and learning success. Few factors upset the learning process as much as emotional disturbances. When we take the emotional fluctuations and uncertainty of the schoolgirl mother into consideration, we can actually expect her studies to be disrupted and her scholastic report to be unsatisfactory.

3.7 EDUCATIONAL NEEDS

These days, formal education is not something we want, but rather something we need. It has become indispensable. The more formal education one has acquired, the more marketable one will be in employment circles. To be a boy or a girl does not need a boy or a girl's effort for it is biologically determined, but to be a man or a woman needs personal effort. Pregnancy and the subsequent motherhood is an obvious cancer in the educational life of the girls if they are still at school, or if they would like to continue schooling.

According to Brunson (1981:20), pregnancy has a crippling effect on educational pursuits. Researchers have consistently found that teenage mothers are more likely to drop out of school than women who delay their first childbirth until they are in their twenties. When an adolescent falls pregnant, much of her future life has been determined; that is, the probability of events such as disrupted education and welfare dependency are increased.

Findings from the Baltimore study by Furstenberg (Brunson 1981:21) show that only half of the pregnant teenagers finished high school, in contrast to 90% of a comparative group who did not become pregnant.

It thus seems as if we can expect that the schoolgirl mother in South Africa (and especially in Venda) will have an obscure future perspective with little to look forward

to and little motivation to go on with her studies after school. We trust that the empirical investigation will reveal more about this issue to us.

3.8 SUMMARY

Though experience with unmarried mothers abounds in surprises, the following is characteristic of most schoolgirl mothers; they are usually under stress and stress, regardless of the underlying dynamics, consumes energy and may result in insomnia, day dreaming, inability to concentrate and a lowering of learning capacity. The psychological stresses of pregnancy are intensified by the social stresses of the out-of-wedlock status.

Coupled with the unwanted baby (who in most instances is rejected by the father), rejection by parents, mistrust by the school authorities, and her ambivalent status, the unmarried mother/the schoolgirl mother is left with no choice but to be frustrated. She will then obviously develop self pity and her self-concept will be low and affect her performance at school negatively.

The exposition above has clearly indicated that adolescent schoolgirl motherhood interferes with the learning process of the girls at secondary school. Motherhood for the girls who are still at secondary school level seems to teem with problems only, and there seems to be no single advantage attached to it.

CHAPTER 4

EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

4.1 INTRODUCTION

From the literature study it became evident that the schoolgirl mother (married or unmarried) is a unique person, battling with personal circumstances and faced with problems unfamiliar to the ordinary adolescent or the young married mother (not attending school).

It seems as if the schoolgirl mother is basically rejected by her peers, maintains poor relationships with her teachers and cannot always rely on the support of her parents, let alone her boyfriend. Even when married, the total commitment of her husband to the marriage is under question. Considering this sort of profile, it is not surprising to find that schoolgirl mothers generally do not achieve well at school and their future academic career seems to be bleak.

In order to find out more about the circumstances surrounding the schoolgirl mother in South Africa, and more specifically in Venda, the present researcher decided to conduct an empirical investigation into some of the problems related to the learning situation of these girls in Venda secondary schools.

4.2 PLANNING OF THE EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

In order to execute the empirical investigation, the researcher followed the following steps:

4.2.1 Designing and compiling a questionnaire, based on the theoretical investigation

4.2.2 Obtaining permission from the Venda authorities to execute the investigation in their secondary schools

- 4.2.3 Obtaining the co-operation of different schools and parental authorities, where applicable
- 4.2.4 Deciding on the sample procedure and selecting the applicable schools
- 4.2.5 Applying the questionnaire to a pilot group
- 4.2.6 Applying the questionnaire to the selected schools and pupils
- 4.2.7 Gathering and marking the different questionnaires
- 4.2.8 Evaluating and interpreting the data
- 4.2.9 Writing the final report
- 4.2.1 Designing and compiling a questionnaire**

Mouly (Jacobs, Oosthuizen, Le Roux, Olivier, Bester & Mellet 1988:95) states that the questionnaire as such dates back to 1847 when it was used as a research instrument for the first time by Horace Mann.

Concerning this research the theoretical investigation clearly indicated that the learning situation of the adolescent (and *per se* the adolescent schoolgirl mother) is loaded with problems, usually culminating in the relationships formed by the adolescent with the self, peers, teachers and other significant people. In order, therefore, to identify some of the problems related to the learning situation of schoolgirl mothers in Venda secondary schools, it seemed meaningful and logical to investigate the relationships formed by these schoolgirl mothers with themselves, their peers, husbands, parents and others.

In order to investigate the nature of these relationships, the researcher decided to design and compile a questionnaire to be of help in the empirical investigation.

4.2.1.1 Discussion of the questionnaire

The questionnaire consists of three sections:

Section A: This section covers personal information.

Section B: This section covers the scholastic record. To complete this section successfully, pupils needed to have their school reports with them, as arranged.

Section C: This section covers the relationships of the schoolgirl mothers e.g. her relationship with herself, with her child, with her parents, with her peers, etc.

To avoid a certain pattern and monotony in the questionnaire, the 100 items covering different types of relationships of the schoolgirl mother were mixed by writing the different items on pieces of paper and then drawn randomly from a hat. In table 1, the different sub-sections representing the different relationships as well as the items under these relationships, are indicated.

A brief explanation of the different relationships follows. (Also see table 1 and the questionnaire (Appendix A) included.)

Section 1: Relationship with the self, peers and parents

1.1 Relationship with the self

Under this section, the researcher investigated the relationship of the schoolgirl mother with herself. Is she basically satisfied with herself or is she unhappy with her personal circumstances? Examples of statements under this sub-section are:

- I always feel sick.

- I like my body as it is.
- I do not understand myself at all.

1.2 Relationship with peers

Under this section the investigator was interested in establishing the relationships of the schoolgirl mother with her friends. Does she have many friends, do her friends like her, does she think friendships are important? and so on. Examples of statements under this sub-section are:

- My friends are my best advisers.
- I have many friends.
- One does not need friends.

1.3 Relationship with parents

Under this section the researcher was interested in establishing the relationship of the schoolgirl mother with her parents. Is she open to her parents or is she afraid of her parents, can she rely on their support? and so on. Examples of statements under this sub-section are:

- I can discuss personal problems with my mother.
- My parents are fair to me.
- My parents are very strict.

Section 2: Relationship with teachers, studies and examinations

2.1 Relationship with teachers

The researcher under this section tried to investigate the relationship of the schoolgirl mother with teachers. Does she see the teachers as good and helpful people, is she happy or unhappy about teachers? and so on. Examples of statements under this sub-section are:

- Teachers are supportive and understanding.

- I do not mind when teachers reprimand me.
- Teachers always misuse their authority.

2.2 Relationship with studies

Under this section the researcher investigated the relationship of the schoolgirl mother with her studies. Is she keen to study or does she regard studies as unimportant? Examples of the statements under this sub-section are:

- I can hardly concentrate on my studies.
- Studies waste my time.
- My future depends on my studies.

2.3 Relationship with tests/examinations

Under this section the researcher investigated the relationship of the schoolgirl mother with tests/examinations. Does she write examinations with confidence, does she have the courage to succeed, does she prepare properly for examinations? and so on. Examples of statements under this sub-section are:

- I am afraid of examinations.
- Weekly tests make me sick.
- Examinations expose me to my parents.

Section 3: Relationship with husband

Under this section the researcher tried to establish the relationship of the schoolgirl mother with her husband. Is the schoolgirl mother happy about the husband, are they living in harmony or are they quarreling most of the time? and so on. Examples of statements under this section are:

- My husband is a good person.
- I want to divorce my husband.
- I am afraid of my husband.

Section 4: Relationship with child/children

Under this section the researcher tried to establish the relationship of the schoolgirl mother with her child/children. Is she happy to have a child/children or does she regret being a mother? How does the presence of a child/children affect her studies? and so on. Examples of statements under this section are:

- I like children in general.
- I am glad to have a child/children.
- I wish I had no child/children.

4.2.2 Obtaining permission from the Venda authorities to execute the investigation in their secondary schools

All the 197 secondary schools in Venda fall under the Venda Department of Education and Culture. The researcher first applied for permission from the Director General to conduct research at selected schools.

Aspects covered in the application letter mainly included proof that the researcher was registered with Unisa for an MEd degree in Psychology of Education and the title of the dissertation. The permission concerned allowed the researcher to distribute questionnaires to secondary schoolgirls during school hours. However, arrangements were made with secondary school principals of selected schools before girls could be subjected to any questionnaire.

4.2.3 Obtaining the co-operation of different schools and parental authorities, where applicable

Before the researcher could conduct research at any selected secondary school, a pre-arrangement with the principals of the schools concerned had to be made. The principals informed the researcher about the possible date and time on which the research could be conducted. In other words, the principal at each selected school indicated the period (date and time) which was convenient for his/her own school to

be subjected to a questionnaire.

Principals of selected schools were also shown a copy of a letter from the Director General of Education which permitted the researcher to conduct research in secondary schools in Venda. Parents were not approached directly for their permission as girls would be subjected to a questionnaire during school hours only and principals would be present at schools to act as *in loco parentis*. But, if need be, parental authorities could have been contacted for their permission. Principals of the selected schools were requested to notify girls at their schools to bring along their school reports to school on the day on which they would be subjected to the questionnaire. Some items of the questionnaire could not be completed successfully without the school reports.

4.2.4 Deciding on the sampling procedure and selecting the applicable schools

According to the Venda Department of Education and Culture's list of school-addresses (1992:6-8), there are 197 secondary schools in the six inspection areas. There are 48 junior secondary schools (Std 6-8), 148 secondary schools (Std 6-10) and 1 (one) senior secondary school (Std 9-10). It would be very difficult to conduct research in all Venda secondary schools. The researcher therefore decided to resort to sampling. In this research, the probability sampling method was used. The sample was chosen from the wider secondary schoolgirls' population (ordinary schoolgirls and schoolgirl mothers) by a process known as randomization. According to Leedy (1989:153), randomization means selecting a sample from the whole population in such a way that the characteristics of each of the units of the whole sample approximate the characteristics of the total population.

4.2.4.1 *Sampling of the secondary schools*

In this research at least 1 (one) secondary school was chosen in each of the six inspection areas. Secondary schools were allotted numbers from 1 to 197. In the Venda Department of Education and Culture's list of school addresses (1992:6-38) secondary schools have been arranged according to the alphabetical order and category of the secondary school starting from junior secondary schools and a senior secondary school.

Selection of schools:

Using the random sampling numbers in Mulder (1988:227), schools were selected as follows:

- Inspection Area A: School number 14
- Inspection Area B: School number 36
- Inspection Area C: School number 59
- Inspection Area D: School number 126
- Inspection Area E: School number 161

The sixth inspection area was reserved for the pilot study.

4.2.4.2 *Sampling of pupils*

In school no. 14, all the Std 6 girls were subjected to the questionnaire. In the next school, namely no. 36, all the Std 7 girls were subjected to the questionnaire. The last three schools, namely numbers 59, 126 and 161, provided Std 8, 9 and 10, respectively.

Selection of girls based on the random sampling method could not be used because the researcher would not know in advance the girls who have children and those without.

Principals were not asked to identify schoolgirl mothers. This kind of discrimination and embarrassment could cause discontent amongst the schoolgirl mothers. The researcher also wanted to draw comparisons (where applicable) between schoolgirl mothers and ordinary schoolgirls. Therefore, in all the targeted schools, all the girls in one standard were given questionnaires. The same questionnaire was used for both schoolgirl mothers and ordinary schoolgirls.

4.2.5 Applying the questionnaire to a pilot group

Leedy (1989:143) puts it that all questionnaires should be pretested on a small population in what is often referred to as a pilot study. The aim of a pilot study is to test whether there are any items that the subjects may have difficulty in understanding, or that some items may not cover exactly what the researcher is seeking to determine.

Olivier (Jacobs et al. 1989:101) states that it would be of no use to the researcher to send out a questionnaire in its final form if the researcher had not as yet determined its validity. Determining validity is part of the development of the questionnaire and pilot studies are useful in this regard.

Concerning this research, the questionnaire was tried out on a small group selected from the population on which the final questionnaire would be applied.

As stated in paragraph 4.2.4.1 above, the sixth inspection area was reserved for the sake of a pilot study. In that inspection area, two secondary schools were subjected to the questionnaire, namely junior secondary school (number 166) and a senior secondary school (number 197).

4.2.6 Applying the questionnaire to the selected schools and pupils

The schools selected (i.e. school number 14, 36, 59, 126 and 161) are quite a long

distance from one another. The researcher could not visit all the schools on one day. On the other hand, the principals of the selected schools indicated suitable dates to do the investigation at their schools.

As stated in paragraph 4.2.3 above, arrangements were made with the schools in advance so that on the day on which pupils were subjected to the questionnaire, they should come with either the previous year's report or information contained therein, because such information was needed when pupils responded to some items of the questionnaire.

The researcher arranged with the principals of the selected schools that girls of the standard needed at his/her school, be separated from the boys so that only girls were subjected to the questionnaire. The researcher then distributed the questionnaires himself and collected them after completion.

4.2.7 Gathering and marking the different questionnaires

After the girls had completed the questionnaires, the researcher collected them and checked them for any irregularities (e.g. items not answered, items answered incorrectly, information left out etc.). After that the questionnaires were prepared for computerization (see details later).

4.2.8 Evaluation and interpretation of the data

Data obtained from the process of computerization was then qualitatively and quantitatively evaluated and interpreted by the researcher.

4.3 CONCLUSION

From the discussion in the previous chapters, it was evident that because of the harsh personal conditions surrounding the schoolgirl mothers, their performance will be poor. Compared to ordinary schoolgirls, their achievement may be lower. It seems that schoolgirl mothers experience problems with different relationships, starting with the relationship with the self. It was hoped that the endeavour of investigation through a questionnaire would reveal relevant facts and lead to a scientific conclusion.

TABLE 1**DISTRIBUTION OF ITEMS IN SECTION C OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE**

Sub-sections	Items									
Section 1	2	8	16	19	25	42	44	50	53	79
	29	39	58	61	66	69	73	80	92	100
	1	3	6	15	23	47	72	81	90	96
Section 2	12	20	22	24	32	57	62	70	84	97
	26	37	40	43	55	63	65	71	85	89
	7	27	35	45	48	56	68	74	77	88
Section 3	5	9	11	14	18	21	31	33	36	49
	52	59	64	67	76	82	87	93	95	98
Section 4	4	10	13	17	28	30	34	38	41	46
	51	54	60	75	78	83	86	91	94	99

KEY:

SECTION 1 = Relationship with self, friends and parents

SECTION 2 = Relationship with teachers, studies and examinations

SECTION 3 = Relationship with husband

SECTION 4 = Relationship with child/children

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS OF THE INVESTIGATION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the results of the empirical investigation will be discussed. The questionnaire was first given to a pilot group as indicated in paragraph 4.2.5. The final questionnaire was then prepared and distributed to the five secondary schools from five different inspection areas in Venda as explained in paragraph 4.2.6. In total 190 girls (Std. 6-10) completed the questionnaire.

After the questionnaires were completed by the girls as stated above, the data were then processed, using the SAS computer program.

5.2 THE RATE OF MOTHERHOOD

There were schoolgirl mothers in all the standards as revealed by the girls' responses to section A of the questionnaire. The rate of motherhood seemed to increase with each standard from Std 6 to Std 10. Findings in this respect are indicated by table 2.

Table 2 clearly indicates the increase of motherhood with standards e.g. 2,9% in Standard 6 and 49,3% in Standard 10. Alternatively the rate of non-motherhood decreases as standards increase e.g. 97,1% for Standard 6 and 50,7% for Standard 10.

TABLE 2: MOTHERS AND NON-MOTHERS

STANDARD	MOTHERS	NON-MOTHERS	TOTAL
6	1 (2,9%)	33 (97,1%)	34
7	3 (5,7%)	50 (94,3%)	53
8	1 (8,3%)	11 (91,7%)	12
8	5 (25%)	15 (75%)	20
10	35 (49,3%)	36 (50,7)	71
TOTAL	45 (23,7%)	145 (76,3%)	190

5.3 REPEATERS AND NON-REPEATERS (MOTHERS AND NON-MOTHERS)

The researcher wanted to establish whether the rate of failure has any relevancy with motherhood for secondary schoolgirls. In this regard, findings are indicated by table 3 below.

TABLE 3: REPEATERS AND NON-REPEATERS (STD. 6 - STD. 10)

	MOTHERS	NON-MOTHERS	TOTAL
Repeaters	33 (50,8%)	32 (49,2%)	65 (34,2%)
Non-repeaters	12 (9,6%)	113 (90,4%)	125 (65,8%)
TOTAL	45 (23,7%)	145 (76,3%)	190 (100%)

$$X^2 = 37,85$$

$$df = 1$$

$$p < 0,01$$

To determine whether there is any significant difference in the number of repeaters between schoolgirl mothers and ordinary schoolgirls, the following null hypothesis was tested:

There is no significant difference in the number of repeaters between schoolgirl mothers and ordinary schoolgirls.

A X^2 (chi square) was used to determine whether there is any significant difference in the number of repeaters between schoolgirl mothers (SGM) and ordinary schoolgirls (OSG). As revealed by table 3 above, the null hypothesis can be rejected at the 1% level of significance. There is a significant difference in the number of repeaters between schoolgirl mothers and ordinary schoolgirls. Schoolgirl mothers have a greater number of repeaters than the ordinary schoolgirls.

Out of a total of 45 schoolgirl mothers, 73,3% are repeaters as against 26,7% schoolgirl mothers who are non-repeaters. The picture for ordinary schoolgirls is different. Out of 145 ordinary schoolgirls, 22,1% are repeaters, the rest, 77,9% are non-repeaters. This clearly shows that the failure rate of schoolgirl mothers is significantly higher than that of ordinary schoolgirls.

5.4 SCHOOLGIRL MOTHERS AND THEIR AGES

Assuming that a child starts school after the age of 6 years, it is logical to expect 14, 15, 16, 17 and 18 year old girls to be in Standard 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10, respectively. If a child has failed once, it is possible that she will be a year behind her peers. The research findings revealed the following data (refer to table 4 below).

TABLE 4: DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOLGIRL MOTHERS ACCORDING TO THEIR AGES

STANDARD	AGES IN YEARS													TOTAL
	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	
6	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
7	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	3
8	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
9	-	1	2	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	5
10	2	1	5	5	4	3	4	4	1	1	2	1	2	35
TOTAL	3	5	7	5	4	3	6	4	1	1	3	1	2	45

From table 4 above, it is evident that the Standard 6 schoolgirl mother is 5 years behind her peers. The oldest Standard 7 schoolgirl mother is 13 years behind her peers. The oldest Standard 9 schoolgirl mothers are 7 years behind their peers whilst the oldest schoolgirl mothers in Standard 10 are 12 years behind their peers. Note that 77,8% of schoolgirl mothers are doing Standard 10.

According to findings, the average age of falling pregnant of the 45 schoolgirl mothers was 18,4 years with a standard deviation of 2,22%. The youngest mother was 15 years old. There are only two schoolgirl mothers in Standard 10 who are in their normal cohort group. The rest of the schoolgirl mothers are attending school with younger and far younger girls than themselves. Findings in Osofsky (1968:64) appear to support the research results obtained in the present study.

The reason some girls are so far behind their peers is probably that a girl has to drop out of school each time she falls pregnant and then has to stay out of school for a

considerable time to give birth and to care for the newborn.. A girl who has more than one child will, therefore, have dropped out of school more than once. This may be better revealed by table 5 below.

TABLE 5: SCHOOLGIRL MOTHERS AND THEIR NUMBER OF CHILDREN

SCHOOLGIRL MOTHERS	NUMBER OF CHILDREN	PERCENTAGE %
31	1	68,9
10	2	22,2
3	3	6,7
1	4	2,2

As revealed by table 5 above, one schoolgirl mother has probably dropped 4 times out of school four times.

5.5 PLACE OF ABODE OF THE CHILD/CHILDREN

Some schoolgirl mothers have a problem of accommodation and care for their children. If a girl cannot get someone to remain with her child or children during school hours, chances are that she must drop out of school. In some instances a girl gets reliable people who remain with her child or children, but then she must travel long distances to come and see her child/children over week-ends and during school holidays. For married schoolgirl mothers, their children may remain with their in-laws during school hours. Findings concerning the place of abode of the children of schoolgirl mothers are shown by table 6 below.

TABLE 6: PLACE OF ABODE OF CHILD/CHILDREN

STAY WITH CHILD	MARRIED	UNMARRIED	TOTAL
YES	22	21	43
NO	1	1	2
TOTAL	23	22	45

From table 6 above, it is evident that almost all schoolgirl mothers' children stay with them, whether they are married or not. This is in accordance with Osofsky (1968:63), who states that the non-white (black) girl neither conceals the pregnancy nor places her infant up for adoption. Most of the schoolgirl mothers (70%) stay with their children at their parents' homes. 10% of them stay with their children or with other family members whilst 20% stay with their children or with their in-laws. Only two (4,4%) schoolgirl mothers do not stay with their children, but did not place them up for adoption either.

5.6 CONCLUSION WITH REGARD TO SECTION A (REFER TO APPENDIX A)

- Schoolgirl motherhood exists even in Standard 6 in Venda secondary schools.
- The rate of schoolgirl motherhood increases as the standards increases.
- In senior classes e.g. Standard 10, almost half (49,3%) of the girls are mothers.
- Schoolgirl mothers have a very high rate of repeaters (50,8%).
- Almost all non-mothers (90,4%) were also non-repeaters. This is in line with the findings from the Baltimore study by Furstenberg (Brunson 1981:21), which

showed that 90% of the non-mothers finished high school.

- Some schoolgirl mothers are far too old (e.g. 30 years) to still be attending school.
- Venda girls become mothers at an early age; the youngest became a mother at the age of 15 years.
- Venda schoolgirl mothers tend to keep their babies, which is also in line with other research.

5.7 SCHOLASTIC RECORD

Section B of the questionnaire (see appendix A) made provision for the scholastic record of the testee. One girl did not complete this section, which leaves us with a total of 189 pupils.

Firstly, the average academic achievement of schoolgirl mothers and of ordinary schoolgirls were compared. Based on literature study, the following null hypothesis was tested:

There is no significant difference between the average academic achievement of schoolgirl mothers and of ordinary schoolgirls.

The t-test was used to determine whether there is any significant difference between the average achievement of schoolgirl mothers (SGM) and of ordinary schoolgirls (OSG). Results of the t-test revealed the following information according to table 7.

TABLE 7: AVERAGE ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT OF SCHOOLGIRL MOTHERS AND OF ORDINARY SCHOOLGIRLS

	N	MEAN	STD. DEV.	T	DF	PROB > T
SGM	45	35,51	6,47			
OSG	144	47,11	9,37	7,74	187	p <,01

The null hypothesis can be rejected at the 1% level of significance. There is a significant difference between the average academic achievement of schoolgirl mothers and ordinary schoolgirls. The average academic achievement of ordinary schoolgirls is significantly higher than that of the schoolgirl mothers.

Secondly, to determine whether there is a significant difference between the average academic achievement of married and unmarried schoolgirl mothers, the following null hypothesis was tested:

There is no significant difference in the average academic achievement of married and unmarried schoolgirl mothers.

The t-test was used to test this null hypothesis (see table 8).

TABLE 8: AVERAGE ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT OF MARRIED AND UN-MARRIED SCHOOLGIRL MOTHERS

	N	MEAN	STD. DEV.	T	DF	PROB> T
Married	23	35,09	6,27			
Un-married	22	35,95	6,78	0,4459	43	p>0,05

As indicated by table 8 above, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. There is no significant difference between the average academic achievement of schoolgirl mothers who are married and those who are not.

The above findings suggest that secondary schoolgirls who are mothers (schoolgirl mothers) experience a different and probably more difficult learning situation compared to ordinary schoolgirls. This is in accordance with the results in Brunson (1981:20), who found that pregnancy and subsequent motherhood have a crippling effect on educational pursuits. Burman and Preson-Whyte (1992:188) concur with these views by stating that one of the problems facing teenage mothers in coping with their schoolwork is lack of concentration.

5.8 ITEM ANALYSIS

With regard to section C of the questionnaire (see appendix A as well as table 1), an item analysis was done for each section (section 1 to section 4) in order to establish whether each of the items made a significant contribution to the total in its particular section. In a case where an item made no significant contribution, or contributed negatively to the total, the item would be omitted.

The Alpha reliability coefficient was calculated for each section and that was also used

to decide whether an item should be retained or not.

5.8.1 Section 1 of table 1

This section covers the relationships with self, friends and parents. The section contained 28 items. An item analysis revealed the information given in table 9.

TABLE 9: RELATIONSHIP WITH SELF, FRIENDS AND PARENTS

No of subjects	:	190
No of items	:	28
Alpha reliability coefficient	:	0,604999
for standardized variables	:	0,643546
ITEM	ITEM CORRELATION WITH TOTAL	ALPHA
8	0,155	0,598
16	0,300	0,583
19	0,222	0,590
25	0,225	0,591
42	0,197	0,594
44	0,106	0,629
50	0,171	0,598
53	0,068	0,610
79	0,370	0,574
29	0,249	0,588
39	0,309	0,579
58	0,109	0,602
61	0,340	0,575

TABLE 9: RELATIONSHIP WITH SELF, FRIENDS AND PARENTS (CONTINUED)

ITEM	ITEM CORRELATION WITH TOTAL	ALPHA
66	0,350	0,572
69	0,214	0,593
73	0,188	0,595
80	0,362	0,580
92	0,056	0,610
100	0,026	0,622
3	0,415	0,581
6	0,345	0,584
15	0,420	0,577
23	0,041	0,607
47	0,356	0,656
72	0,234	0,589
81	0,308	0,589
90	0,147	0,560
96	0,083	0,605

The Alpha reliability coefficient will change from 0,60 to 0,62 if item 44 is omitted. The same applies to item 100. It was, therefore, decided to omit these two items. Due to that the reliability changed from 0,60 to 0,72.

5.8.2 Section 2 of table 1

This section covers relationship with teachers, studies and examinations and contained 30 items. The following data was obtained (see table 10).

TABLE 10: RELATIONSHIP WITH TEACHERS, STUDIES AND EXAMINATIONS

No of subjects	:	190
No of items	:	30
Alpha reliability coefficient	:	0,712598
for standard variables	:	0,757293
ITEM	ITEM CORRELATION WITH TOTAL	ALPHA
12	0,248	0,705
20	0,214	0,707
22	0,401	0,699
24	0,456	0,695
32	0,427	0,695
57	0,050	0,726
62	0,378	0,697
70	0,030	0,724
84	0,326	0,702
97	0,133	0,713
26	0,267	0,703
37	0,361	0,701
40	0,470	0,689
43	0,365	0,698
55	0,232	0,706

**TABLE 10: RELATIONSHIP WITH TEACHERS, STUDIES AND EXAMINATIONS
(CONTINUED)**

ITEM	ITEM CORRELATION WITH TOTAL	ALPHA
63	0,318	0,670
65	0,426	0,689
71	0,215	0,707
85	0,223	0,752
89	0,242	0,706
7	0,182	0,709
27	0,019	0,722
35	0,367	0,696
45	0,375	0,695
48	0,105	0,714
56	0,402	0,696
68	0,266	0,703
74	0,273	0,704
77	0,330	0,700
88	0,316	0,701

The Alpha reliability coefficient will change from 0,71 tot 0,72 if item 27 is omitted. The same applies to items 57 and 70. The Alpha reliability coefficient will change from 0,71 tot 0,75 if item 85 is omitted. It was, therefore, decided to omit these four items. As a result the reliability changed from 0,71 to 0,78.

5.8.3 Section 3 of table 1

This section covers relationship with the husband. Only married schoolgirl mothers responded to the 20 items contained in this section. Computerized data in this section is as follows (see table 11).

TABLE 11: RELATIONSHIP WITH HUSBAND

No of subjects	:	23
No of items	:	20
Alpha reliability coefficient	:	0,880711
for standard variables	:	0,903631
ITEM	ITEM CORRELATION WITH TOTAL	ALPHA
5	0,277	0,886
9	0,857	0,865
11	0,505	0,876
14	0,645	0,870
18	0,480	0,876
21	0,582	0,875
31	0,785	0,864
33	0,461	0,877
36	0,739	0,866
49	0,755	0,868

TABLE 11: RELATIONSHIP WITH HUSBAND (CONTINUED)

52	0,645	0,870
59	0,673	0,869
64	0,664	0,868
67	0,364	0,880
76	0,281	0,911
82	0,537	0,876
87	0,103	0,884
93	0,604	0,872
95	0,577	0,872
98	0,740	0,867

The Alpha reliability coefficient will change from 0,88 to 0,91 if item 76 is omitted. It was, therefore, decided to omit this item. Due to that the reliability changed from 0,88 to 0,91.

5.8.4 Section 4 of table 1

This section covers the relationship of schoolgirl mothers (married and unmarried) with their children. This section contained 20 items. Findings concerning this section were as follows (see table 12).

TABLE 12: RELATIONSHIP WITH CHILD/CHILDREN

No of subjects	:	45
No of items	:	20
Alpha reliability coefficient	:	0,543521
for standard variables	:	0,595363
ITEM	ITEM CORRELATION WITH TOTAL	ALPHA
4	0,282	0,507
10	0,967	0,543
13	0,380	0,486
17	0,051	0,558
28	0,414	0,479
30	0,114	0,573
34	0,381	0,502
38	0,070	0,543
41	0,272	0,528
46	0,229	0,524
51	0,058	0,550
54	0,128	0,596
60	0,353	0,622
75	0,479	0,477
78	0,117	0,538

TABLE 12: RELATIONSHIP WITH CHILD (CONTINUED)

ITEM	ITEM CORRELATION WITH TOTAL	ALPHA
83	0,305	0,532
86	0,457	0,475
91	0,592	0,443
94	0,023	0,547
99	0,261	0,522

The Alpha reliability coefficient will change from 0,54 to 0,55 if items 17 and 5 are omitted. The coefficient will change from 0,54 to 0,57 if item 30 is omitted and from 0,54 to 0,59 if item 54 is omitted. It was, therefore, decided to omit these four items. As a result the reliability changed from 0,54 to 0,69.

5.9 COMPARISON BETWEEN SCHOOLGIRL MOTHERS AND ORDINARY SCHOOLGIRLS

5.9.1 Relationships with self, friends and parents

A comparison between schoolgirl mothers and ordinary schoolgirls was made in respect of their relationships with the self, friends and parents. All 190 girls were involved. To determine whether there is any significant difference between the two groups, the following null hypothesis was tested:

There is no significant difference in the relationships with self, friends and parents between schoolgirl mothers and ordinary schoolgirls.

Findings in this respect appear in table 13.

TABLE 13: T-TEST FOR SECTION 1 OF TABLE 1

	N	MEAN	STD. DEV.	T	DF	PRVB /T/
SGM	45	82,13	9,69			
OSG	145	78,26	8,05	2,67	188	p<0,01

As table 13 reveals, the null hypothesis can be rejected at the 1% level of significance. There is a significant difference in the relationships with self, friends and parents between schoolgirl mothers and ordinary schoolgirls.

Though unexpected, findings suggest that schoolgirl mothers have better relationships with self, friends and parents than ordinary schoolgirls. The reason or reasons for these unexpected findings are not clear. The literature indeed suggests that young unmarried mothers with children experience feelings of depression, rejection, and so on. It was also suggested that they are not able to maintain good relationships with themselves and others. We can, therefore, only speculate that Venda schoolgirl mothers either experience their learning situation not as unpleasant as it was thought to be, or that they were so eager to reflect an image of acceptance to the outside, that they were not 100% honest when answering the questionnaires. Only further research will reveal the true nature of circumstances.

B Relationships with teachers, studies and examinations

A comparison between schoolgirl mothers and ordinary schoolgirls was also made in respect of their relationships with teachers, studies and examinations. To determine whether there is any significant difference between the two groups, the following null hypothesis was tested:

There is no significant difference in the relationships with teachers, studies and examinations between schoolgirl mothers and ordinary schoolgirls.

Findings in this section are shown by table 14 below.

TABLE 14: T-TEST FOR SECTION 2 OF TABLE 1

	N	MEAN	STD. DEV.	T	DF	PRVB /T/
SGM	45	91,44	7,28			
OSG	145	87,22	8,34	3,06	188	p<0,01

As indicated by table 14, the null hypothesis can be rejected at the 1% level of significance. There is a significant difference in the relationships with teachers, studies and examinations between schoolgirl mothers and ordinary schoolgirls. Schoolgirl mothers seem to have better relationships with teachers, studies and examinations than ordinary schoolgirls. Again, these unexpected findings are difficult to explain and the explanation in paragraph 5.10.1 will suffice.

5.10 COMPARISON BETWEEN THE RELATIONSHIPS MAINTAINED BY MARRIED AND UNMARRIED SCHOOLGIRL MOTHERS

5.10.1 Comparison with regard to relationships with self, friends and parents

A t-test procedure was again conducted on section 1 of table 1. This time only schoolgirl mothers were involved. Married (MARR) and unmarried (UNMA) schoolgirl mothers were compared. To determine whether there is any significant difference between the relationships maintained by the two groups, the following null hypothesis was tested:

There is no significant difference in the relationships with self, friends and parents between married and unmarried schoolgirl mothers.

Findings concerning the relationships with self, friends and parents between married and unmarried schoolgirl mothers appear in table 15.

TABLE 15: T-TEST FOR SECTION 1 OF TABLE 1 FOR SCHOOLGIRL MOTHERS ONLY

N	MEAN	STD. DEV.	T	DF	PRVB /T/
MARR 23	80,65	8,99			
UNMA 22	83,68	10,37	1,0486	43	p>0,05

The null hypothesis cannot be rejected. There is no significant difference in the relationships with self, friends and parents between schoolgirl mothers themselves whether they are married or not.

5.10.2 Comparison with regard to relationships with teachers, studies and examinations

A comparison between schoolgirl mothers (married and unmarried) was again made, to determine whether there is any significant difference between the two groups with regard to relationships with teachers, studies and examinations. The following null hypothesis was tested:

There is no significant difference in the relationships with teachers, studies and examinations between married (MARR) and unmarried (UNMA) schoolgirl mothers.

Findings concerning the relationships with teachers, studies and examinations appear

in table 16.

TABLE 16: T-TEST FOR SECTION 2 OF TABLE 1 FOR SCHOOLGIRL MOTHERS ONLY

	N	MEAN	STD. DEV.	T	DF	PRVB /T/
MARR	23	90,83	6,31			
UNMA	22	92,09	8,29	-0,5778	43	p>0,05

To deduce from table 16, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. There is no significant difference in the relationships with teachers, studies and examinations between married and unmarried schoolgirl mothers.

5.11 RELATIONSHIPS WITH CHILD/CHILDREN (MARRIED AND UNMARRIED SCHOOLGIRL MOTHERS)

While it was not possible to draw a comparison between schoolgirl mothers and ordinary schoolgirls in this regard, the data obtained here were evaluated as follows: For each of the statements related to the abovementioned relationships (see section 4 of table 1), the arithmetic means was calculated to determine to what extent the pupils disagree or agree with a specific statement (see table 17). Where necessary, the percentage of pupils choosing 1 or 2 or 3 or 4 for a specific statement was also calculated. This does not appear in table 17.

TABLE 17: AVERAGE CALCULATIONS FOR SCHOOLGIRL MOTHERS' RELATIONSHIPS WITH THEIR CHILDREN

VARIABLES	MARRIED SCHOOLGIRL MOTHERS		VARIABLES	UNMARRIED SCHOOLGIRL MOTHERS	
	Mean	Std Dev		Mean	Std Dev
V4	2.43	1.34	V4	2.18	1.30
V10	1.52	0.95	V10	1.64	1.05
V13	2.70	1.29	V13	3.18	1.01
V17	2.00	1.17	V17	1.95	1.21
V28	3.57	0.66	V28	2.50	1.30
V30	1.48	0.59	V30	1.86	0.99
V34	3.39	0.78	V34	3.50	0.91
V38	1.35	0.78	V38	1.09	0.29
V41	3.78	0.42	V41	3.82	0.39
V46	3.61	0.58	V46	3.57	0.93
V51	2.87	1.10	V51	3.32	0.78
V54	2.61	1.23	V54	2.09	1.15
V60	2.85	1.04	V60	2.68	1.09
V75	3.61	0.78	V75	3.09	1.06
V78	3.48	0.79	V78	3.77	0.43
V83	3.91	0.29	V83	3.90	0.29
V86	1.87	1.01	V86	2.73	0.94
V91	2.87	1.10	V91	2.23	1.02
V94	3.61	0.50	V94	3.77	0.43
V99	1.52	0.59	V99	1.45	0.67

N = 45

Explanation of table 17: Each of the variables represents a specific statement, related

to the relations schoolgirl mothers have with their children. (See appendix A.) Statement 10 reads, for example: My child/children gives/give me problems. According to table 17, the average score here is 1,52 and 1,64 for married and unmarried mothers, respectively, which means that most of the schoolgirl mothers disagreed entirely with this statement.

From table 17, some interesting and valuable information emerged. According to statement 10: *My child/children gives/give me problems*, most of the schoolgirl mothers totally disagree with this statement, yet 16 out of the 45 schoolgirl mothers (36%) chose either options 3 or 4 for statement 54: *Babies are a nuisance*, in other words, they strongly agreed that babies are a nuisance. This is in conflict with the results for statement 10.

Also, looking more closely at items 13 and 17, it becomes clear that quite a number of schoolgirl mothers agreed that they had a child or children by mistake and that it is not good to have a child or children when still at school. Quite a number of unmarried mothers are also not happy to have children (see average for item 28).

Item 86 reads: *I wish I had no child*. According to table 17, most of the married schoolgirl mothers totally disagree with this statement, yet 11 of the 22 unmarried schoolgirl mothers chose either options 3 or 4 for this statement which means that 50% of the unmarried schoolgirl mothers strongly wished that they had no children.

From table 17 it becomes clear that, although Venda schoolgirl mothers give the impression that their children are not a burden to them and that they basically maintain good relationships with their children, there are also contradictions in their responses. On the one hand, they are happy to have children and they claim to experience no problems with their children yet, on the other hand, a good percentage regard their children as a nuisance, they acknowledged that they had children by mistake, that it is not a good thing to have children while still at school and that they wish that they had no children at all.

These findings to a great extent support the explanation in paragraph 5.9.1 where it was speculated that schoolgirl mothers, for the sake of acceptance by others, will reflect the impression that all is well but on closer inspection, it seems to be the opposite. Deep down their relationships with others might not be as well adjusted as they appear to be on the surface. This needs closer investigation.

5.12 RELATIONSHIPS WITH HUSBANDS (MARRIED SCHOOLGIRL MOTHERS)

Again it was not possible to draw any comparison here. The same procedure was followed as for paragraph 5.11 and the results appear in table 18 (also consult section 3, table 1).

TABLE 18: AVERAGE CALCULATIONS FOR SCHOOLGIRL MOTHERS' RELATIONSHIPS WITH HUSBANDS

MARRIED SCHOOLGIRL MOTHERS		
VARIABLES	MEAN	STD DEV
V5	3.32	0.99
V9	3.48	0.67
V11	1.48	0.73
V14	3.65	0.65
V18	3.74	0.54
V21	3.78	0.42
V31	3.35	0.83
V33	1.74	0.92
V36	3.17	0.78
V49	3.61	0.58
V52	3.26	0.69
V59	1.61	0.72
V64	1.70	0.82
V67	3.26	1.01
V76	2.13	1.06
V82	3.74	0.45
V87	1.65	0.49
V93	3.35	0.71
V95	3.64	0.79
V98	3.61	0.66

N = 23

When taking a close look at table 18, it becomes clear that the married schoolgirl mothers basically responded positively when asked about their relationships with their husbands. It is only at item 18: *I am careful about what I say to my husband* and

item 76: *My husband is a popular person* that uncertainty arises. In the first case, most of the schoolgirl mothers responded by strongly agreeing that they are careful when speaking to their husbands while a reasonable number disagreed strongly that their husbands are popular.

Seeing that many husbands are working in places like Pretoria and Johannesburg (approximately 400 kilometers from Venda), one wonders about the impact of this on the answers given by the married schoolgirl mothers.

5.13 FUTURE ASPIRATIONS OF SCHOOLGIRL MOTHERS AND ORDINARY SCHOOLGIRLS

The last item in the questionnaire covered this section.

When the data were analysed, the following emerged: Altogether 18 schoolgirl mothers want to become nurses while 9 of them opted for teaching.. The rest expressed interest in careers ranging from clerical work to the police service, while one girl preferred to only become a labourer.

Ordinary schoolgirls were also interested in becoming nurses and teachers, but a reasonable number showed interest in careers like medicine and law.

In conclusion, it appears as if ordinary schoolgirls are more interested in careers that will really put them to the challenge. Schoolgirl mothers give the impression of being satisfied with the more "ordinary careers". Once again one can only speculate about the impact of this on the future careers of their own children.

5.14 SUMMARY

The results of the empirical research, to some extent, support the hypothesis stated in chapter 1. For instance, it was proved that ordinary schoolgirls achieve significantly better in their schoolwork than schoolgirl mothers yet it was found that

schoolgirl mothers maintain better relationships with themselves and others than ordinary schoolgirls. This is contrary to expectation and a possible explanation for these findings is given elsewhere (see paragraph 5.9.1 and also chapter 6).

CHAPTER 6

OVERVIEW, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

As stated in chapter 1, teenage pregnancy and teenage motherhood is not a problem in the United States of America alone, but is a world-wide problem, including Venda as well. Unlike in the rural-agrarian Venda days, teenage childbearing no longer has economic utility. Today a Venda girl has to be at school over a long time, at least sixteen years. If a girl falls pregnant whilst at school, her schooling will be affected negatively. Therefore, teenage pregnancy is no longer a "blessing" as in traditional Venda, but has become a serious problem in our days, especially where school children are concerned.

6.2 OVERVIEW

In chapter 1, a brief reflection of the problem, orientation, objectives and plan of study was given.

Chapters 2 and 3 concentrated mainly on a literature study to gain background concerning the problem under investigation. Chapter 2 dealt with the adolescent and his/her most important problems while chapter 3 dealt with the unmarried mother, including the schoolgirl mother.

In chapter 4 the empirical study was done and data accumulated to be analysed in chapter 5.

This chapter, chapter 6, will concentrate on findings, evaluation of the research and recommendations for further research.

6.3 THE MOST IMPORTANT FINDINGS OF THE INVESTIGATION

6.3.1 From the theoretical investigation

The adolescent forms relationships with himself, others, God and things (Vrey 1990:20). The theoretical study revealed that adolescents do experience problems in their relationships with themselves and others. They tend to become emotionally upset when all sorts of "funny" changes happen to their bodies. Sometimes they are rejected by the peer group which leads to depression and loneliness. They are not anymore willing to accept the authority of parents and teachers which may lead to conflict and frustrations. All these and more will have a negative impact on their studies.

The situation becomes even more serious in the case of schoolgirls who fall pregnant and have to cope with much more dramatic experiences. Not only are they rejected by the father of the child, but even by their own parents. Teachers and principals do not want them in their schools with sometimes devastating effects on the lives of these daughters. No wonder that the theoretical investigation clearly indicated that schoolgirl mothers (i.e. young girls who have children but are still attending school), virtually without exception, will battle in the learning situation.

6.3.2 From the empirical investigation

The empirical research was based on the findings from the theoretical investigation. In order to execute the empirical research, a questionnaire (see appendix A) was designed and compiled to investigate the relationships formed by schoolgirl mothers. The aim was to determine problems related to the learning situation of schoolgirl mothers in Venda secondary schools. The following emerged:

- 6.3.2.1** Venda secondary schoolgirls became mothers as early as standard 6 while nearly 50% of all Standard 10 girls in Venda have children.

- 6.3.2.2** The schoolgirl mothers are considerably older than the rest of the children in their classes, even by as much as 13 years.
- 6.3.2.3** There is a significant difference in the number of repeaters between ordinary schoolgirls and schoolgirl mothers. The latter tend to repeat their standards more than ordinary schoolgirls. Schoolgirl mothers also achieve significantly weaker than ordinary schoolgirls when it comes to scholastic performance.
- 6.3.2.4** Against expectations, it was proved that schoolgirl mothers maintain better relationships with themselves, others and their studies than ordinary schoolgirls. It was difficult to explain these unexpected findings, but it can be assumed that further research will clarify these contradictions.
- 6.3.2.5** When the relations of schoolgirl mothers with their child/children were scrutinized, contradictions were found between their answers to certain statements. On the one hand, they seem to be quite happy to have children, while on the other, they regard their babies as a nuisance and fairly unwelcome. The effect of this on their learning situation needs further investigation.

6.4 DEDUCTIONS REGARDING THE FINDINGS

Although no prominent problems related to the learning situation of Venda schoolgirl mothers were identified, the following surely contribute to their scholastic problems.

- 6.4.1** As stated before, schoolgirl mothers appear to maintain better relationships with themselves, others and their studies than ordinary schoolgirls. These findings are not in line with expectations, either from the literature study or from the

researcher's personal experience. The only reasonable explanation to be offered at this time is that schoolgirl mothers so much want to be accepted by others and maintain good relationships with others that they will even project a false image to the outside. This places their answering of the questionnaire in doubt. It also leads one to ask the question: How much is the schoolwork of the schoolgirl mother affected by her eagerness to gain the favour of others? Does she spend so much time in her efforts to be accepted and to conform with the peer group that at the end her studies will suffer?

6.4.2 A critical analysis of the relationships formed by schoolgirl mothers with their children revealed more or less the same information as in 6.4.1. By first impression they tend to maintain good relationships with their child/children and they categorically state that their child/children are no problem to them. Yet they also admit that they regard children as a nuisance and that in some cases, they are even sorry that they ever bore children. Thus again, the same argument as before: They tend to reflect a good image to the outside, but deep down things are not 100% well. Also, the same question arises, namely: Is the presence of a child or children not one of the major factors contributing to problems related to the learning situation of Venda secondary schoolgirls?

6.5 DEFICIENCIES REGARDING THE INVESTIGATION

It does not matter how hard we try as human beings, our efforts will still be incomplete. According to the researcher the investigation reveals the following shortcomings:

6.5.1 The relationships between schoolgirl mothers and their children could have been more closely investigated. Young girls are seriously affected when they fall pregnant and have children of their own. When the young mothers to back to

school (as in the case of Venda schoolgirl mothers) one can assume that their studies must be affected negatively. They have to spend time with their children which means that they will have less time to concentrate on their schoolwork and to participate in extra-mural activities. The present investigation did not dig deep enough into this matter.

6.5.2 The "better relationships" maintained by schoolgirl mothers with themselves, others and their studies than ordinary schoolgirls also could have been followed up by further investigation (e.g. interviews or personality tests).

6.5.3 No data was either obtained or available regarding the intellectual abilities of either ordinary schoolgirls or schoolgirl mothers which might have shed some light upon the difference between the scholastic achievement of these two groups.

6.5.4 The questionnaire could just as well have been in Venda (the mother tongue of the testees) with a copy in English for the reader. The interpretation of some of the statements would have been easier for the girls, especially the younger ones.

6.6. RECOMMENDATIONS

6.6.1 With regard to further research

6.6.1.1 Due to circumstances, no urban schools were involved in this investigation. Further research in this regard might reveal interesting and valuable information.

- 6.6.1.2** The relationship between the schoolgirl mother and her child or children needs to be more closely investigated, as well as the true nature of the relationships of schoolgirl mothers with themselves, others and their studies. Only the surface has been touched so far.
- 6.6.1.3** Factors such as cognitive abilities, emotional disturbances and personality characteristics regarding the schoolgirl mother also needs to be clarified through further research.
- 6.6.1.4** The role of the parents concerning problems related to the learning situation of Venda secondary mothers is not clear yet. It seems as if schoolgirl mothers maintain good relationships with their parents, but in the light of the findings of this investigation, it will do no harm to take a closer look at the above mentioned also.

6.6.2 With regard to the teaching authorities

- 6.6.2.1** Teachers as well as principals must take serious cognisance of the circumstances of schoolgirl mothers in their schools. It was proved beyond doubt that these girls achieve significantly lower than ordinary schoolgirls. Special attention will have to be given to this matter.
- 6.6.2.2** Schools (as well as higher teaching authorities) will have to pay attention to the need of sexual education to the children in Venda. Pregnancies (and their results) are already hampering the lives of many young girls. What about the devastating effect of AIDS and related diseases?

6.7 FINAL CONCLUSION

This investigation was aimed at identifying problems related to the learning situation of schoolgirl mothers in Venda secondary schools. Although no definite problems were identified, the mere fact that schoolgirl mothers achieve significantly lower than ordinary schoolgirls on academic level and yet, according to findings, maintain better relationships with themselves, others and their studies than ordinary schoolgirls clearly indicates that all is not well.

The researcher tried to point out that schoolgirl mothers are so eager to be accepted by others and to reflect a good image to the outside that, at the end, their schoolwork and studies suffer. They also give the impression that their children are no burden to them, yet on closer investigation, contradictions were exposed.

The researcher wishes to point out that this investigation does not pretend to have touched more than the surface manifestations of this complex and difficult world-wide problem of teenage mothers in secondary schools. The researcher still maintains, however, that the study will provide a base for further investigation into problems related to the learning situation of schoolgirl mothers in Venda secondary schools.

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QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL GIRLS.

INSTRUCTIONS.

1. Please answer all items. These are no right or wrong answers.
2. Your name is not required, so be absolutely honest.
3. Complete section A and B by filling in blocks C1-C15 on the right hand side. Complete section C by indicating the extent of your agreement or disagreement.

1. Strong disagreement
2. Disagreement
3. Agreement
4. Strong agreement

Write the numbers of your choices in blocks C16 onwards.

4. If the statement is not applicable to you, leave the block on the right-hand side open.
5. NB! You are welcome to ask the invigilator for assistance.

SECTION A.

PERSONAL INFORMATION.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. In which standard are you?
e.g. 06, 07, 08, 09, 10. | <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> C1-2 |
| 2. Are you repeating this standard?
Yes = 1 No = 2 | <input type="text"/> C3 |
| 3. How old are you?
e.g. 13, 14 etc. | <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> C4-5 |
| 4. Do you have a child?
Yes = 1 No = 2 | <input type="text"/> C6 |
| 5. If the answer in 4 above is yes, how many children do you have? | <input type="text"/> C7 |
| 6. Does your child/children stay with you?
Yes - 1 No = 2 | <input type="text"/> C8 |
| 7. If the answer for 6 above is no, where does your child/children stay? (Choose from table on next page) | <input type="text"/> C9 |

My parents	1
My grand parents	2
My family	3
My in laws	4
My husband	5
My boyfriend	6
Others e.g. friends	7

8. How old were you when you got your first child?

<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	C10-11
----------------------	----------------------	--------

9. Are you married?
Yes = 1 No = 2

<input type="text"/>	C12
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11. Where do you stay?

Own house / husband	1
With parents	2
With family	3
With boyfriend	4
With friends	5
With others, e.g. in-laws	6

<input type="text"/>	C13
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SECTION B.

SCHOLASTIC RECORD.

Please furnish us with information regarding your scholastic record.

NB. Information regarding C14 - C15 is found in the report, as arranged.

12. What was your aggregate percentage (%) for your last examination (not test)?

<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	C14-15
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SECTION C

1. I can easily talk to my parents about boy-friends. Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C16
2. I feel inadequate as a mother. Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C17
3. My parents help me to solve my problems. Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C18
4. It is better to have a child even if one is unmarried. Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C19
5. My husband is a good person. Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C20
6. My parents are always eager to help me. Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C21
7. I hate examinations. Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C22
8. I feel lonely and depressed. Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C23
9. I am proud of my husband. Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C24
10. My child/children give/s me problems. Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C25
11. I want to divorce my husband. Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C26
12. Teachers know their subjects. Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C27
13. I had a child/children by mistake. Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C28

14. My husband encourages me.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C29
15. My parents are fair to me.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C30
16. I am more attractive than most of my friends.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C31
17. It is good to have a child/children even if
you are still at school.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C32
18. I am careful about what I say to my husband.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C33
19. I would prefer to be someone else.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C34
20. Teachers are fair and firm.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C35
21. I love my husband.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C36
22. I do not mind when teachers reprimand me.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C37
23. I can discuss personal problems with my
mother.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C38
24. Teachers are interested in their pupils'
progress.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C39
25. I do not understand myself at all.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C40
26. I find it difficult to study.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C41
27. I often strike a blank in the examinations.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C42

28. I am glad to have a child/children.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C43
29. I have many friends.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C44
30. I would like to have more children.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C45
31. My husband loves me as never before.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C46
32. Teachers are supportive and understanding.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C47
33. My husband gives me trouble.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C48
34. My child/children give/s me pleasure.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C49
35. I write examinations with confidence.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C50
36. My husband is a pillar in my life.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C51
37. I cope with my studies.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C52
38. I want to take my child/children for adoption.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C53
39. I like to discuss things with my friends.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C54
40. I am fond of studying.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C55
41. I like children in general.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C56

42. I am always under stress.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C57
43. My interest in learning is sufficient.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C58
44. If there was a chance, I would start afresh.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C59
45. I know I will pass my examinations.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C60
46. I know my child will make a success of life.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C61
47. My parents are very strict.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C62
48. Examinations expose me to my parents.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C63
49. I can easily discuss problems with my
husband.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C64
50. I like my body as it is.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C65
51. My child/children is/are beautiful.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C66
52. A husband like mine is hard to get.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C67
53. I always feel sick.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C68
54. Babies are a nuisance.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C69
55. Studies waste my time.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C70

56. Examinations are used to trap pupils.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C71
57. Teachers always misuse their authority.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C72
58. I like the girls at our school.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C73
59. My husband bothers me.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C74
60. To have an illegitimate child is embarrassing.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C75
61. One does not need friends.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C76
62. Teachers are friendly people.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C77
63. Schoolwork is boring.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C78
64. My husband interferes with my studies.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C79
65. I can hardly concentrate on my studies.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C80
66. One can trust your friends.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C1
67. I trust my husband.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C2
68. I am afraid of examinations.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C3
69. I am jealous of other children.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C4

70. I like teachers in general.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C5
71. My school subjects are difficult.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C6
72. When I ask questions, I get honest answers
from my parents.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C7
73. My friends are my best advisers.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C8
74. I always study hard for the examinations.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C9
75. I enjoy being a mother.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C10
76. My husband is a popular person.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C11
77. Most examination papers are fair.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C12
78. Others think I am a good mother.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C13
79. I am happy that I am a girl and not a boy.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C14
80. My friends understand me.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C15
81. I consult my parents on my decisions.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C16
82. My husband likes our child/children.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C17
83. I want to succeed for the sake of my child/
children.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C18

84. Teachers are good advisers.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C19
85. My child/children interfere(s) with my studies
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C20
86. I wish I had no child.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C21
87. I am afraid of my husband.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C22
88. Weekly tests make me sick.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C23
89. My future depends on my studies.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C24
90. My parents know me, they can tell how I
feel without asking.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C25
91. I really wanted to have a child/children.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C26
92. Some school girls hate me.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C27
93. In times of sorrow, I think of my husband.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C28
94. I enjoy being with my child/children.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C29
95. I care for my husband.
Disagree 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C30
96. I can discuss personal problems with
my father.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely. C31

97. Teachers are good councillors.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely.

 C32

98. I will love my husband until I die.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely.

 C33

99. My child/children is/are a burden to me.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely.

 C34

100. Without my friends, I could not cope in life.
Disagree entirely 1 2 3 4 Agree entirely.

 C35

In conclusion, what are your future plans?
Describe briefly.

NB: You have come to the end of this questionnaire. Thank you for your co-operation, patience and contribution.