

**THE INFLUENCE OF THE RURAL SOCIO-ECONOMIC CIRCUMSTANCES ON
THE LEARNING ABILITIES OF THE CHILDREN (WITH SPECIAL
REFERENCE TO TLAPENG VILLAGE) IN THE NORTH WEST PROVINCE.**

BY

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DECLARATION

I **MOTINGOA ELSIE MASINGWANENG POEN**, declare that the dissertation for the degree of **MASTER OF ARTS IN LIFE SKILLS AND COUNSELLING** at the University of North West hereby submitted, has never been submitted by me for a degree at this or any other university, and that it is my own work in design and execution. All material contained herein has been duly acknowledged.

SIGNATURE:

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'E. Masingwaneng Poen', written over a light blue rectangular background.

DATE:

April 2004

DEDICATION

This research project is dedicated to my beloved husband
Pule Albert Motingoa, my dear late mother Isabella
Darling Mokoena and father Manasseh Gershom
Mokoena whose wish has always been to see me climb
up the ladder of educational success.

With grateful thanks for their love, support and
encouragement over the years.



MAY THE ALMIGHTY GOD BLESS THEM

ABSTRACT

This research paper examines the rural socio-economic circumstances that may influence the learning abilities of the children, with particular reference to Tlapeng Village in the North West Province. Tlapeng Village is about 25km from Mafikeng. It has a population density of approximately 4 500 people, but the learners are few in both the primary and the middle school (approximately 350 in total for both schools). An exploratory/descriptive study was undertaken to research the socio-economic circumstances that may hamper the scholastic achievements of the children

According to recent studies conducted by the Institute for Democracy in South Africa (IDASA), (Sowetan, 30 October 2003: 33), many of South Africa's children say their most urgent needs are education, food and basic services such as water and electricity, and that lack of income prevents them from realizing their rights to basic health services and education.

The rural socio-economic circumstances that may hamper the learners' ability to learn were displayed and suggestions of how to curb/eliminate/reduce such circumstances in order for the rural learners to succeed in their education were explored.

The sample for this research consisted of 35 respondents: 20 learners, 5 educators and 10 parents. Data was obtained through questionnaires that were administered to respondents. Interviews were also held with principals, educators and parents.

From the literature and empirical findings, it became evident that there are, indeed, rural socio-economic circumstances that may hamper the scholastic achievement of the children.

The researcher 's recommendation was that in areas where the design of programmes excludes children, the criteria should be changed to include all children. In addition, discriminatory practices in implementing programmes need to end and implementation speeded up.

The government needs to continue prioritizing expenditure on infrastructure in the form of roads in the budget. This is because transport costs are one of the main obstacles to facilitating access to schools and health providers. Alternatively, or in addition, cash transfers need to facilitate access to schooling and health services for all poor children.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND GENERAL ORIENTATION

1.1. INTRODUCTION

Young people have needs, interests and expectations that must be understood and appreciated. Sometimes unmet needs and unrealized ambitions become a source of pressure, which may cause adjustment difficulties. One main factor that may help us understand and nurture the developmental needs and interests of pupils is the environment in which they live. The physical and social milieu in which we live affects our health in both general and specific ways. Our environment can serve either to enhance or reduce our chances of living. It may also influence the extent to which our life goals and objectives will be realized. Blum (1981: 43) cited by Chuenyane (1994: 49) states that, “the environment is by far the most potent and omnipotent set of forces that affects health...” The concept environment as defined by Webster’s new collegiate dictionary (1993) means:

- “- the circumstances, objects, or conditions by which one is surrounded,
- the complex climatic, edaphic, and biotic factors that act upon an organism or an ecological community and ultimately determine its form and survival,
- the aggregate of social and cultural conditions that influence the life of an individual or community.”

The concept embraces, inter alia, elements such as education, affluence, culture, form of political government, peace, adequacy and safety of food and water. As

Roland and Cooper (1985: 11) cited by Chuenyane (1994: 49) put it, “the environment has many facets, seen and unseen, real and abstract.” Thus when talking about the environment, we should not limit our scope to the natural and physical environment only. The social environment is just as important as the physical environment in determining the growth and development of individuals in society. It is imperative that we understand how environmental factors affect our growth, development and health so that we can intervene rationally and effectively to reduce the risks that may lead to ill health and social problems.

This chapter explores some components of the physical and social environment that affect the health of pupils. The following environmental factors will be discussed, namely: education and health, living conditions, effects of illness and illness behavior, home conditions, migrant labor, overcrowding, social isolation and support and child abuse.

It is however, important to note that environmental factors rarely act in isolation. Roland and Cooper (1985: 12) cited by Chuenyane (1994: 50), when describing the inter-relationships of environmental factors and their influence on growth and development states that, “there is a ‘web of causation’, network of interrelated factors all working synergistically toward the outcome.”

1.2. STATEMENT OF PROBLEM AREA

Poverty is largely a rural phenomenon. Of the 1 billion absolutely poor in the world, 85% still live in rural areas. In South Africa 75% of the poor live in rural areas, RDP (1995: 9) cited by de Beer (1997: 2). They are the people in the deprivation trap: poor, weak, isolated, powerless and vulnerable. Some manage to escape mainly by migrating to the cities. Cities are viewed as places of opportunities. The result of their move-migration is the densification of urban poverty. When policies and measures for combating poverty are considered, it is clear that rural and urban poverty cannot be viewed in isolation. There is an overlap of causes, results and influences, which necessitates an integrated approach (de Beer, 1997: 9).

Therefore, most children from rural areas are victims of the circumstances under which they live. In most cases, there are no facilities to help them cope with education and life in general. As a result they do not perform up to standard. In most villages there is still no electricity, transport is rudimentary, there is poor sanitation, which is a health hazard to all the community members. Most children from rural areas come to school having not eaten a single meal because a great number of parents are unemployed, and therefore, cannot afford the basic human needs. Families are large and consists of many children, these means many mouths need a great deal of food and a poor family has too little income to provide for this basic need.

The children from rural areas are far removed from social infrastructure such as schools and medical care; employment opportunities are scarce and spread over a huge distance. Isolation of poor families contributes to a high rate of illiteracy.

Lack of reliable transport further increases isolation. Lack of proper school buildings, libraries, equipment, laboratories and textbooks may further aggravate the situation and may hamper the learner's ability to learn properly. A great number of parents in rural areas are illiterate and cannot help their children with homework and projects. Family feuds, lack of electricity, lack of privacy due to having large number of members in a family, teenage pregnancy and noise may deprive the learner to have a chance to study in the comfort of her dwelling. A great number of learners have to travel long distances to fetch wood, water and livestock, as a result, they may be too tired to concentrate on their studies.

Most of the children, after Grade 12, cannot continue with their studies due to lack of money and transport to other institutions of higher learning, and they may indulge in criminal activities and maladaptive behaviors. Those few that can afford to continue with their studies, do so at the mercy of their enlightened relatives. Girls may resort to teenage pregnancy and become mothers at an early age. Their psychosocial well-being is affected. Anti-social behaviors are at an increasing rate in children or communities of this calibre. Stress is more prevalent, and they might end up being hopeless, helpless, embittered, utterly destroyed, and disillusioned if sudden help is not given to curb the results of post-traumatic stress disorders.

1.3. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY



The following objectives are investigated:

- To determine the nature and extent of the detrimental circumstances (in rural areas) which may affect the learning abilities of children;

- To explore the extent, causes and effects of poverty in rural areas; and
- To device guidelines for creating a more conducive environment for rural school learners.

1.4. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study will provide the Department of Social Services, Arts, Culture and Science, and the Department of Education with a chance for examining rural socio-economic circumstances and how disadvantaged learners under rural circumstances can be affected, and it will give an indication on how the learners under such a predicament live and survive.

People generally in South Africa have been disempowered socially, psychologically, economically and politically, and therefore, through the changes brought about by the democratic government, people are encouraged to participate in processes in which they discover their potential, where they develop new knowledge about their well-being, where they are encouraged to take charge of their own lives, to be in control of situations and to participate in their own development – be it individual, group or community level.

They are expected to make sound decisions, learn new skills in order for them to gain abstract goals of self-esteem, self-reliance, human dignity and self-sufficiency. Efforts to ensure equal opportunities and protection to all who are unjustly treated are purported and encouraged by the democratic government. The learners, children and the community will be made aware of the unfavorable

circumstances under which rural people live, and guidelines for creating a more conducive environment will be purported and encouraged. They will be helped and encouraged by this study to appreciate their own worth and the worth of others, and they will learn to treat others with respect, fairness and justice even though the unchanging situation of the long term changing situation prevails.

According to Houston (1984: 7) cited by Devos (1998: 10), the process of educating the public with regard to their well-being need to be kept going. This is necessary due to the likelihood of the public overlooking the importance of empowerment. It is imperative that we understand how environmental factors affect our growth, development and health so that we can intervene rationally and effectively to reduce the risks that may lead to ill health and social problems.

It is from studies such as this one that the health policy makers and development planners can assess whether their efforts were successful or whether there is still a need for education reinforcement.

1.5. HYPOTHESES/ASSUMPTIONS

- A high number of educators will perceive unfavorable socio-economic circumstances as changing life for the worst for children.
- Most children who live under rural circumstances are more prone to delinquency than those from urban areas.

- Unfavorable circumstances may lead to diseases due to malnutrition, as compared to those who are advantaged, and who live under favorable circumstances.
- Most children who live under unfavorable circumstances have a tendency of dropping out of school than those who live under favorable circumstances.
- Most children from rural circumstances are prone to leaving school at an earlier age for work as compared to those from urban areas.
- A high number of educators will perceive unfavorable circumstances as a stressor for the child.
- Most uneducated people are unable to compete for a higher paid job than educated people.
- A person with a weak supportive network of family and friends is less likely to be able to cope with stressful events and will have a poor sense of self-esteem, than someone who is clouded with a strong network of family and friends.

1.6. LIMITATIONS

- The topic under study lacks literature because much has not been done on the topic under study.

- Language (English) will be a hindrance in answering questions as most respondents do not understand English, and therefore the questions will have to be translated into Setswana, the language most subjects understand, and this will be time consuming. The researcher will, therefore, use personally administered questionnaires.
- The sample will not be representative of the phenomenon in its totality because a representative sample was only from Tlapeng village and not from other villages in the North West Province.

1.7. DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

As the concepts below have a broader meaning, the researcher found it necessary to define them so as to clarify their meanings in the context of the topic under study.

1.7.1 Poverty

Abel-Smith and Townsend, cited by Holman (1978: 31-32) contended that poverty really ... “refers to a variety of conditions involving differences in home environment, material possessions and educational and occupational resources as well as financial resources... we need to develop indicators of the command of individuals and families over resources”.

According to O'Connor (1991: 21-22), poverty in Africa may mean going to bed hungry night after night. The concept ‘bed’ in this case actually means no more than a mat on the floor. In many rural areas poverty means walking a 10km round trip to fetch water each day, often water that is even then far from pure. In most

cities poverty means living as a family in one small room, and fearing eviction from there when you cannot scrape together the rent. The researcher realized that it is necessary to use “poverty” and “unfavorable circumstances” intertwinely because each may be a cause, effect or may be a reason or a concomitant of the other.

1.7.2 Rural

According to Longman Dictionary of Psychology & Psychiatry (1984), this is associated with or typical of the country architecture reflected in houses with low, plain walls or relating to, or constituting a tenement in land adapted and used for agricultural or pastoral purposes – opposed to urban.

1.7.3 Circumstances

According to Webster’s Third New International Dictionary (1993), these are conditions, facts or events accompanying, conditioning or determining another. Circumstances can either be favorable or unfavorable, depending on how they are being utilized to achieve a set goal.

1.7.4 Unfavorable Circumstances

Conditions that may hamper or prevent learners from disadvantaged areas to perform up to the standard or in par with any other learners from advantaged areas. Unfavorable circumstances in this regard do not only refer to poverty, other factors are also included, for example, lack of educational institutions, educators, libraries, transport facilities and textbooks.

1.7.5 Learning

According to the South African Oxford School Dictionary (1996), this is knowledge obtained by study, to get knowledge or skill, find out about something.

1.7.6 Ability

Being able to do something, cleverness, talent to be able to do something, according to South African Oxford School Dictionary (1996). According to the Oxford Dictionary (1980), ability means being able to do, sufficient power, cleverness or talent.

1.7.7 Child

According to Webster's Third New International Dictionary (1993), a child is a young person of either sex, especially between infancy and youth, a person who has not yet come of age.

According to Child Care Act No. 74 of 1983, a child means any person under the age of 18 years.

1.7.8 Rural Circumstances

According to the researcher, this means, as it will be used in this research, the appalling conditions under which the community members find themselves, and the results being a hindrance to the learning abilities of the children.

1.8. METHODOLOGY

In methods of research, literature studies, questionnaires and empirical investigations are discussed.

1.8.1 Definition of Methodology

According to Mitchel (1997: 129), methodology refers to the techniques or a particular discipline used to manipulate data and acquire knowledge. McKendrick (1990: 249) further states that methodology is a formal application of systematic and logical procedures to guide an investigation.

1.8.2 Research Design

Huysamen (1993: 10) in Devos (1998: 77) defines research design as the plan or blueprint according to which data is collected to investigate the research hypotheses or questions in the most economic manner.

The research design that is used for this study is the exploratory/descriptive design. According to Collins in McKendrick (1990: 250), descriptive research design includes both quantitative and qualitative description of the phenomena and investigation. Babbie (1979: 120) defines descriptive design as the precise measurement and reporting of the characteristics of some population or phenomenon under study. Its purpose is to describe situations and events.

1.8.3 Methods of Data Collection

1.8.3.1 Literature Studies

Literature review include recent publication of journals, newspapers and magazines, and will go back as far as is consistent with the nature of the problem chosen to familiarize the researcher with the past studies, that are pertinent to the one being planned (Grinnel, 1998: 448). Through using literature review, the researcher will be able to see how far other researchers have gone on the topic under study. Chapter 2 gives a detailed report on this type of data collection.

1.8.3.2 Experience Surveys

The researcher spoke to experienced people, for example, educators, school managers and experienced people in general, in order to collect information on the topic under study. For this purpose, interview schedules were used for educators and parents.

1.8.3.3 Personally Administered Questionnaires

1.8.3.3.1 Definition of a Questionnaire

According to Brink (1996: 154), a questionnaire refers to a self-report instrument where the respondent writes his or her answers in response to printed questions on a printed document. A well-designed questionnaire is easy for the respondent to fill out, and is easy for the researcher to administer and score. Yet a good

questionnaire is difficult to develop. Each aspect, from the items themselves to the color of the paper used, can influence the responses of the respondents.

The researcher prepared questionnaires for high school learners, and systematic sampling was used to select the elements. The researcher's sample size is 20 learners, which will be discussed under "sampling" in the text. The school roll is 100 learners, with 25 Grade 7's, 22 Grade 8's, 25 Grade 9's and 28 Grade 10's. The questionnaires include questions that will eventually give answers to the objectives under study, and to answer the hypotheses formulated, and the general feeling of the subjects about the topic under study. (An example of the questionnaire is attached in Appendix B).

1.8.4 Empirical Investigation (Interview)

In the empirical investigation, the researcher used the interview schedule. The interview schedule is discussed as follows:

1.8.4.1 Interview Schedules

An interview schedule was pre-tested. The purpose of pre-testing is to acquaint the researcher with the flaws and problems that need attention before the major study.

1.8.4.2 Conducting the Interview Schedule

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with (n=15), i.e. 10 parents and 5 educators, selected to participate in the study. The main aim of the interview was to gather respondents' views on rural socio-economic issues, which may influence

the learning abilities of the children, with particular reference to Tlapeng Village in the North West Province.

1.8.4.3 Population

Out of the total number of parents (22) and educators (8), a random sampling of 15 respondents was selected. In each group, 10 parents and 5 educators were randomly selected to participate in the study.

1.8.4.4 Analyzing Interview Schedules

In analyzing data gathered from the interview schedule, the researcher used the following ways:

- Listening to the interview tape recorder
- Delineating units of meaning relevant to the research question
- Clustering units for relevant meaning, and
- By writing a composite summary.

1.8.5 Sampling



1.8.5.1 Definition of Sampling

According to Reid (1993: 109), sampling can be used in a whole variety of research designs to select those entering a randomized clinical trial, to select study groups within. A sample refers to those members of a population on whom measurement of some characteristics have been made (Hardyck and Petriochich,

1975: 79, cited by Reid, 1993: 109). The general purpose of sampling is to obtain information on a small number of individuals who can be generalized to a larger aggregate (population) from which the sample comes.

1.8.5.2 Types of Sampling

The researcher opted for probability sampling where she used systematic sampling. In probability sampling, all the elements have an equal chance of being selected. In systematic sampling, every *n*th element is drawn from a list of the entire survey population, and elements will be selected through intervals. Systematic sampling ensures greater accuracy, because the sample is representative of the population. The sample reduces variability, it is easier to be put into practice, and can be statistically more efficient. The researcher targeted 35 respondents who were 5 educators, 20 high school learners and 10 parents who were contacted at the researcher's former place of work. The questionnaires were only administered to 20 learners who represented a sample.

1.9 DATA ANALYSIS

1.9.1 Definition of Data Analysis

Data analysis is the selection of methods of organizing raw data and displaying it in a fashion that will provide answers to the research questions. Data analysis thus entails categorizing, ordering, manipulating and summarizing the data and describing them in meaningful terms. There are various analysis strategies or methods that can be used (Brink, 1996: 179).

The presentation of data obtained from the study is descriptive statistics.

According to Seaman (1987: 362-363), descriptive statistics (to calculate the

central tendency and variance) is used for the topic under study. Descriptive statistics (such as the mean) summarizes research data from a sample. Descriptive statistics may be used whether or not random sampling has been used. Descriptive statistics summarizes the unwieldy mass of raw data, transforming it into frequencies, means and other summaries that point out the characteristics of the sample. While of basic importance, such findings are usually limited to the sample under study, unless the process of random sampling has been used.

1.9.2 Analysis of Data

The researcher used descriptive statistics to analyze data, because they convert and condense a collection of data into an organized, visual representation of data (a picture) in a variety of ways, so that the data have some meaning for the readers of research reports. A descriptive approach employs measures such as frequency distributions, measures of central tendency and dispersion or variability and measures of relationships (Brink, 1996: 179).

1.10 Presentation of the Research Report

The study comprises of 5 chapters. The first chapter provides an overall statement of the problem, along with the aim, scope and methods of research.

Chapter 2 conducts a review of relevant literature, to define a number of key concepts. This chapter further indicates different authors' view points about the topic under survey.

Chapter 3 examines the instruments used in the collection of data. This was achieved through the administering of questionnaires to the learners, and interview schedules to educators and parents in Tlapeng Village

Chapter 4 presents and analyses the data collected. The researcher used descriptive statistics to do the analysis. Chapter 5 summarizes the main points of the study, findings and recommendations of the research.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Literature is a vital and essential aspect of the research process. Reviewing the literature is in fact an element of doing research. The main functions are to provide an up-to-date account of what is known about the study topic, to provide a conceptual and theoretical context, to assist the researcher in obtaining clues to the methodology and instrumentation and to refine certain parts of the study. The scope of the literature review should be broad enough for the investigator to be knowledgeable about the research problem and narrow enough to include predominantly relevant sources.

The review of the literature should be comprehensive, relevant, up-to-date and honest or objective. It is most important that the review should present a thoughtful analysis of the field, not just a collection of quotations and summaries. It should include all published points of view, not just those that support the views of the authors. The literature review must be submitted to the same standards of critical analysis and ethical concern as other parts of the research process (Brink, 1996: 84).

2.2 THE NATURE AND EXTENT OF THE RURAL CIRCUMSTANCES WHICH MAY AFFECT THE LEARNING ABILITIES OF CHILDREN

Of the poor in South Africa, 75% live in rural areas mainly in the Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal and the Northern Province (RDP, 1995:5). Poverty is predominant among Africans (65% are poor), while 33% of coloureds and 2,5% and 0,7%, respectively, of Indians and Whites are poor (RDP, 1995:12). There is a close relationship between poverty and the size of the household: larger households with many dependants are much poorer. Furthermore, households with females at their heads have an almost 70% poverty rate as compared to 43% for those which have a male at the head (RDP, 1995: 12-13). One can conclude that poverty in South Africa has a strong rural, race and gender bias: rural African women bear the brunt of poverty in South Africa.

Most rural communities live in poverty, therefore, poverty is not a modern social phenomenon, it has progressively become a problem in most societies. It is often associated with the process of industrialization and is prevalent mostly in underdeveloped and developing societies. To an extent poverty is also characteristic of First World Countries, where it is associated with urban renewal or expansion programmes.

Defining poverty often leads to a debate on the question as to when a person is to be considered poor. Some use economic indicators as an evaluation measure whereas others take subjective indicators into consideration. According to Coleman & Cressay (1990: 162-163) cited by de Beer (1997: 2), poverty can be defined by using either the absolute or the relative approach: The absolute approach is an objective approach, which categorizes society into the poor and

non-poor. Although other factors may be used, the objective approach specifically links poverty to income.

In South Africa various absolute measures have been used. These are poverty datum line, the minimum living level, the supplementary living level, household subsistence level and the household effective level. Relative poverty is an expression of poverty of one entity in relation to another entity. The concept “relative poverty” refers to people whose basic needs are met, but who in terms of their social environment, still experience some disadvantages. In other words, while managing to survive, some people are materially disadvantaged compared to others living in the same community or society.

The World Bank (1975: 19) cited by de Beer (1997: 2) describes absolute poverty as a situation where incomes are low that even a minimum standard of nutrition, shelter and personal necessities cannot be maintained. In other words, absolute poverty means that an individual is so poor that his/her next meal may mean the difference between life and death. About 20% (1000 million or 1 billion) people in the world live in absolute poverty, of which 85% live in rural areas, predominantly of the Third World (Durning, 1990: 12 cited by de Beer, 1997:2).

The relative approach is a subjective approach to determining poverty. People are considered poor if, in their opinion, they are experiencing poverty relative to the rest of the population. Such people regard their standard of living to be poor and find themselves psychologically and sociologically excluded from the mainstream of society. Two broadly defined forms of poverty can be distinguished: case poverty and community poverty. The first kind is found in more affluent societies where the individual or an individual family suffers poverty, and their poverty is

very visible compared to the living conditions of the individuals and families in the surrounding area. Case poverty occurs where certain individuals or families do not share in the general well-being of society. Community poverty, on the other hand, manifests itself where almost everyone in a community is poor, in this instance the living conditions of the more affluent individuals or families are more visible compared to most of those living close to them. Community poverty is found mostly, but not exclusively, in rural areas and in informal and squatter areas in cities. Because so many people are so visibly poor, this type of poverty is also referred to as “mass poverty”. Such mass poverty is usually (but not exclusively) situated in the Third World (Galbraith, 1979:1) cited by de Beer (1997: 2-3). In this unit we are concerned with mass (or community) poverty.

Apart from physical assets such as land, there are other non-physical assets such as education, health and skills development for employment. People living in poverty spend the whole day in their struggle to survive, so that working for their self-development through education, health and skills development for employment is out of the question. The condition of poverty in which the poor exist, deprives them from exercising their legal right to education, health services, housing and employment which is provided for all citizens in the legislative documents in almost every country. Poverty therefore remains a condition from which people have to be liberated before they can make use of the opportunities for development legally provided for the citizens by their governments. (Zalewska, 1993: 23).

It should be noted that even though all social institutions are interrelated to some degree, education because of its major function of transmitting the culture to the new generation is particularly susceptible to influences from the environment. Further, schools also interact with legal, social services and recreational systems

and are affected further by demographic and health related factors. The school is an extension of the family in socializing the individuals and imparting cultural norms and values, changes in the family will eventually produce changes in the school. Schools also educate individuals to become productive members of society and therefore must be responsive to the needs of the economy (Graaf, 1987: 10).

The above mentioned as weighed against urban and rural schools will result in urban schooling being appropriate than rural schools which may be regarded as the almost forgotten. It is widely known that the provision of education is very different for the different race groups in South Africa. However, the widespread acknowledgement that these discrepancies must be removed must also contain an acknowledgement of the great difference not only between black education authorities, but also within these authorities and the enormous difference between education in rural and in urban areas (Graaf, 1987: 10).

Rural areas are mostly the ones in which state services are most often inadequate as compared to urban areas where there is less or no poverty and where the services are not much needed like in rural areas but being available. Some of the factors which have entrenched themselves in the lives of the rural communities and which will need more than a restructured education and financial assistance to schools are: poverty, the continuous absence of many parents due to migrant labor and the unavailability of employment opportunities, illiteracy, low value placed on education, the attitude of teachers and administrators towards rural children and their parents, the efforts made by the chiefs to facilitate educational development and finally the economic and political powerless position of rural communities to develop and improve their own services. If major progress is to be made in rural

education, these factors and their effects on the pupil have to be addressed (Graaf, 1987: 10).

It is also in rural areas where one finds the most conservative and inefficient local and tribal authorities. Rural education on the other hand is in many ways different to urban schooling in its characteristics and dynamics. Rural education is not something that can be simply designed and orchestrated from the commanding heights by bureaucrats, education consultants or planners without genuine investigation into rural context. The problems that confront rural education in the North West or our target population, are not completely different from those that characterize African education elsewhere in South Africa (Graaf, 1987: 10).

Of importance is that one should consider that the rural people were much neglected because of the former apartheid system practices in the country. In a great number of cases, rural people don't have sufficient means to satisfy even the basic needs such as nutrition, reasonable housing and adequate health care, to name but a few. On the other hand, "the problems pertinent to rural education are many, ranging from poor school buildings, lack of teaching aids and equipment, under qualified teachers, inaccessibility of the school, disinterested parents, poor relationship between parents and the teachers, undernourished children and high rates of failure, dropout and absenteeism. Many children also grow in social environments where both parents are absent because of the migrant labor system and they are left under the care of relatives mostly elderly people who know very little about formal education or lack the strength needed for involvement in the education of their grand-children" (Graaf 1987: 10 - 14).

Graaf further mentioned that most of the pupils encounter a problem of drop out because of financial problems and hence one finds only one or two and/or no high school at all in other rural areas. This was initially encouraged by the fact that only few people were able to reach high school education. High school education is very important and can be regarded as a bridge between middle school education and future careers. High school education prepares pupils to be able to choose future careers according to the subjects they chose.

With the current changes taking place in South Africa, it is inevitable that rural education will benefit from the restructuring of education system and the reallocation of funds. In contradiction however, Lawrence and Paterson (1991) cited by Graaf (1987: 15), maintain that the problems of rural education will not be wholly redressed by the above changes because they are more complex than it is considered or known. Graaf attributes this to the ignorance to what is taking place in the rural schools because more attention is given to urban schools.

He further mentioned that most rural areas are far from urban centers and thus many pupils walk long distances to and from school daily and this means that many arrive at school tired, therefore the extent of concentration is hampered. The other problem being that of teachers who are not part of the community they work in or teach in, who are just there for work and money, as well as the lack of many other basic educational resources characterizing rural education. Furthermore rural areas have largely been unable to attract well qualified teachers for a number of reasons, for example lack of proper housing, and other facilities that are already available in the urban areas, for example a lack of good transport service.

Most parents in rural areas can no longer afford the cost of sending children to high school because many things are needed, that including text books, examination fees and others. The cost can also include building fees and other school levies, transport and clothing. Therefore some students attempt to write exams as private candidates, but lack books, study aids and supplementary tuition. Many private students must also help families generate income through part-time employment or piece jobs, as well as carry out social duties on behalf of relatives. This disrupts their study programmes, especially if they want to attend classes at adult centers. Others turn to activities such as petty crime, alcoholism and other social abuses, which then calls for the interaction of professionals such as social workers who might be employed in the community or be employed in schools (Graaf, 1987: 16).

2.2.1 The Deprivation Trap

The poor are trapped in a cycle of poverty: Robert Chambers (1983) cited by de Beer (1997: 3), calls this cycle the deprivation trap. To understand the deprivation trap, one has to understand the type of disadvantage which poor people experience. Chambers (1983) cited by de Beer (1997: 1-15), identified five clusters of disadvantage: poverty, physical weakness, isolation, vulnerability and powerlessness.

2.2.1.1 The Household is Poor

While the majority of families are poor, rich families are also found in the same community. The poor become poorer, and the rich become even richer. However, money that is distributed back to the community, should not be given in the form of handouts, because this promotes dependency.

2.2.1.2 The Household is Physically Weak

Families are large and consist of many children, as well as aged and disabled individuals. Many mouths need a great deal of food and the poor family has too little income to provide properly for this basic need. Food is of a poor quality and low nutritional value, resulting in undernourishment and malnutrition.

Malnutrition causes low birth weight – a disadvantage to start with in life, it also contributes in poor performance in school and lower labor output.

2.2.1.3 The Household is Isolated

Communication is a problem in rural areas and in peripheral urban squatter settlements. People are far removed from social infrastructure such as schools and medical care; employment opportunities are scarce and spread over a huge distance. Isolation of poor families contributes to a higher rate of illiteracy. Lack of reliable transport further increases isolation.

2.2.1.4 The Household is Vulnerable

The poor are vulnerable because of their dependence on the landlords and traditional authorities. They live from hand to mouth. If the father dies there is little hope of survival. A vicious cycle starts: the mother must go to work (most often in the city) and the children are left in the care of the aged relatives without care at all.

2.2.1.5 The Household is Powerless

Landlords have a source of cheap labor. The poor are intimidated by the practices of the rich, on whom they are dependent for their livelihood. Furthermore, because of their remoteness, the poor have little, if any, access to politicians and opinion leaders, and can therefore not influence policies to their benefit. These people have a low status in the eyes of society.

2.2.2 Water and Sanitation

Clean water and sanitation are very important, because a lack of these gives rise to even higher levels of susceptibility to infections. Faeces deposited near homes, contaminated drinking water, fish from polluted rivers and coastal waters, and agricultural products fertilized with human waste, are all contributing towards ill health.

Lack of hygiene when preparing food promotes the transmission of disease. Hands should be washed after defecation and before preparing food but, because water is scarce, this does not happen. Lack of water and sanitation is the most important reason why diseases transmitted through faeces are so prevalent in developing countries. The most common of these are diarrhoea and intestinal worm infections. Inadequate water increases the risk of schistosomiasis, skin and eye infection, and guinea worm disease (World Bank, 1993: 91 cited by de Beer, 1997: 2). According to other authors, the following can still disadvantage people:

2.2.3 Education and Health

Education and health are both among the basic human needs, and can be regarded as vital aspects of material well being in the same way as food or housing. Even in schools where fees are not charged, families often cannot afford payments for books and uniforms. Sending older children to school of course is costly in terms of the loss of their labor or their income (O'Connor, 1991: 123 cited by Chuenyane, 1994: 51). He further mentioned that education is one of the most important social factors that influence our lives in general and our growth, development and health in particular. It plays a decisive role in the improvement in the standard of quality of life. Owing to the fact that there seems to be a positive relationship between one's level of education and one's standard of quality of life, we can assume that the more educated a person is, the better are the chances of earning more and affording a higher quality of life. Although there are some uneducated people whose quality of life is relatively high, the majority of the uneducated people struggle to make ends meet. Our health is influenced by our educational standard, social class and occupational groups to which we belong. As we know, access to, and attainment in education determine, by and large, the type of occupation, which, in turn, has a direct bearing on our income, growth, development and health.



Poverty forces people to lead less healthy lives. Their living conditions are more likely to be unhealthy and therefore, they manifest adverse health behaviors. These people, and particularly the children, are likely to be victims of retarded growth and development, feeble conceptualization, wishful thinking, and frustration that

may lead to social irresponsibilities and lack of concern for the general welfare and society. Unfortunately, children are the first to suffer under the brunt of poverty, ignorance, oppression and underdevelopment.

It is worth noting that with the increase in school dropout rates, illiteracy, drug addiction, alcoholism and high teenage pregnancies, the number of children living in poverty will increase. Our future and the future of most of our children will be bleak if we do not modify some of our behaviors. Education, occupation and income are fundamental to growth and development (Milio, 1975, cited by Chuenyane, 1994: 52)

2.2.4 Living Conditions

De Haan (1988 as cited by Chuenyane, 1994: 52) further mentioned that an awareness of the environment in which we live forms a good basis for environmental protection. We must help to create a safe and healthy environment for us all including plants and animals. Our contribution as young men and women to the caring for life around us cannot be overemphasized. We should also adopt the slogan that is heard worldwide, namely, “Our environment, our health.”

We need to dispose of refuse properly, so that it does not accumulate to cause offensive smells and attract flies and rodents. Massive accumulation of refuse and excreta, especially in overcrowded areas produces disease organisms that may cause outbreaks of infections and even death. Littering should be considered bad and undesirable behavior, for example, throwing away plastic containers, papers and groovy tins through windows of cars in motion.

The water that we drink should be protected and not contaminated by people and animals, especially if we get our water directly from wells. A fence may be put around the source of water. This practice of preventing water pollution will help prevent water-borne diseases such as diarrhoea, typhoid, cholera, bilharzias, and hepatitis (inflammation of the liver), that may affect our health and lead to death if not treated immediately. Therefore, it is important to realize that these diseases are preventable.

Similarly we should prevent air and soil pollution. De Haan (1988) as cited by Chuenyane (1994: 52-53), states that the improvement of environmental hygiene is one of the most effective methods of improving the health of a community. All living creatures need clean air to survive and flourish. Unfortunately, of all creatures, human beings are the greatest polluters of air and have caused the worst destruction of flora and fauna and are now threatening the ozone layer.

By setting vegetation on fire and contaminating the air and soil with deadly chemicals, people pollute the environment. Smoke pollutes the air and air pollution is associated with lung cancer. It is therefore important to be aware of the hazards and dangers of poor living conditions.

2.2.5 Effects of Illness and Illness Behavior

De Haan (1988, as cited by Chuenyane, 1994:53-54) further mentioned that most diseases suffered by people in developing countries are preventable and can be successfully treated. However, prevention presupposes a certain amount of knowledge and information. This is the reason why education should be treated as a top priority. Illness affects the way we behave and perceive ourselves and others. It determines our attitudes towards life and the extent to which our goals will be

realized. It influences our ability to recognize opportunities and to take advantage of them. An ill person cannot perform at full capacity. Illness forces one to be preoccupied with the illness sometimes to the total exclusion of anything else. In addition, illness adds to cost of living. To treat diseases costs money, time and effort. Hence prevention is better than cure. It is, therefore, important and desirable to take necessary health precautions. Routine medical checkups are highly recommended.

Medical care affects our health. The decisive technological developments that are represented by such basic breakthroughs as immunizations, family planning and sexuality education are remarkably effective in the growth and development of individuals. Medical interventions indeed play key restorative or ameliorating roles in individuals' lives.

It is unfortunate that most individuals, and teenagers in particular, seek medical help late after diseases or health problems have occurred. At this stage they are often too late and have to pay a heavy price. Many people are still reluctant or afraid to immediately present themselves at the clinics when suffering from sexually transmitted diseases such as pubic lice, syphilis and gonorrhoea. The rate of sexually transmitted diseases is alarmingly high in rural areas. This is indicative of lack of knowledge on prevention, causes, signs and symptoms, treatment and the complications of these diseases.

Sexually active men and women in most cases fail to make use of family planning methods to help reduce the risk of an early, unwanted and unplanned pregnancy. These teenagers are unfortunately afraid or unaware of the importance of reporting the pregnancy early and attending the Antenatal clinic during the first three months

of pregnancy. This failure to report may lead to maternal and child complications, birth abnormalities and even death of both the mother and baby. Unfortunately teenage pregnancies lead to a high school dropout rate, unemployment, and increase in the number of single parents and poverty as a result of forced early school leaving that could have been avoided.

The 1981 Select Panel for the Promotion of Child Health as indicated by Chuenyane (1994: 54), stated that family planning and a healthy living environment reduce high fertility rates as the number of unwanted and unplanned births decreases. If the births prevented are to teenagers or pupils whose offsprings are at a higher risk of dying as newborns or infants, or at risk of having birth abnormalities, or of living in a poor environment, then the child's health and teenager's or pupil's health will definitely improve.

2.2.6 Home Conditions

The home as the dwelling place of the family unit that is responsible for the rearing and socialization of the child can and does have an important influence on the values and standards of the children of that particular family. As Merton and Nisbet (1964) as cited by Chuenyane (1994: 72) say, "Illegitimacy occurs primarily in lower-class families, which are themselves unstable." Here the inference is that disorganized families will bring disorganized children. This is typical of a child who for example has been raised in a 'shebeen' environment, where the mother encourages her daughter to serve beer and to entice men in order to get more customers. A girl in this environment tends to lose her self and be swallowed by the turmoil surrounding her. She lacks a proper model and parental supervision, the end product is looseness, lack of morals, and hence indulging in

sexual activities. When children grow up in families marked by parental conflict, they receive contradictory messages, especially about sex.

Such contradictions leave them confused, unclear about appropriate sexual values, and less capable of handling themselves in potential situations of abuse. They may be particularly vulnerable to older persons who entice them into sexual situations with offers of advice and instruction and assurance about the appropriateness of the behavior. Similarly, in families with much conflict or ones that have been disrupted, children are less well supervised and thus tend to find refuge in older men trying to make up for parental love.

Rip (1978), cited by Chuenyane (1994: 73) further confirms that unmarried motherhood primarily occurs in lower class families, which are themselves unstable and have little family honor to lose, so that motivation to control courtship is not high. Consequently, the youth girl establishes an essentially individual bargain role with a male and is in a poor bargaining position unless she has outstanding personal qualities. She must be willing to accept the risk of childbirth out of wedlock if she is to have a chance of marriage. These consensual unions are less stable than legal ones.

2.2.7 Migrant Labor

Rip (1978, cited by Chuenyane, 1994: 73) further mentioned that migrant labor system also has a contributory factor in our society. Unemployment and under-employment is rife in our country. Fathers and mothers are compelled to leave their children to take up employment away from home. In most cases, absence of one or both parents deprives the children of proper parental guidance. This finally

leads the children to finding ways of coping on their own and indulging in any kind of anti-social behavior. Homes as these sometimes end up being meeting places for teenagers, or even breeding dens for prostitution.

2.2.8 Overcrowding

Overcrowding and lack of proper family facilities can also drive the child away from parental protection. Cronje, (1960) cited by Chuenyane (1994: 74), in a study of 189 mothers of illegitimate children who volunteered for interviews in five homes for unmarried mothers, found that 10,1% of the unmarried mothers came from homes described as poor and morally poor and this 10,1% was found predominantly among the younger unmarried mothers.

This suggests that until the girl became older and could build up a different moral standard of values she still behaved in accordance with the moral values she had internalized in her family, (Rip, 1978, cited by Chuenyane 1994: 76).

Due to overcrowding the mother shares the bedroom or facilities with the children and her male partners. Hence children are exposed to sexual acts between mother and partners. Secondly, children tend to run away to seek comfortable privacy from widowed or divorced men who in turn abuse them sexually only to throw them out.

2.2.9 Social Isolation and Support

Social psychologists have suggested that the presence or absence of social support has an effect on psychological well-being. It is assumed that a person with a weak supportive network of friends and family is less likely to be able to cope with stressful events and will have a poor sense of self-esteem. This may result in

parenting difficulties and possibly child abuse and neglect (Seagull, 1987, cited by Brown, 1988: 62-64).

Evidence for this notion has been provided by Wahler (1980), cited by Brown (1988: 62-64), who noted that the frequency of contacts a mother had with friends was universally related to the number of problems she had at home with her child and with her own skill in dealing with them. Interestingly, on days when a parent had increased social contacts with others, her interactions with the child were also more positive.

Gil (1970) cited by Brown (1988: 62-64), considers socio-economic problems to be a major cause for child abuse. Smith (1975) cited by Brown (1988: 62-64) found an overrepresentation of criminality. He reports that 29% of the fathers had a criminal record, and in the brief following period, nearly 7% went on to commit further crimes.

As Parke (1982) cited by Brown (1988: 62-64) explains: a parent may influence a child not only directly but through the mediation of another family member. For example, a father may verbally discipline the child. Alternatively, a mother may argue with her husband who in turn may hit the child.

2.2.10 Child Abuse

Evidence indicates that child abuse can often be the result of husband-wife violence. Pederson, Anderson and Cain (1977) in Brown (1988: 62-64) found that the level of negative affect between spouses was positively related to the amount of negative affect directed towards their five-month-old infant. It has been suggested

that parents satisfied with their marriages, reward their children more and punish them less than parents who were less satisfied with their marriages, and that there are close links between wife abuse and physical child abuse. (Gayford, 1975; Merrick and Milchelsen, 1985; Milner and Gold, 1986 cited by Brown, 1988: 62-64).

In the book *Leaving Violent Men*, Binney, Harkell and Nixon (1981) cited by Brown (1988: 62-64), from interviews conducted among women's refuge residents reported that, 'it was only when the violence began to be directed to the children as well 27% of the cases that women felt justified in leaving home'. Jan Pahl (1985) cited by Brown (1988: 62-64) states that in 90% of the couples in her study of spouse abuse, there was a child under five in the household at sometime during the years when the violence was taking place. It is important to realize that the child does not have to have been physically injured in order to be seriously affected by family violence. (Penfold, 1982; Wolfe et al. ; 1985, cited by Brown (1988:64).

The marital relationship may not only affect the parents' relationship towards their child but also the child's actual behavior. Rutter (1981) cited by Brown (1988: 62-64) found a significant linear trend between antisocial behavior in boys and marital distress in parents. Specifically, none of the antisocial boys came from homes where there was a good marriage: 22% came from homes with a fair marriage and 39% from homes where there was a poor marriage and 39% from homes where parents are divorced. It should also be noted that distorted family dynamics and wife abuse have also been associated with child sexual abuse. (Julian and Mohr, 1979; Dietz and Craft, 1980; Truesdell, Mc Neil and Deschner, 1986).

Most people from rural areas are poor, as indicated on page two in the problem statement, 75% live in rural areas, 65% live in poverty, which is predominant among Africans. Hence, poverty, as a major factor that affects the learning abilities of children, is discussed in detail in the text.

2.2.11 Theories on Poverty

There are a number of theories that attempt to explain poverty. Despite the one-sided view often taken by theorists, these theories do not add to the broader understanding of poverty in a society. According to Bezuidenhout (1998: 167-168), the four theories on poverty are explained as follows:

2.2.11.1 Deficiency Theory

This theory has its roots in Social Darwinism. Spencer, an advocate of Social Darwinism, was of the opinion that the poor are poor because it is nature's way of eliminating those who are "not fit" to make room for those who are, and who are therefore entitled to the rewards of wealth. Later this concept was adopted by Jensen (1969, 1980) and Hernstein (1971, 1973) who suggested that the poor are impoverished because they do not possess the same intellectual endowment as the more affluent members of society.

According to Jensen, the difference between the poor and the non-poor can be attributed to genetic and environmental factors. Individuals who are intellectually more tenacious are less likely to be poor. Hernstein maintains that social stratification can be attributed to inborn differences based on mental ability and the ability of an individual to use his inherited mental capability to acquire a

prestigious job, enabling him to earn sufficient finances and thus preventing impoverishment. Although mental ability may be a contributing factor as to why some individuals are poor, this explanation is biased and does not take other concomitant factors such as economic, social, environmental, political and other factors into account.

There are a number of theories that attempt to explain poverty. Despite the one-sided view often taken by theorists, these theories do add to the broader understanding of poverty in a society.

2.2.11.2 Cultural Poverty Theory

In order to adapt to their impoverished condition the poor develop a lifestyle that is transmitted from one generation to the other. Through socialization the poor develop a subculture of their own and are characterized, for example, by the way in which they raise their children, regard their future prospects, spend their money and view formal education. This theory argues that the poor differ in values and lifestyle from the non-poor.

2.2.11.3 Structural Theories

These theories take the view that society in its attempt to organize its social, environmental, economic and political spheres, creates poverty or makes certain kinds of people more vulnerable to it. From this point of view it would mean that certain groups in society, such as racial minorities, may become impoverished because they are deprived of equal opportunities for education, jobs and income, or women, because they generally receive less pay and fewer chances for

advancement, or individuals who cannot afford specialized training and therefore cannot advance in their jobs and thereby acquire a better earning and living standards.

2.2.11.4 Conflict Theory

The basic premise of conflict theory is that poverty is caused by opposition between various groups in society. There are those who hold and want to maintain their wealth, power, privileges and other social rewards at all costs. Individuals or groups of individuals become impoverished because they are prevented by those who own such desirables from acquiring the same. While some sociologists contend that social class differences are central to the understanding of poverty, there are some who hold the view, for example, that male dominance is responsible for the high poverty among women, and that attitudes towards the disabled are the reason for the high poverty rate among such members of society.

2.3 THE EXTENT, CAUSES AND EFFECTS OF POVERTY IN RURAL AREAS

2.3.1 Who Are the Poor?



According to Holman (1978: 28-30), the following groups are the most poverty-stricken.

■ Women

Poverty may be positively linked to those women who are unemployed or who earn a low income, and who need to care for their children and/or other members of their family living with them. Such women would most likely be those who are unmarried, divorced, separated, deserted by their husbands, or widowed.

■ Children and the Young

It is without any doubt that children and young people are among the largest segments of the poor population. Irrespective of the fact that there may be laws that exclude them from the labor market, many children and young people may attempt to earn an income. However, this may be insufficient to provide in their needs, even if it does make a positive contribution to their family's income or lack of income of their parent(s).

■ Minorities

Minority groups are sometimes made up of a number of poverty-stricken families. In addition to this, they may also experience social and political barriers to employment, education and other means of improving their quality of life. When they do find employment, their income is often low and inadequate to achieve an equitable, humane and healthy lifestyle for themselves and their families.

Firstly, the elderly. They make up such a substantial proportion of the poor that the question is posed whether poverty can be explained as the problem of old age. Should theory and action concentrate on the old? The answer must be a negative one. Many of the poor are not old. They face poverty in old age because their incomes in youth and middle age did not allow them to accumulate the kind of

occupational pensions, investments and possessions which would keep them in comfort in old age. Poverty is not a condition which suddenly arrives at a certain age. (Abel-Smith and Townsend as cited by Holman, 1978: 31)

Secondly, the unemployed. Increases in the numbers in poverty are not necessarily the same as increases in the numbers of the unemployed. Some may have been in poverty while they were employed. Others may be unemployed but not poor in that their national insurance benefits, redundancy payments and private incomes continue to keep them above the poverty line.

Thirdly, the sick and disabled. They are receiving supplementary benefits, others are at work but apparently in low-wage occupations. They will eventually live below the supplementary benefit basic rate.

Fourthly, one-parent families. The lone parent is predominantly, although not exclusively, female with children. In common with other women, they are less likely to have qualified through their work record, for the higher national insurance benefits for the unemployed and are more likely to be in disadvantaged position on the job market when available for work.

Fifthly, low wage earners who are mostly in full-time work. These groups are more likely than others to experience low incomes. In short, they are particularly vulnerable to poverty.

2.3.2 Social Deprivation

So far, poverty has been examined in terms of income – or lack of it- with the implication that a certain amount of money is required to purchase the goods necessary for a reasonable life. But income is not the only factor making for such a life. This reason made Abel-Smith and Townsend, as cited by Holman (1978: 31-31) to be dissatisfied with their own definition of poverty. Poverty, they contended, really: “...refers to a variety of conditions involving differences in home environment, material possessions and educational and occupational resources as well as financial resources... we need to develop other indicators of the command of individuals and families over resources.”

Education is awarded a prominent place in our society. The age at which children commence formal education, the type of school they attend, the attainments they reach and the higher education they pursue, are all accorded weighty concern by parliament and the press.

Yet amongst children there are wide variations in the type of schooling they receive and the educational levels they attain. A minority of two to four-year-old children are fortunate enough to obtain some form of organized education. A small number eventually proceed to higher education. Those who do not proceed, there can be little doubt that many of them will be amongst those who leave school without any qualifications at all. Relative to other children, they are educationally deprived.

The evidence reveals that numbers of persons experience inferior housing conditions, health and educational attainments when compared with the bulk of the population. These are just three indicators of social deprivation. Some persons are deprived of access to the health and social services which they need. Conditions of work in terms of health hazards, security of employment, holidays and occupational pensions also show enormous differences. Consideration might also be given to the possession or lack of a car, a garden, or play space. Lewis (1975:42-43), cited by Holman (1978: 106) claimed that the culture of poverty was made up of '...some seventy interrelated social, economic and psychological traits'. However, for convenience, these can be narrowed down to four major groupings, namely:

Firstly, the poor are characterized by a lack of participation and integration into the major institutions of the larger society. They do not belong to trade unions, voluntary societies or political bodies. They make little use of hospitals or departmental stores. Their reluctance is linked with a critical attitude towards some of the basic institutions of the dominant classes, hatred of the police, mistrust of government and those in high positions, and a cynicism which extend even to the church. Similarly, they may not share the values of the larger society. Even where there is awareness of the values, the poor do not live by them.

Secondly, the culture is marked by a minimum of organization beyond the level of the nuclear and extended family. This is to be expected if the poor do not participate in clubs, trade unions or movements. However, Lewis(1975: 42) does concede that, despite the general disorganization, there might be

sufficient cohesiveness to engender a sense of community.

Thirdly, family and sexual practices are a variance with the outside culture. Thus he notes ‘... the absence of childhood as a specially prolonged and protected stage in the life cycle, early initiation into sex, free unions or consensual marriages, are relatively high, incidence of the abandonment of wives and children....’.

Fourthly, attitudes of helplessness, dependence and inferiority prevail. Linked to the poor’s resignation and fatalism, there is little motivation for work, for advancement, for change. In addition, the poor process ‘... a lack of impulse, control, a strong present time orientation with relatively little ability to defer gratification and to plan for the future’.

Holman (1978: 107) further mentioned that the behavior and attitudes of the members make poverty inevitable. Unmotivated and helpless people do not work their way out of poverty. Those unwilling to postpone pleasures do not save. Change will never come if they are unwilling to organize. Further, the inevitable poverty does not breed resentment because the culture of poverty is a way of accepting poverty. For instance, the resignation and fatalism enables people to live with their plight.

According to the World Book Encyclopedia (1980: 649-650), poverty in the United States and most industrially developed countries is usually related to difficulty in getting and holding a job. Ability, education and skill help determine the kind of job an individual gets. For example, all people do not have the same physical and mental abilities. Some are born with limitations

that prevent them from performing certain jobs. Poor health and physical disabilities prevent some persons from holding jobs. Workers who have little education or job training can earn little income.

Economic slumps and changes in labor requirements often bring poverty. When business drops off, production also declines. If the downturn continues, many persons are laid off. Unemployment can also result if consumers turn to new kinds of products, if machines can do a job more efficiently than workers, or if an industry moves out of a community.

Poverty is also caused by social conditions, such as discrimination against minority groups. Whites frequently discriminate against non-whites. Some discrimination makes it difficult for non-whites to go into business for themselves. Qualified non-whites are often passed over when good jobs are available. Unemployment is highest among non-whites, most of whom have much lower income than whites.

Holman (1978: 28) maintains that poverty is functional in that it maintains a social system, rather than dysfunctional which would imply stopping or arresting the present system. Thus poverty is not eliminated even when society has sufficient affluence to achieve this end, for it exists for reasons other than a total lack of resources.

Poverty, then, as a condition of a minority, functions to dampen down reforming notions of other social classes. In addition, since the poor are regarded as responsible for their plight, attention can be focused on them as a problem to be controlled instead of on changes to bring them out of poverty.

The poor are needed to undertake the least desirable jobs and positions implied in a stratified society. Children raised in poor law institutions are trained to function as servants and maids or to enter the lowest ranks of the armed services. Provision was also made for adults to act as seasonal workers on local farms where labor was scarce. In short, the poor supported society by fulfilling its most menial positions. (Middleton's Documentation of the 19th and 20th Century, Poor Law System), cited by Holman in Holman's Book, 1978: 206)

Poverty is still required in order to provide a pool of workers prepared to accept the low wages and unhealthy and dirty jobs, which serve higher social classes. Unless the poor existed, the job might not be undertaken. In addition, the poor are required to function as the group which is prepared to accept unemployment. The poor are the "first fired and the last hired". As Pruger, cited by Holman (1978: 207), explains, the poor "perform vital functions for the national economy. They bear the major cost of both technological progress and efforts to maintain price stability". Holman further mentioned that a pool of unemployment can hold wages down – by inhibiting wage claims – and so increase the profitability of industry. If the poor did not exist as the body liable to unemployment, problems would be created for industry and government when wanting a means of regulating the economy. The threat of large-scale unemployment might spread to higher classes, who might then question the present ordering of society.

Poverty is not the inevitable fate of an unlucky few but that it continues by the consent of the society, because the latter profits by it. Poverty functions to justify inequalities, to lessen the prospects of alterations in the stratifications associated with inequality, and to provide a group of persons constrained to undertake the least favored and most vulnerable positions in society. Gans (1971) cited by de

Beer (1997: 1-2) in his study of poverty lists a number of benefits poverty may have for society, some of them are that:

- Poverty provides a large number of persons who are willing to do manual work and the type of work that many others don't like doing.
- The poor help to make life easier for the more affluent in society by providing them with much needed services such as gardening, house cleaning and washing, etc.
- Poverty creates occupations and jobs for a variety of professionals and non-professionals whose aim is to deal with the plight of the poor.
- The poor guarantee the social status of those who are not poor by occupying the lower levels of the status hierarchy.

2.3.3 Material Poverty

Gans (1971) cited by de Beer (1997: 2) further mentioned that low levels of income, whether in terms of cash or of subsistence production, and therefore low levels of consumption of goods and services. This is reflected in diet, among other things, so that both under-nutrition and malnutrition are aspects of material poverty. So is the related issue of ill health, with which we can link low levels of education, since funds can be spent on these services as an alternative to goods, whether by governments or by individuals.

It should be made very clear at the start that no cultural or spiritual poverty is implied, although these matters may of course be equally relevant for human happiness. What much of Africa lacks in material terms, it partly makes up for in these other ways. Many people who certainly seem poor by global

standards evidently manage to enjoy life just as much as many people in richer societies elsewhere. For many others, however, and probably for an increasing number in recent years, this is not so. For these people, in the Sahel, in Ethiopia, in Zaire, or in Mozambique, no amount of cultural richness can compensate for their extreme and unrelenting deprivation in material terms.

At the same time, we must recognize that poverty is really experienced by families and by individuals rather than by countries or even regions. It is individual people who may die of starvation, not entire nations.

2.3.4 Causes of Poverty

Bezuidenhout (1998: 165-174) contends that as in the case with many social phenomena in society, it is difficult to determine a single causative factor for poverty. While a number of factors are discussed below, poverty should be viewed as the result of the collective effect of such factors. Bezuidenhout (1988:165-174) mentioned the following eight factors as causative factors for poverty:

2.3.4.1 Poor Health

Poor health or ill health may cause the worker to be absent from work, which may reduce his level of income, especially if he is paid by the hour. Should the worker - who may be the sole breadwinner - eventually lose his work, his family may find it difficult to make ends meet.

Individuals who do not have sufficient funds for medical expenses, or who do not have access to medical aid funds, or who may have depleted their medical aid provisions, may have to use their family income to pay their debts. Such situations may worsen their financial position or cause temporary or long-lasting impoverishment.

2.3.4.2 Environmental Factors

Drought, fires, excessive rain and flooding, pests and other harmful environmental factors may ruin or reduce the income potential of the farming community. This in turn affects the income of the industrial worker who is reliant on produce from the farming community. Furthermore, the scarcity of agricultural products may cause the escalation of prices, placing the purchase of such products out of reach of the low-income group. Over a long period of time, such individuals or families may find it difficult to maintain an adequate standard of health. Changes in the weather pattern may also affect the health of the workers and their families.

2.3.4.3 Absence of the Breadwinner

Families may become impoverished when the sole breadwinner dies or disappears without trace. This is most likely to happen in families where the mother does not earn an income and the family's income is insufficient to meet their needs.

2.3.4.4 Substance Abuse

Families may find themselves becoming gradually impoverished when the substance-abusing parent uses the family income to maintain his/her habit.

Moreover, the substance abuser may lose his/her employment resulting in a further lowering of the family's means.

2.3.4.5 Education and Training

Many workers, due to a low standard of education and training, are unable to compete for a higher paid job. Often these workers are first to be retrenched in times of economic recession. Many come from families in which their parents cannot afford to give them an education or specific training opportunities, and it is necessary for them to work from a younger age to help supplement the family income.

2.3.4.6 Size of the Family

Impoverished, large families may find it difficult to meet a sustaining healthy lifestyle. This is especially prevalent in families earning a low income or in those families whose members do not earn an income.

2.3.4.7 War and Other Forms of Violence

Poverty may be caused by war and the long-standing ethnic and political conflict. War leads to destruction of the natural environment in which people have to live and earn a living. War impoverishes society as a whole, which aggravates the already impoverished conditions of the poor. Long-standing ethnic and political conflict among groups may have the same effects as war on society. Individuals and families living in violent areas may fear leaving their homes unattended, or cannot commute to work regularly because of blockades. Low-income workers

find it difficult to earn an adequate income or are prevented from reporting for work. As a result they are either retrenched or earn a smaller income because of their absence from work.

War injuries may affect the occupational life of the income-earning members of the family. Not being able to work again, or only being able to perform rudimentary jobs, has an adverse affect on the family's income.

2.3.4.8 Illegal Immigrants

The presence of illegal immigrants in a society aggravates the problem of unemployment and poverty. This is the case in South Africa. These immigrants compete with the local inhabitants for jobs or other means of procuring an income, such as street vending. South Africans who are already impoverished but manage to earn an income from informal economic activity, now find themselves in economic competition with illegal immigrants.

2.3.4.9 Family Disorganization

According to Zalewska (1993: 192), family disorganization is a process in which many interrelated factors have played a significant part of various stages. This process takes place over a period of time, and as disorganization becomes more articulate the functioning of the family as a group becomes less integrated until there is very little integration between the members.

Zalewska (1993: 192) further mentioned that the process includes the weakness, maladaptation or disillusion of the ties binding members of the family as a group.

This implies that the reciprocal relationship that should exist between the members of the family to create a smoothly functioning social group has been damaged and/or severed.

The nature of the disorganized family differs according to the presence of the contributing factor(s). The **first** type can be described as families in which the members attempt to shelter a form of organized family. Internally, they do not function in a socially approved and acknowledged manner. When the emotional support between the spouses is entirely absent or is only minimally present, and the relationship and communication between the parent and child(ren), or between the siblings are also inadequate, a high degree of individualism exists. In other words, the members of the family do not function as a close knit unit, and therefore cannot adequately meet each others' needs.

A **second** type of a disorganized family is that which does not function in the approved way owing to factors which prevent the individual family members from functioning in an accepted manner. Factors such as mental, emotional or physical abilities, which can be either temporary or permanent, lead to a built up of strain and tension in the relationships between the members of the family because of the inability of a member to fulfill his/her role. There are a number of external environmental factors owing, among other things, to violence, unemployment, imprisonment and natural catastrophes, that make it difficult or impossible for members in the family to fulfill their roles collectively. These factors are unintentional and result in the creation of a fourth type of disorganized family.

While the above factors influence the functioning of the family, there are those occurrences that primarily cause disruption to the structure of the family unit. For

instance, the desertion of a marital partner, death of one or more members of the family and divorce may lead to a disorganized family, but may not necessarily result in a disorganized family. However, only when the members of a family do not operate smoothly and fail to meet each other's needs, can such occurrences cause family disorganization.

2.3.4.10 Power, Prices and Poverty

Individuals and households may be poor because they are exploited by others, either directly in the form of tributes or rents paid to feudal masters or land lords, or indirectly because they get low prices for the goods and services which they sell, or low wages for their labor power. Such exploitation may be the consequence of the possession of power. Power can be political or institutionalized, it can also rest on pure force as when warrior tribes raid farming communities and take away food, other goods and slaves. It may also be economic and linked with poverty rights. Such manifestations of economic power are well known: the power of landlords over peasants and share-croppers, the power of employers to hire workers who only receive a small part of the value of the goods which they create, the power of enterprises with monopoly power to fix prices which earn them the highest possible level of profit. There is no doubt that exploitation of man by man aggravates poverty in many societies. (Parkinson, 1983: 19-20)

2.3.4.11 Low Income

Low income means that parents have to spend more time at their jobs or on household tasks which leaves less time to spend with their children. They will have less money to spend on books, crayons, puzzles or outings to help their

child's development and to develop the skills which the school rewards (Zalewska, 1993: 192).

2.3.4.12 Conditions at Work

Poor conditions at work may have an indirect effect on employees' children and their educational experience. Long hours and short holidays reduce the amount of time parents have available for their children. Heavy physical work, which gives rise to severe fatigue may mean they are frequently too tired to meet some of their children's needs. More indirectly a sense of powerlessness at the workplace may carry over to other aspects of life. When this happens, parents may passively accept low standards of educational provision or decisions made about their children at school about which they are unhappy (Zalewska, 1993: 192).

2.3.4.13 Poor Housing

Poor housing may well affect educational progress as a result of the difficulties of studying at home, the lack of quiet or privacy and an inadequate night's sleep (Zalewska, 1993: 192).

2.3.4.14 Isolation

Isolation of poor families and households can be described in terms of which are spatial, social, and related to knowledge and access. Spatially, poor families tend to be removed from the center of things: either they are in areas remote from urban centers, or they are on the edges of villages or away from main roads. Socially, they may have fewer relationships on which they can rely: poorer

households tend to be smaller, and many of the poorest have female heads. They are illiterate, have no radio, and know little about events beyond their neighborhood. Their members rarely go to public meetings, receive no advice from extension workers in agriculture, health, family planning or nutrition, and travel little, except in search of work. They make less use of services (health, transport, education) than their less poor neighbors. They are either fragmented and scattered as members migrate for work, trapped in one place by debts and other obligations. Many adopt a low profile strategy: by accepting powerlessness as a condition of protection, they demonstrate that they will not pose any threat to their patrons. Some, whose legal position is weak, as in the case of self-settling refugees (Chambers, 1979: 1) and squatters (Mbithi and Barnes 1975, cited by Chambers, 1979: 6-7), may even try to hide, to be invisible to the official eye. Out of sight, they hope to be out of mind.

2.3.5 The Effects of Poverty

According to Bezuidenhout (1998 : 165-174) the main nine effects of poverty are as follows:

2.3.5.1 Inferior Education

Individuals may be forced to discontinue their formal education at a young age to help supplement the family's income. In some instances, children leave their homes to earn a living on the street. When on the street, they do not attend school and in later years they have difficulty competing with their peers on the open labor market.

2.3.5.2 Living Conditions

Individuals and families who have become impoverished find it difficult to create a safe and healthy living environment for themselves. Often they are evicted from their residences because they are unable to pay rent. They may have to move to a cheaper home in a low social class environment, or may be forced to live on the street, or settle in a squatter camp.

A low-class environment would imply learning a new set of norms and values which they may find difficult to cope with, which in turn may cause stress and family conflict. Furthermore, street life and settlement in a squatter camp may lead to ill-health and diseases, such as tuberculosis.

2.3.5.3 Malnourishment

Little or irregular acquired income may cause ill health and a high mortality rate among the poor. Without adequate financial means or social support, the poor cannot purchase or acquire nutritional foodstuffs necessary to maintain their health. Those who may have opportunity to work find that their energy levels cannot cope with their workload. This not only affects their productivity, but may also lead to their being dismissed from work.

Furthermore, it is a known fact that children need sufficient nourishment enabling them to cope with the demands of formal education. Malnourished children may experience problems with their self-esteem because they do not acquire higher grades, or are unable to complete their school year successfully, or are unable to compete with their peers.

2.3.5.4 Infant Mortality

Research indicates that infant mortality is high when living conditions are poor. Infant mortality is also linked to an absence or lack of adequate antenatal care, substance abuse, malnourishment and inadequate postnatal care of the newly born.

2.3.5.5 Inadequate Housing

Poverty is associated with high population density and over-crowding. Due to a lack of finances, individuals or families tend to share housing facilities. This leads to overcrowding and many young children in such households take to the street to earn a living. Some of them become child prostitutes, drug pushers, or enter into juvenile gang life. They participate in criminal activities in order to procure much needed finances for themselves or their families.



2.3.5.6 Death by Suicide and Other Crime-Related Incidents

While some individuals commit suicide because they can no longer tolerate the harshness poverty causes in their lives, others participate in crime-related activities, such as robbery, and they may be killed when confronted by police or those persons who safeguard their property or the property of others.

2.3.5.7 Psychological Consequences

An individual who finds it difficult to make ends meet, especially if he/she is the breadwinner, may have a low self-esteem. In some instances such persons feel

rejected or experience rejection by members of their families for being unable to secure a job or to provide in the needs of their families.

While many impoverished families may live together in the same community, they may experience social isolation from the rest of the society. Such isolation may be intensified when the more affluent members of the society label the poor as social outcasts because they believe that they are responsible for their situation.

The poor may also experience powerlessness. Their lack of means to compete with the more affluent in society emphasizes their powerlessness. Individuals who find themselves impoverished, and especially those who may have families to care for, may experience episodes of depression. Without adequate treatment, such persons may resort to suicide or even family murder.

2.3.5.8 Criminal Activities

Some criminal activities are related to poverty. The poor may participate in criminal activities such as drug peddling, shoplifting, burglary, gang-related activities, and the selling of children in order to acquire the financial means to sustain a minimum living standard.

2.3.5.9 Wasted Workforce

Poverty and unemployment are related. This is especially noticeable in Third World countries and in countries undergoing social, economic and political change. Those individuals who can work, but who are unable to do so because there are not enough jobs, seemingly enhance the notion of a wasted workforce. Causative factors are poor education and training.

2.3.5.10 Teenage Pregnancy

de Beer (1997: 5) postulates that, when a teenager becomes pregnant, this does not only affect the physical, emotional and social well-being of the mother-to-be, but the situation has consequences for the father of the unborn child, the families of the father and mother, the prospective baby and the community in which the father and mother of the unborn child find themselves. A teenager from a poor family, during adolescence, seeks to build an esteemed self-image. It is through interaction with significant others, that a self-image is created. Teenagers who constantly have to prove their worth or endure continuous ridicule or experience an identity crisis, may seek attention outside the home. Such attention-seeking behavior often ends in illicit sexual unions through which the teenager tries to prove his or her worthiness.

2.3.5.11 Diseases of Poverty

Wilson Gordon, cited by Allen Tim (1990: 34-35) mentions the diseases of poverty as the following:

- In one of the most comprehensive surveys even undertaken into childhood mortality, the organization reveals that 4 million die from diarrhoea a year.
- In what Dr. Nakajima, cited by Allen (1990: 34), describes as ‘the silent genocide’, the report reveals that 3 million children die a year from six infectious diseases, namely, polio, tetanus, measles, diphtheria, whooping cough and tuberculosis.
- In a catalogue of suffering and handicap, the report reveals that 4 million children die every year due to acute respiratory diseases, mostly pneumonia.

Tim further mentioned that political scientists claim that poverty can create hostility against the political system. The poor often blame the government for their predicament. Especially bitter persons may turn to radical political ideas or movements that threaten the existing political system.. “Poverty breeds poverty”, according to many sociologists and anthropologists. Children of the poor, they claim, have a good chance of remaining poor all their lives. Poor parents cannot afford good food, housing, and medical care, illness comes more often and stays longer. Many poor adults become discouraged. Unable to get and hold good jobs, they lose all sense of dignity and self-respect. With loss of hope, some become resigned to poverty. In time, many children of the poor acquire the same feelings of helplessness and hopelessness. Public health experts consider poverty as a major cause of malnutrition. Prolonged hunger reduces the body’s resistance to disease. Poorly nourished people catch more diseases, become more seriously ill and are more likely to die at an early age than well-fed people. Malnutrition itself also causes diseases, including beriberi, pellagra and rickets. Malnutrition is most dangerous for children. Lack of food retards and may permanently stunt a child’s growth. Childhood malnutrition – particularly during the first years of life – may cause permanent damage to the brain.

According to Holman (1978: 28), poverty leaves parents with little choice in the methods they adopt to raise children. Overcrowded and materially stressful conditions are particularly significant in reducing the amount of affection and the warmth mothers can show to children. Parents’ child-rearing methods will be or can be limited by a host of extraneous circumstances which determine the time and resources at the disposal of the parent. For example, the relative material poverty of the parent makes it difficult or impossible to provide certain kinds of support for the children’s demands. Socialization experiences of the children do not equip

them with the characteristics which lead to success at school and work. Wilson cited by Allen Tim (1990: 34), explains the children's language is less likely to be developed when they have to spend much time out of their parents' company, because of the constraints of over-crowding and time spent on the struggle to survive. The lack of toys, the absence of constructive play experiences, the non-availability of books, all can retard the development of social and intellectual skills which are prerequisites for success at school. It is not that children are innately less intelligent than others but rather that they lack the cues and stances which outside institutions will interpret as meaning the possession of ability. Consequently, the children have little prospect of breaking away from the life of poverty in which they are raised.

He further mentioned that his concern is mainly about the way young children are treated at home. According to him, it is now timely to consider what happens at school. Educational success is often regarded as the escape route from poverty. Yet the children of the poor do not generally do well at school. In the past, these failures have often been attributed solely to the lack of parental stimulation and interest as though they deliberately withheld their support. Poverty leads to child-rearing methods which place children at a disadvantage at school when compared with those from more affluent backgrounds. Further, children may have difficulties in completing homework in overcrowded and noisy homes. There is evidence that parents, although interested in education, may keep their children at home, if they cannot afford clothing or bus fares. In these ways, the existence of poverty becomes the barrier to educational advancement. The children's performances can be regarded – sometimes wrongly – by teachers as meaning a lack of ability and interest. In turn, the children underestimate themselves and

behave accordingly. Children and parents become progressively disillusioned with education.

Holman (1978: 233-234) mentioned that a present tendency is to exhort parents to improve their children's attainment by changing their child-rearing methods. But such changes are unlikely unless the social deprivations are first tackled. The finding that the children tended to fare badly at school could have led to the accusation that the mothers lacked the capacities to stimulate and motivate their offspring. If social deprivations were held constant, then the children's performance would be on par with others. In other words, the mother's poverty was the cause of their children's lack of attainment. After school, the children of the poor seek an occupation. Obviously, the range of the jobs open to them is limited by their lack of achievement at school. Even so, the continuing influence of social deprivation poses yet further disadvantages, for instance, the ill-health which afflicts the poor more heavily than other groups can tell against job security,, performance and advancement. After a record on non-achievement at school, the poor tend to obtain unskilled jobs. Ill-health, boredom and redundancies can lead to a high turnover rate of jobs. Yet the very record of many jobs make it more difficult to obtain a better position. Poverty affects childhood, school performance, job attainment and family life. Deprivation of insecurity produces lower-working class orientations which in turn lead to the building of large families – hence most poor families have many children. Large families mean more mouths to feed and so poverty follows. Again, the instability of domicile arose from circumstances which were not of their choosing. The inability to pay rent, landlords wanting the property, the demolition of the dwelling and disagreements while living with other relatives were prominent reasons for moving home. The result could be that not only did the family become regarded as

unstable and fickle, but its members themselves could accept the judgment as valid. The insecure and unsettled pattern of life is mostly identified amongst families who generally stayed together. More extreme instability is sometimes reflected in marital break-ups. Of course, family separations sometimes result from psychological interactions which have nothing to do with material circumstances. However, it is worth mentioning that in an authoritative review of the literature, Chilman, as cited by Holman (1978: 234), concludes that poverty creates conditions of family stress which threaten the life of a marriage. The stress can produce tensions which are harmful to children or, ultimately, lead to the separation of husband and wife. Holman further mentioned that unsupported mothers or lone fathers are particularly liable to poverty. Thus the initial social deprivations provoke a situation which only intensifies poverty. The poor frequently exhibit patterns of child care, attitudes towards education and employment, and family behavior which will alienate teachers, employers and even society at large. Consequently, their poverty is made more intense, the prospects of improvement less likely.

2.4 GUIDELINES FOR CREATING A MORE CONDUCTIVE ENVIRONMENT FOR RURAL SCHOOL LEARNERS

A possible response to this situation is the establishment of resource study centers in rural areas. These centers could link into educational resource networks which facilitate rural-rural and rural-urban links, providing communities with a means of getting information about wider developments as well as relevant educational materials, particularly youths. (Matlhasedi, Vol. 10, No. 1, December 1991: 12)

On the other hand, Griffiths (1980: 17), argues that rural schools must follow very much the same syllabi and rules as urban schools and there must be and must be seen to be an equal chance for rural boys and girls to move up the educational ladder according to their ability, but rural signs, rural studies, practical agriculture should be taught as alternatives to some of the regular items in the syllabus. In this way those who did not succeed in getting white-collar jobs would at least be partially prepared to take part in the improvement of rural life and they could continue their agricultural training in special schools for such. Although the rural people's standard of living may not be as high as the urban's, their needs are as deserving of attention.

In addition, the issue of nutrition and school feeding schemes have received scant attention within the context of debates on post-apartheid rural education and development. It has long been recognized that a diet which has an over-dependence on mealie-pap in combination with lack of protective foods high in necessary proteins, minerals and vitamins results in malnutrition and vulnerability to disease which is common to rural pupils. School feeding schemes which provide balanced nutritional meals could go a long way towards preventive health care in rural areas. This would have positive outcomes in schools as learners are more likely to realize their full potentials when freed from hunger and malnourishment.

Rural schools in themselves represent potential resources for food production which could meet the nutritional requirements of pupils. Through the allocation of arable land allotments to rural schools, self-sufficiency in production of fruit and vegetables should be feasible. This could be encouraged by state subsidy or boreholes, agricultural implants, seeds and fertilizers (Matlhasedi, Vol. 10, No. 1

December 1991: 14). However, one should note that there is going to be a problem with this approach because of the attitude of the pupils to manual work as part of the school curriculum. Furthermore, rural schools should not only concentrate on theoretical work, but also on practical work.

The difficulties experienced by pupils in rural schools emanate from the poor conditions and other unmet needs in the community, the school and in their homes. Those conditions when combined, form a situation which affects the pupil's behavior at school. Therefore any social work intervention in rural schools should take cognisance of this situation (Matlhasedi, Vol. 10, No. 1 December 1991:14).

2.4.1 Integrated Nature of Development

De Beer (1997: 6-10), postulates that development is not regarded as modernization, industrialization or the breaking of the dependency syndrome between third and first worlds. These are macro-views of development that do not take a closer look at the real issues concerned with development. To us, development is the opposite of poverty. In other words, development addresses the poverty of people. The macro-views of development mentioned above will also claim to address poverty, but only in a very indirect way. It is hoped that eventually the poor will benefit from modernization and industrialization. However, when we look at the poverty of people, we realize that it is more complex than one might think. This poverty cannot be regarded as a lack of money only, but manifests itself in many things such as malnutrition, morbidity and illiteracy. We agree with the view that became prominent in the middle 1970's that development should first and foremost address all these manifestations of poverty (Islam and Henault, 1979: 260) as cited by de Beer (1997: 43).

Development must therefore be targeted directly at these negative aspects. If we agree that development is there to break down poverty, we must also agree that development cannot be sectoralized. A person who has a need for health services invariably also has a need for other basic needs such as education, a balanced diet, shelter and employment. We have realized in other sections that poverty touches the whole human being. If we accept that development is the way to address this poverty, it is clear that it cannot concentrate on one single need. Development also cannot address one single need separately, as if they are separate entities. Which parts of a human being needs nutrition – only the stomach? The whole body needs nutrition, especially the brain, otherwise the human being cannot make use of educational opportunities. That is why we say that the human being is a whole and that you cannot address human needs separately.

Development is not only the development of an area or of things such as roads and railways, but is also a total life transformation. The entire development process has a human and emotional quality and function (Cohen and Uphoff, 1980: 216) as cited by de Beer (1997: 43). Development entails the liberation of human beings (Oakley and Marsden, 1984: 10) cited by de Beer (1997: 43). But from what must they be liberated? People are entrapped in poverty and it is poverty from which they need to be freed. We must accept the wholeness of the human being with his/her environment. The human being is not only in the environment, but is an integrated part of that environment. Because of this, poverty affects the whole human being and his/her environment. Poverty impacts in a very specific way on the environment.

Baltemus (1986: 20) cited by de Beer (1997: 44) describes this impact well: Degradation and depletion of land/soil, water and forests are thus the outstanding

environmental problems of developing countries. The inability of bio-productive systems to produce sufficient food for rapidly growing populations is the cause of perhaps the greatest scourge of mankind – hunger and malnutrition.

Poverty therefore becomes an all-encompassing situation. If development wants to address this situation, it must also be all-encompassing. In other words, development must be holistic.

2.4.2 Integrated Rural Development

According to Cloke and Park (1985: 387-388), integrated rural development puts a major emphasis on the eradication of poverty, by meeting the basic needs of the entire population of the rural areas through an increase in production, and where necessary, a redistribution of productive assets. Meeting the basic needs of rural people is achieved on the basis of economic growth: agricultural growth is generated through an increase in the total employment capacity and an increase in the efficiency of production; an institutional support system is provided for marketing, information and community services, rural industrialization is prompted so as to provide employment; and urban decentralization into a system of rural towns is secured.

2.4.3 Primary Health Care

According to de Beer (1997: 10), primary health care is based on practical, scientifically sound and socially acceptable methods and technology made universally accessible to individuals and families in the community through their full participation and at a cost that the community and the country can afford. It

forms an integral part of the country's health system of which it is the nucleus and of the overall social and economic development of the country. It has the added advantage that it is preventive health care and because health influences all the other sectors, it has an important role to play in socio-economic development.

The World Book Encyclopedia (1980: 649-650) contends that sociologists feel that poverty is the result of unequal opportunity. They regard it as a result of the political and economic system, which allows the rich and powerful to take advantage of others. They believe that poverty can be eliminated by a redistribution of wealth and political power. Therefore, they recommend the following:

- **Improving job opportunities.** Probably the most acceptable way to eliminate poverty is to make sure that there are enough jobs and that people are helped to qualify for them.
- **Elementary and Secondary Schools** provide young people with the basic skills they need to qualify for many jobs. However, a college education is needed for an increasing number of the economy's jobs. Many people believe it is wasteful to let students drop out of school because they lack the money to continue their education. Private and government scholarships and loans assist many needy and deserving students.
- **Vocational Training Programs to Help Reduce Poverty.** Some employers provide on-the-job training. Labor unions and private industry often jointly sponsor apprenticeship programs.

- **Social Welfare Assistance.** Poverty is a complex problem and cannot be solved by any single approach. For example, simply creating jobs will not help everyone escape poverty, because some persons are unable to work. The government's social welfare programs provide or add to the incomes of many persons. These programs provide cash payments and medical and other assistance to the retired, the unemployed, the disabled and handicapped, dependent children, and others in need.

In Umsebenzi (2002: 2), the former premier of Western Cape, Mr Peter Marais told Umsebenzi in an exclusive interview: "I believe that if we can alter the living standards of our people by reducing poverty, we will dramatically alter the cause of TB and other diseases. Poverty creates the ideal environment for sexually transmitted diseases (STD's) and TB to flourish. I realize this is a complex issue and fully appreciate that poverty reduction is multi-faceted. There is no quick-fix." To this end he instructed ministers to develop an indigent policy that must be reflected in the total budget framework of their respective portfolios. Ministers are addressing the issue of poverty, crime, unemployment and HIV/AIDS and have set practical mechanisms in motion to deal with them. The Legislature will fight AIDS and other diseases in a co-ordinated and comprehensive manner which includes the provision of antiretrovirals, lifestyle, intervention and sustained actions against poverty.

Wagner , cited by Zalewska (1993: 192) advocates that the Department of Social Services, Arts, Culture and Science, should therefore, analyze and diagnose permanently the needs of the children from rural areas in the domains of:

- improvement of their health and conducting resocialization.

- help to regain psychic and emotional balance.
- help in the situations of school problems.
- making up for the effects of social deprivations (i.e. housing conditions, educational attainments, etc.)
- initiation in and preparation for independent problem-solving.

According to Holman (1978: 28), the Child Poverty Action Group has put forward many suggestions. Firstly, that low earners should benefit from a new and reduced level of income tax. Secondly, that the government's new child benefit should be related to average earnings, say at 6.5 %. Thirdly, that the unemployed should be continuously eligible for national insurance benefits – rather than means – tested supplementary benefits – and that rates should be set at a reasonable ratio to average earnings. Fourthly, that the rates of all social security benefits should be reviewed three to four times a year in order to keep pace with inflation.

The above proposals, if implemented, would certainly alleviate poverty and , in some instances, would lead to greater social equality.

2.4.4 The Equilibrium of Poverty

Whether people are absolutely or relatively poor, some action needs to be taken to improve their position. Yet in practice poverty alleviation measures often lead to only short-term relief, after which the beneficiaries return to their previous balance or equilibrium of poverty.

Attempts at eradicating poverty may bring some relief, but soon the balance or equilibrium returns and the poor remain as poor as before (Galbraith, 1979: 46) cited by de Beer (1997: 3).

What seems plausible is real. The tendency of the rich country is to increasing income, the tendency of the poor country is to an equilibrium of poverty. And in each there is accommodation, in the one case to the fact of improvement, in the other the hopelessness of the prospect.

Galbraith (1979) cited by de Beer (1997: 3) argues that in a poor community or society any progress (in economic terms) is soon cancelled out – due, for example, to an increased birth rate or a natural disaster. Accordingly, the fruits of successful development, such as job creation, for example, are nullified by an uncontrolled increase in population numbers. These forces operate in such a way that they return the people to a situation more or less the same as before the “progress” of development. Improvements in the socio-economic position of a community/society are thus obliterated by some or other force operating in society. The poor community or society come to accept their poverty as normal – they accommodate their poverty as Galbraith puts it.

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Savings that might accrue from development aid are spent on means of survival and not invested in productive enterprises. A country may, for instance, invest development aid in the building of social infrastructure such as schools or hospitals, or the running of government (paying public service salaries) in which case no long-term interest will be earned or job opportunities created. A small-scale farmer may be granted a loan to buy farming equipment, but decide to spend it rather on school fees: no income is generated and the loan must be paid back. Once the surplus money of a household is depleted, it automatically returns to its previous level of subsistence; thus the equilibrium (balance) of poverty is restored.

Accepting this position is what is called accommodation of a culture of poverty (Galbraith, 1979:46) cited by de Beer (1997: 3).

2.4.5 Combating Social Deprivation

Any commitment towards countering relative deprivations will involve a commitment towards social equality. Equality is sometimes derided as wanting to make all people identical. Obviously, individuals cannot be exactly the same in terms of their personalities, appearance, talents and needs. This is not what is meant by equality. Equality implies the situation in which social conditions enjoyed by the state's various members are not so vastly different that they make it impossible for certain members to attain the advantages accruing to others.

As Richard Tawney, author of a masterpiece on equality, cited by Holman in Holman's book (1978: 250) pointed out, equality entails the promotion of each individual's uniqueness 'without regard to the vulgar irrelevancies of class and income'. As long as vast differences exist in terms of income, wealth, environmental conditions and power, then the socially deprived are unequal by virtue of their lack of material resources, their lack of means to obtain redress, their lack of educational attainment and occupational choice, and their lack of control over the constraints which shape their responses and behavior.

A recent annual series of Poverty Reports is attempting to hammer out more comprehensive blueprints. In one, Michael Young, cited by Holman (1978: 254) calls for higher family allowances, a new benefit for unsupported mothers, increased pensions, automatic rises in social security rates to keep pace with inflation, new methods of encouraging greater take-up of available services, and an administrative simplification of the maze of means – tested benefits. His colleague

Peter Willmott makes the threefold plea that the working poor be guaranteed a minimum wage of two thirds of average earnings; that this level be maintained so that gaps between them and the rest of the society would not grow; that higher benefits for non-workers – children, the retired, the unemployed – be also guaranteed at a fixed ratio to average earnings.

Social deprivation can also be combated by community action. Bryant cited by Holman (1978: 261) an academic and a community worker, has published an authoritative paper which defines community action as:

“ ... a particular approach to organizing local groups and welfare publics, an approach in which the political importance or powerlessness of these groups is defined as a central problem and strategies are employed to mobilize them for the representation and promotion of their collective interests.”

Writing in the same year as Bryant, Smith and Anderson, cited by Holman, (1978: 261) took community action to be:

“ Collective action by people who live near each other who experience either common or similar problems, which are usually those giving rise to a common sense of deprivation.”

Holman further mentioned that the meaning of **community action** may become clearer if three of its main characteristics are identified as follows:

Firstly a major objective is for the socially deprived to gain greater control over their environment, their neighborhood, their patterns of living. In practice this involves a greater contribution to, say, the manner in which their loyalty is developed, to what happens to their children, to the kind of housing they obtain, to the way in which they are treated by officials to any changes within the local social services. With reference to the social services, the emphasis is not simply on improvement but on improvements made at the instigation of those the services are supposed to serve.

Secondly, the greater control is associated with action by the deprived themselves. Community action usually occurs outside of statutory bodies. It involves the socially deprived themselves – local residents, welfare recipients, the low-paid – defining their needs, problems and solutions.

Thirdly, the greater control and grassroots involvement is associated with collective action. As individual tenants, clients, claimants, residents and applicants the deprived have very little influence when negotiating with landlords, local authorities, government departments and politicians. Action is therefore rooted in the belief that only by working collectively can progress be made. For instance, it was reasoned in one project that one tenant refusing to be re-housed into slum property by the local authority would have very little impact. But a hundred tenants declining to move would cause the authority to take notice.

Meyer, cited by Holman (1978: 277) agrees that ‘... it is primarily society and not the individual that is responsible for the social problems in our world’. She accepts that ‘...the solution to poverty is a more equitable distribution of money the solution to unemployment is jobs; the solution to illiteracy is education; and

the solution to discrimination is more opportunity'. Moreover, she acknowledges that the solutions will result only from political decisions. But, in her view, social workers cannot and should not contribute to radical change. They cannot because professions possess technical expertise but not '...the power to effect basic social change'. She thus concludes that social workers cannot, should not and will not be allowed to promote the profound changes needed to counter poverty. The role of social work is to 'individualize', to enable even the poor to realize that they are still unique individuals despite the complexity of urban living. The social worker must aim '... to enable people to command their own lives and destinies to the greatest extent possible in light of the isolating, technological, specialized, and hopelessly complex world in which they live...'

In the immediate situation, social workers can modify the impact of poverty by informing clients of their entitlements to certain welfare benefits, by advocating as a means of obtaining their dues, and by acting as 'brokers'.

Meyer, cited by Holman 1978:277) further mentioned that welfare rights is usually taken to cover the entitlement of low-income persons to statutory financial or material provisions (or exception from making payment for them). Important benefits are family income supplement, educational maintenance grants, rent and rates, rebates, free school meals, and exemption from certain health and dental charges. Evidence abounds to prove that many poor persons do not take up the very services for which they are eligible. Welfare rights activity essays to improve take-up by systematically informing people of their rights and encourage them to apply. The limitations of social work in regard to redressing poverty, however, should not be used as grounds for dismissing its value. Social work can be

justified on other grounds. Among its contributions, three are of particular importance.

Firstly, social work does prevent the break-up of some families. As conceded, it does not remove the social deprivations which handicap certain parents in coping with their children. But social-work skills and resources have been used to stop the process at the point where removal or abandonment is unavoidable. An obvious example is where social workers find day-care facilities to keep children at home rather than in institutions, while casework skills are used to enable parents to understand and control their attitudes towards their offspring. Social workers have contained delinquents within the community rather than in residential schools while, in regard to adults, they have lowered the re-conviction rates of ex-prisoners.

Secondly, social work does alleviate some of the destructive impacts of poverty. The support and sympathy offered to those condemned to long-term unemployment, the counseling given to the broken family, the holiday to the over-burdened mother, the play-groups arranged for the large family, may not touch the causes of their difficulties but they do make life easier. The researcher agrees with Meyer that social workers should help people survive and come through the immediate and worst effects of poverty. It is easy to dismiss their efforts as palliatives, yet the alternative may be to do nothing.

Thirdly, social work serves to humanize the meeting of human needs. Social work within the social services has replaced many of the functions of the old poor law. Instead of harshness, coldness and deterrence, it emphasizes empathy, consideration and prevention. Instead of a policy of disposing of the members of

needy families into separate forbidding buildings, social work has, in general, advocated the keeping of families together in the community. Social workers have made progress in establishing that statutory services can be conveyed to those in need in a dignified and skillful manner. At its best, social work helps to maintain family life, promotes a concern for individuals and engenders care about the distress of others.

2.4.6 Community Involvement

Roland and Cooper (1985: 12), cited by Chuenyane (1994: 50-51) contend that in order to make the environment a safe place to live in and limit risk factors for health, growing and development, there is need to involve everybody, teenagers in particular. Peer groups can play a useful role in encouraging environmental protection and healthy living habits. Children are to be involved in community development projects at grass-roots level and should be encouraged to engage in voluntary work. Children's groups represent a considerable and valuable resource for improving the health of our nation, especially that of children themselves. The family, the church and the school should instill a sense of love and belonging and the importance of health and sexuality education in every child. This attitude will cement the basic principles of healthy development and growing such as, basic personal hygiene, sanitation, nutrition, environmental health, good and safe behavior patterns and human sexuality in our youth, thus helping them to develop and grow mentally, physically and socially into responsible adults.

The environment in which our children grow, should be everybody's concern. Indeed the environment and health care should be seen as two sides of the same coin. They go hand in hand. As a pupil becomes involved in community projects,

ask yourself what you can do for the environment and your country, and not what the country can do for you, to borrow President J.F. Kennedy's words. Thus community participation in health related activities should be one of the pupils' priorities throughout their developmental stages.

Community involvement can improve communication between the adult population and pupils and thereby enabling our youth to become more aware of their human potential, which symbolizes mental and physical growth. This may result in our youth freely asking questions that address human sexuality. Consciousness and the drive to engage in health promoting behavior may arise. The involvement of the youth coupled with government's genuine commitment to Health for All, to eradicating and overcoming poverty, illiteracy, teenage pregnancy and other social inequalities may help save millions of lives and also help prevent and/or eliminate social environmental problems that destroy our youth – the future leaders of our communities. However, we can only succeed if health is considered a high priority. We should love health and lead healthy lives. One cannot help but agree with Roland and Cooper (1985) cited by Chuenyane (1994: 50), that if the environmental hazard to which we are exposed is removed, good health will be maintained and illnesses prevented. We can control the environment and thereby minimize the risks. By adopting healthy living habits and attitudes we can eradicate poverty, ignorance and disease. We can also increase our life-span and enhance self-fulfillment.

2.5 SUMMARY

Education is one of the most important social factors that influence our lives in general and our growth, development and health in particular. It plays a decisive role in the improvement in the standard of quality of life (Milio, 1975, cited by Chuenyane 1994: 51).

With reference to the topic under discussion, the problems pertinent to rural education are many, ranging from lack of proper facilities, inaccessibility of the school, poverty, unemployment, health problems, lack of cooperation from parents, undernourished children, high drop-out rate and absenteeism.

Furthermore, most rural areas are far from urban centers and thus many pupils walk long distances to and from school daily, and this means walking in rainy, sunny, windy and scorching sun, which in turn is detrimental to the health of such learners.

Most diseases suffered by people in developing countries are preventable and can be successfully treated. However, prevention presupposes a certain amount of knowledge and information. This is the reason why education should be treated as a top priority. Illness affects the way we behave and perceive ourselves and others. It determines our attitudes towards life and the extent to which our goals will be realized (De Haan, 1988, cited by Chuenyane 1994: 53).

Most families in rural areas are large and consist of many children. This means many mouths need a great deal of food and the poor family might have too little

income to provide properly for this basic need. Also, many members in the family, may mean more noise, which might be more disturbing to the learning child.

Most teachers are not part of the community they work in or teach in, they are just there for work, they commute on daily basis, and learners from rural areas are not helped in times of dire need. Furthermore, rural area have largely been unable to attract well qualified teachers because of lack of proper housing and a lack of good transport service.

In conclusion, rural situation can change if all the stakeholders including government join hands to help rural areas, and when they are involved in community development projects to assist and curb the conditions under which learners in the rural areas live and learn.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 3 outlines the method of study. It explains the rationale behind the methodology employed, how the research was conducted and the steps taken to ensure the validity and reliability of the study. The aim of the study as stated in Chapter 1, is to explore the rural socio-economic circumstances that may have an influence on the learning abilities of the children.

3.2 METHODOLOGY

According to Mitchel (1997: 129), methodology refers to the techniques or a particular discipline used to manipulate data and acquire knowledge. McKendrick (1990: 249) further states that methodology is a formal application of systematic and logical procedures to guide an investigation.

3.2.1 Research Design

Huysamen (1993: 10) in Devos (1998: 77) defines research design as: “the plan or blueprint according to which data is collected to investigate the research hypotheses or questions in the most economic manner.”

The research design that is used for this study is the exploratory/descriptive design. According to Collins in McKendrick (1990: 250), descriptive research design

include both quantitative and qualitative description of the phenomena and investigation. Babbie (1979: 120) defines descriptive design as the precise measurement and reporting of the characteristics of some population or phenomenon under study. Its purpose is to describe situations and events.

The design was chosen because the researcher mapped out the territory, defined the limits and described the phenomenon or situation. She selected a specific event/behavior and made observations and records of the phenomenon.

Characteristics will be described, what is it to be measured, and adequate measures for measuring it will be found. It purposes to explore and define, as well as to establish relationships between variables.

When using descriptive design, different steps such as formulating the objectives of the study, designing the methods of data collection, selecting a sample, collecting, processing, analyzing the data, and reporting the findings are essential. According to Seaman (1987: 181), with the exploratory/descriptive design, the researcher plans either to assemble new information about an unstudied phenomenon or to take a new look at old data. The purpose is to obtain new knowledge by describing, comparing, and classifying observations and by inventing concepts to stand for what previously may have been unorganized or unrelated observations or data.

The exploratory and descriptive designs have a number of advantages. First, the researcher assembles a broad range of data with a richness of details that has not been available before. Second, by describing, comparing and classifying data, the researcher gains a holistic view – the patterns and processes may be comprehended as a whole. Third, the researcher may be able to move from observation and

description to classification and then to conceptualization. Fourth, in the process of analyzing the descriptive data, the researcher may be able to telescope the stages of research, moving from description of data to an empirical generalization – a statement of a purposive relationship between two concepts (Seaman, 1987: 185).

3.2.2 Methods of Data Collection

3.2.2.1 Literature Studies

Literature review include recent publication of journals, newspapers and magazines, and will go back as far as is consistent with the nature of the problem chosen to familiarize the researcher with the past studies, that are pertinent to the one being planned (Grinnel, 1998: 448). Through using literature review, the researcher will be able to see how far other researchers have gone on the topic under study. Chapter 2 gives a detailed report on this type of data collection.

3.2.2.2 Experience Surveys

The researcher spoke to experienced people, for example, educators, school managers and experienced people in general, in order to collect information on the topic under study. For this purpose, interview schedules were used for educators and parents.

3.2.2.3 Research Instruments

➤ Structured Interview

The structured interview is the one in which the content and procedures are organized in advance. This means that an interview schedule is prepared whereby the pattern to be followed, the wording of questions, instructions and the method of coding are detailed (Behr, 1988; Gal 1989) cited by Mokgosi (1999: 49).

According to Legotlo (1996b) cited by Mokgosi (1999: 46), the questionnaire and individual interview are the most common instruments for collecting data. The interview is a direct method of obtaining information in a face-to-face situation (van Dalen, 1979) cited by Mokgosi (1999: 46). The interview has advantages and disadvantages.

The reason for employing this tool in this study is because of the following advantages (Borg & Gall, 1989); Ary et al.,1990); McMillan & Schumacher (1993) cited by Mokgosi (1999: 47):



- It involves the collection of data through direct verbal interaction between individuals.
- It is flexible and adaptable: can be used in different problems and types of persons.
- Has control over environment: there is assurance that the researcher and respondents will be able to conduct this privately.

- It helps build a positive relationship between the interviewer and the respondent.
- The control that the interviewer has over the order with which the questions are considered.
- The interviewer can record or take note of spontaneous answers.
- The question can be repeated or their meaning explained in case they are not understood by the respondent.

Like other strategies or techniques for data collection, an interview has some disadvantages (van Dalen, 1979; Borg and Gall, 1989); Behr (1988) and Ary et al., 1990) cited by Mokgosi (1999: 48), such as:

- Its potential for subjectivity and bias, the respondent may be eager to please the interviewer.
- No standard wording – each respondent is not exposed to exactly the same wording.
- Its higher cost and time-consuming nature.
- It is often difficult to be arranged
- The respondent may be uncomfortable in the interview and unwilling to report the feelings, and

- It has lesser assurance of anonymity.

The researcher chose the structured interview because:

- She is likely to get more responses from the sample selected.
- The structured interview is characterized by open-ended questions. This means that there are no restrictions on either the content or the manner of the interviewee's reply.
- The structured interview allows the researcher to probe so that she may go into more depth or clear up any misunderstandings, and
- Co-operation and mutual understanding is encouraged between the researcher and the respondent (Cohen and Manion, 1989 cited by Mokgosi, 1999: 49).

➤ **Conducting the Interview**

The researcher established rapport with the interviewees. This was done *inter alia* by putting the respondents at ease through gaining their confidence and conveying to them the impression that they were in possession of information or knowledge which was needed for the research and which no one else could give (Behr, 1988 cited by Mokgosi, 1999: 50). Now, the researcher found it easy to conduct the interview because the researcher was an educator at the school where the research was conducted, and is familiar with the staff members.

When conducting an interview, the interviewer must be pleasant, i.e. he/she must be a good listener and avoid interjections except if essential to clarify a point. Furthermore, he/she must not be distracted by irrelevancies, and he/she must avoid giving any hints by his/her facial expressions, tone of voice or use of implied questions which suggest the answer he would prefer to be given, (McMillan & Schumacher, 1993 cited by Mokgosi, 1999: 50)

➤ **Recording the Interview Data**

According to Behr (1988) and McMillan and Schumacher (1993) cited by Mokgosi (1999: 50), a record of the replies of the interviewees must be kept. It is possible to do this by taking down full written notes during the interview, but this is time-consuming and can affect the relationship and free-flow of conversation between interviewer and interviewee. Borg & Gall (1989) cited by Mokgosi (1999: 50), argue that note-taking method after the interview is unsatisfactory because it may disrupt the effectiveness of the communication between the interviewer and the respondents. The use of a tape recorder is undoubtedly the most convenient method of recording the interview. The tape recording provides not only a complete and accurate record of the entire interview, but also preserves the emotional and vocal character of the responses. The tape-recorded data can be replaced more than once and studied much more thoroughly (Behr, 1988; Borg & Gall, 1989 cited by Mokgosi, 1999: 5).

The researcher wrote notes to gather information from respondents during the interview. All the relevant information needed according to objectives of this study was gathered with full co-operation from the respondents.

According to Legotlo (1996) cited by Mokgosi (1999: 50), interviewing is a skill which requires training and practice. A researcher must observe a skilled interviewer before he uses the interview technique. Debate and argument are quite out of place in a research interview. Questions that are easily understood should be phrased and put one at a time. A letter of thanks should be directed to the test subject after an interview (Behr, 1988 cited by Mokgosi, 1999: 50).

According to Brink (1996: 157), the interview is a method of data collection in which an interviewer obtains responses from a subject in a face-to-face encounter or through a telephone call or electronic means. Interviews are the most direct method of obtaining direct facts from the respondents. They can also be useful in ascertaining values, preferences, interests, tasks, attitudes, beliefs and experiences.

➤ **Format and Content of the Interview**

The interview section was divided into two sections (see Appendix A).

Section A: Question 1– 4. The purpose of these questions was to gather demographical information about each respondent. The information is essential to gain a picture of the profile of the respondents.

Section B: Question 5 - 9. The purpose of these questions was to gather information about challenges facing the school since 2000 and recommended solutions as to how these challenges may be overcome.

➤ **Pre-testing the Interview Schedule**

According to Borg and Gall (1989) cited by Mokgosi (1999: 52), a careful pilot study is the best insurance which the researcher has against bias and flaws in design. A pilot study offers the researcher to evaluate and improve the guide and the interview procedure before any research data for the main study are collected.

The pilot study also gives the interviewer an opportunity to evaluate his/her methods of recording the interview data, to determine whether adequate information is being recorded, whether the recording method causes excessive breaks in the interview situation, and whether the mechanisms of reporting can be improved (Borg and Gall, 1989 cited by Mokgosi, 1999: 52).

In order to determine any ambiguity and flaws, the interview schedule was pre-tested using a sample of six, i.e. (4 parents and 2 educators). The 6 respondents were asked to comment on other points that might need to be considered to improve the instrument (Borg and Gall, 1989 cited by Mokgosi, 1999: 52). The pre-test results were examined and the suggestions made by the respondents were taken into consideration to improve the interview. The population of the pre-test was not used in the final study. Final interview schedule was administered to 5 educators and 10 parents.

➤ **Final Structured Interview**

The final structured interview was conducted to 5 educators and 10 parents. The school is so small that there is no Deputy Principal and Head of Department. The roll is usually less than 150 since the school opened in 1996.

➤ **Analyzing an Interview Schedule**

Typical steps are coding for themes and categories, and making memos about the context and variations in the phenomenon under study, verifying the selected themes through reflection on the data and discussion with other researchers or experts in the field, refining the categories, recording of support data for categories and the identification of propositions. Coding and categorizing are generally initiated as soon as data collection begins. Coding is used to organize data collected in an interview and other types of documents. The reliability of the coding could be checked by having another person encode the same data and by checking for agreement. Some researchers validate findings with their subjects and/or other forms of evidence. Developing categories is facilitated through the use of either manual or computer activity. Manual analysis involves a thorough review of all recorded information that the researcher has obtained during the cause of data collection. If sufficient space is left on the margin, the coding of data can take place on the page itself. Coding involves inventing and applying a category system (Brink,1996: 192).

In analyzing an interview, the researcher used the following ways (Cohen and Manion, 1989 cited by Mokgosi, 1999: 55).

- Listened to the interview tape recorder. The researcher listened to the entire tape several times and read the transcription a number of times, in order to provide a context for the emergence of specific units of meaning and themes.
- Delineated units of meaning relevant to the research question. The researcher scrutinized both verbal and non-verbal gestures to elicit the participants' meaning. The researcher crystallized and condensed what the respondents had said and used as much as possible the literal words of the participants. The researcher also noted and reduced the units of meaning relevant to the question.
- Clustered units of relevant meaning. The researcher wrote to determine whether the units of relevant meaning cluster together and whether there are common themes or essence which unite several discrete units of relevant meaning.
- Writing a composite summary. The researcher wrote a composite summary of all the interviews which capture the essence of the phenomenon being investigated.

3.3 Population and Sampling

According to Brink (1996: 136), the following are characteristics of simple random sampling (SRS):

- It involves a one stage selection process.

- Its subject or object has an equal and independent chance of being drawn, and
- The study or accessible population can be identified and listed.

To start with sampling, the following steps are followed:

- Define the population.
- Create a sample frame.
- Calculate the sample size.
- Assign a consecutive identification number to each element in the sampling frame.
- Select a technique of randomization and select your subjects.

There are various techniques of selecting randomly. The most common are:

- Placing the numbers or names in a bowl or hat and drawing out the numbers one at a time (the fishbowl technique),
- Using a table of random numbers, or
- Using a compute-generated selection of random numbers.

When using the fishbowl technique, the following steps should be followed:

- Write each name or number from the sampling frame (list) on a separate slip of paper. If your defined study population consists of all senior professional nurses in hospital X, and there are 100 on the personnel list, you would write out 100 slips.

- Put the slips into the fish bowl, hat or other container.
- Draw a slip, note the name or number, replace the slip, shake the bowl and select a second, and so on, until you have the required number according to the sample size which you calculated.

Note that you must replace each name after each selection. This is to ensure that each participant has an equal and independent chance of being selected each time. When this approach is used, each of the 100 names has 1/100 chance of being selected each time. This is called random sampling with replacement. If the slip is not returned to the bowl, each participant does not have an equal and independent chance of being selected. This is called random sampling without replacement.

The researcher chose simple random sampling (SRS) to select her interviewees, i.e. 5 teachers, 10 parents. All the names of the teachers (i.e. 8 of them) and parents (22) were written and put in a container, the container was shaken and the researcher picked one until she reached her target number. The researcher replaced each name after each selection – i.e. random sampling with replacement, this is done in order to ensure that each participant has an equal and independent chance of being selected each time. Each of the 30 names had 1/30 chance of being selected each time. All the chosen subjects were then interviewed.

3.3.1 Administrative Procedure

Permission for access to the school was first secured from the principals. The researcher never encountered problems because the researcher was an educator there. So both principals (from primary and secondary) including the educators, were willing to help since they were informed about the importance of this endeavour.

The researcher visited the schools and explained the objectives of the study and the nature of the data to be collected. Most of them expressed their full co-operation, though some voiced out the concern that educators do not respond to questionnaires nor interviews. But, through positive motivation from the principals, the necessary co-operation was promised by the parents and educators.

3.4 Personally Administered Questionnaires

3.4.1 Definition of Questionnaire

According to Brink (1996: 154), a questionnaire refers to a self-report instrument where the respondent writes his or her answers in response to printed questions on a printed document. A well-designed questionnaire is easy for the respondent to fill out, and is easy for the researcher to administer and score. Yet a good questionnaire is difficult to develop. Each aspect, from the items themselves to the color of the paper used, can influence the responses of the respondents.

The researcher prepared questionnaires for high school learners, and systematic random sampling was used to select the elements. The researcher's sample size is

20 learners, which will be discussed under “sampling” in the text. The school roll is 100 learners, with 25 Grade 7’s, 22 Grade 8’s, 25 Grade 9’s and 28 Grade 10’s. The questionnaires included questions that eventually gave answers to the objectives under study, and to answer the hypotheses formulated, and the general feeling of the subjects about the topic under study. The following types of questions are included in the questionnaire:

Opinion and attitude questions, because they deal with the feelings, beliefs, ideas, misconceptions and presuppositions of respondents relating to the areas of inquiry. Opinions are those which seek to determine what one thinks or feels at a particular point in time about a particular subject (An example of the questionnaire is attached in Appendix B).

The construction of a questionnaire requires thought, planning and testing. The researcher formulated clear, unambiguous questions, and arranged them in the proper order, and organized the questionnaire so as to make taking data from it as easy and as accurate as possible. The questionnaire comprises of the following elements: covering letter, instructions to respondents, questions, response categories and pre-coding, demographic data, and inducement to respond. The questions are the heart of the questionnaire. The researcher depends upon the questions to collect information about the research problem. Therefore, the questions were carefully examined and tested for the following: appropriateness, content, wording and order.

Research has been called the art of asking the right question. How to phrase the question, whom to ask, who should do the asking, where to ask, and how to record the answer are all part of this art. Asking, the method examined here, is a universal

way to find out about something. What generally distinguishes the research question from other kinds of questions is that information is being sought to help solve a carefully formulated problem, the wording is clear and specific, the respondents are believed to represent a representative sample, and responses are amenable to systematic classification and analysis (Polansky, 1975: 131). Brink (1996: 55) further mentioned the advantages and disadvantages of using questionnaires as the following:

3.4.2 Advantages

- The questionnaire is far less expensive to administer.
- It can be sent through the mail and reach respondents in a wide geographic area, nationally or even internationally.
- It can also be distributed to groups of almost any size – for example, in classes, meetings or audiences.
- The standardization of the instrument makes it possible to pre-code answers, and this results in ease of tabulation.

3.4.3 Disadvantages

- Unless the form is given to a captive group such as a college class, there is a problem of response rates.
- A mailed questionnaire will not get a high rate of return unless there is a strong incentive for the respondent to comply.
- The pre-coded form, is good for reliability, but gives no opportunity for respondents to explain answers or to introduce new ideas. Depth may thus be sacrificed for specificity.

- Ability to complete the self-administered form depends on the literacy of the respondent.

The researcher used personally administered questionnaires to 20 learners as a method of data collection concerning the problem under study - (An example of a questionnaire is attached in Appendix B).

3.5 Sampling

3.5.1 Definition of Sampling

According to Reid (1993: 109), sampling can be used in a whole variety of research designs to select those entering a randomized clinical trial, to select study groups within. A sample refers to those members of a population on whom measurement of some characteristics have been made (Hardyck and Petriochich, 1975: 79 cited by Reid, 1993: 109). The general purpose of sampling is to obtain information on a small number of individuals which can be generalized to a larger aggregate (population) from which the sample comes.

According to Seaman (1978: 233), sampling is the process by which the study subjects or objects are chosen from a larger population. Sampling is a crucial part of the research process, since the methods of sampling determines whether or not the study sample represents the entire population from which it was drawn. If the sample does represent the entire population, the findings from the sample can be generalized to the population. If not, the findings apply only to the sample studied.

According to Polansky (1975: 93), sampling is a powerful tool in social research. A sample is a group of subjects selected from a larger group and including less than all the subjects in that larger group. Sampling procedures not only make it possible to secure information about a large number of subjects without studying all of them, they also make it possible to know how much confidence one can have that the information gathered is similar to the information that would have been gathered if one had studied everyone in the larger group. To an extent, the sample is like or unlike the larger group from which it is drawn, it is said to be more or less representative of that group. Sampling obviously has to do with the scientific aim of generalizing.

3.5.2 Types of Sampling

The researcher opted for probability sampling where she used systematic sampling. In probability sampling, all the elements have an equal chance of being selected. In systematic sampling, every n th element is drawn from a list of the entire survey population, and elements will be selected through intervals. Systematic sampling ensures greater accuracy, because the sample is a representative of the population. The sample reduces variability, it is easier to be put into practice, and can be statistically more efficient. The researcher targeted 35 respondents who are 5 educators, 20 high school learners and 10 parents who were contacted at the researcher's former place of work. The questionnaires were only administered to 20 learners who represented a sample.

According to Polansky (1975: 104), in systematic random sampling, subjects or sampling units are selected sequentially from a list, at some fixed interval, as, for example, every other applicant for service, every fifth card in the file, every tenth

name on a list. The starting point is determined by choice of a random number, the chosen interval is applied for selecting the second case, the third, and so on.

The size of the interval to be used depends on the size of the population and on how much chance one decides to give each case to be chosen. If one wants each element to have a one-in-ten chance of inclusion, the sample size is to be one-tenth of the population. Systematic sampling approximates randomization provided that the interval at which cases are to be picked has nothing to do with the question being studied.

According to Brink (1996: 138), systematic random sampling involves selecting elements at equal intervals, such as every fifth, eighth or twentieth element. The following procedure should be followed:

- Obtain a list of the total population (N). The elements of this list must be listed randomly.
- Determine the sample size (N).
- Determine the sampling interval (K) by dividing the size of the population by the size of the sample (N/K).
- Choose a random starting point. The best way to obtain this starting point is through a table of random numbers.
- Select the other elements or units based on the sampling interval. For example, if the population is 400, and the sample size is 80, the sampling interval is 5 ($400/80$). A number between 1 and 5 is randomly selected as starting number. Suppose that the first randomly selected number is 3, the next four subjects would be 8, 13, 18 and 23, etc.

When careful attention is paid to obtaining an unbiased listing of the population elements, and the first element is randomly selected, systematic sampling is classified as probability sampling. If either of the criteria is not met, non-probability sampling occurs.

The researcher chose the sample as follows:

From a selected high school, the researcher included Grade 7, 8, 9 and 10 learners.

- **Learners**

A list of all the learners was received from the principal's office. The total number of learners was 100. As the researcher decided to interview 20 learners, she made use of systematic random sampling. An interval of 5 was found whereas the starting point for the selection was determined by using random numbers.

- **Parents**

The second sample comprised of parents. In this regard, by means of simple random sampling, 10 parents were chosen to be interviewed.

- **Educators**

The last sample comprised of educators. Being a rural area with limited schooling facilities, 5 educators were selected by means of simple random sampling from both the high and primary school.

3.6 SUMMARY

In summary, both the questionnaire and the structured interview, were used as the main instruments in collecting data because of their advantages (cf. 3.4.3.1 and 3.4.4.2) and because the respondents, especially the educators, have long awaited the findings of this research, and they therefore responded with enthusiasm.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the researcher chose methods of organizing the raw data and displaying them in a fashion that will provide answers to the research questions. This phase or step is usually referred to as data analysis. Data analysis thus entails categorizing, ordering, manipulating and summarizing the data and describing them in meaningful terms. There are various analysis strategies or methods that can be used. At present, research studies generally use either narrative or statistical strategies in conjunction with graphic or pictorial strategies. The type of analysis strategy or method used depends on the research design, the types of variables, the method of sampling and the method by which the data were collected and measured. Data collected by a descriptive or qualitative research design, or from unstructured questions in other designs, often produce extensive qualitative data of considerable depth. The narrative strategy would be the strategy of choice for analyzing these data. Data collected by means of quantitative designs may use strategies to analyze data that qualitative analysis used and, in addition, may use statistical strategies (Brink, 1996: 179).

The presentation of data obtained from the study is descriptive statistics. According to Seaman (1987: 362-363), descriptive statistics (to calculate the central tendency and variance) is used for the topic under study. Descriptive statistics (such as the mean) summarizes research data from a sample. Descriptive statistics may be used whether or not random sampling has been used. Descriptive

statistics summarizes the unwieldy mass of raw data, transforming it into frequencies, means and other summaries that point out the characteristics of the sample. While of basic importance, such findings are usually limited to the sample under study, unless the process of random sampling has been used.

4.2 ANALYSIS OF DATA

The researcher used descriptive statistics to analyze data, because they convert and condense a collection of data into an organized, visual representation of data (a picture) in a variety of ways, so that the data have some meaning for the readers of research reports. A descriptive approach employs measures such as frequency distributions, measures of central tendency and dispersion or variability and measures of relationships (Brink, 1996: 179).

Data analysis comprised of the following respondents:

- Learners
- Parents
- Educators



The researcher restated objectives for clarity purposes.

- To determine the nature and extent of the detrimental circumstances (in rural areas) which may affect the learning abilities of children;
- To explore the extent, causes and effects of poverty in rural areas; and

- To device guidelines for creating a more conducive environment for rural school learners.

In addition to the objectives, it needs to be pointed out that rural schools complain about the scholastic abilities of their learners. Schools for the year 2002 indicated that they experience a high failure rate in their schools, for example, Tlapeng-Tshweu Secondary School reported a 62% failure rate in the year 2002 and anticipated an increase of 5% in the year 2003 due to the results of the appalling circumstances under which their learners live, while Itekeng, the neighbouring primary school, reported a 66% failure rate in the same year.

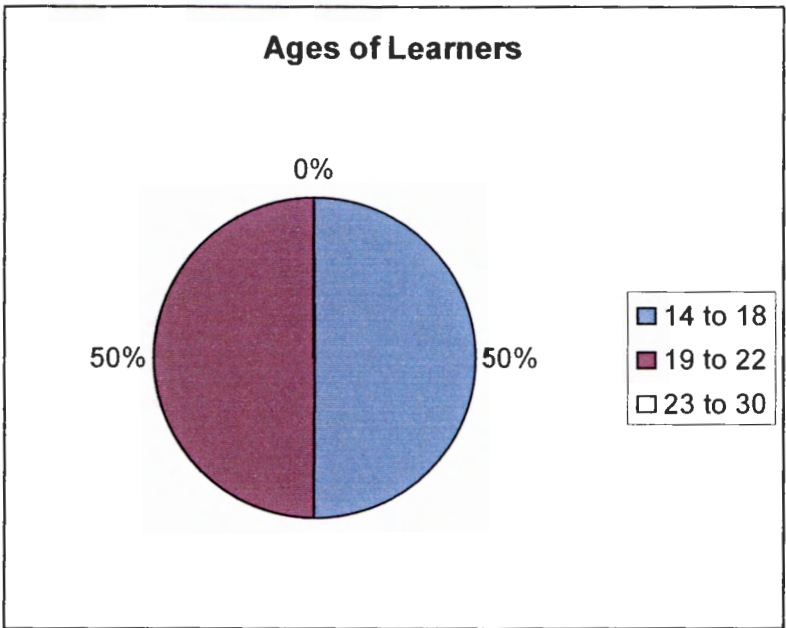
The purpose of this research is therefore to determine the reasons for this probable high failure rate of rural learners.

4.2.1 Learners

A sample was drawn from a greater number of learners to answer questionnaires about the topic under study, as they are the people who bear the brunt of the rural circumstances under which they live.

The following information illustrates the ages of learners interviewed.

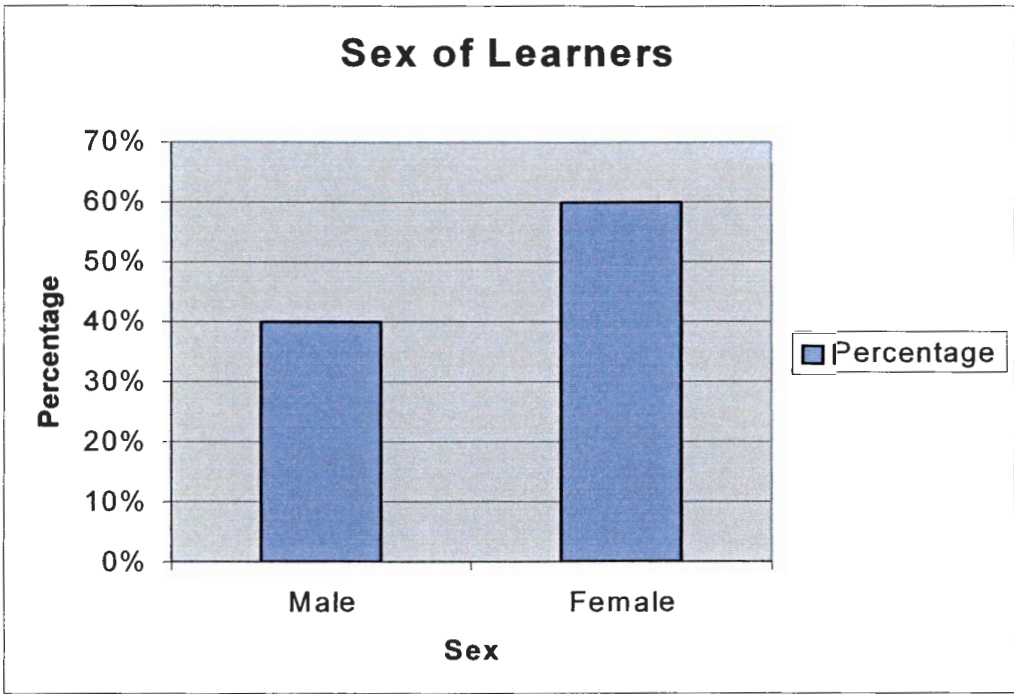
GRAPH 4.1



Most learners are teenagers and adolescents who experience physical, spiritual, emotional and psychological changes in their development. A growing mind and body needs proper nutrition and nurturing. But under the unfavourable circumstances in which they live (cf. Graph 4.5, 4.12 and 4.20), and the lack of a balanced diet which will stimulate growth and ultimately learning ability, no proper learning can take place.

The following information illustrates the sex of learners interviewed.

GRAPH 4.2



Most of the learners are girls, and if the unfavourable circumstances continue to exist for a long period, some of them may even indulge in sexual behaviors in an attempt to obtain more money and, consequently, become mothers at an earlier age. As Merton and Nisbet (1964) as cited by Chuenyane (1994: 72) say, “Illegitimacy occurs primarily in lower-class families, which are themselves unstable.” Here the inference is that disorganized families will bring disorganized children. This is typical of a child who for example has been raised in a ‘shebeen’ environment, where the mother encourages her daughter to serve beer and to entice men in order to get more customers. A girl in this environment tends to lose her self and be swallowed by the turmoil surrounding her. She lacks a proper model and parental supervision, the end product is looseness, lack of morals, and hence

indulging in sexual activities. When children grow up in families marked by parental conflict, they receive contradictory messages, especially about sex.

Such contradictions leave them confused, unclear about appropriate sexual values, and less capable of handling themselves in potential situations of abuse. They may be particularly vulnerable to older persons who entice them into sexual situations with offers of advice and instruction and assurance about the appropriateness of the behavior. Similarly, in families with much conflict or ones that have been disrupted, children are less well supervised and thus tend to find refuge in older men trying to make up for parental love.

Boys on the other hand, may resort to criminal activities that may ruin their lives, or may try to take the role of the father by dropping out of school in order to supplement the family's income. Individuals may be forced to discontinue their formal education at a young age to help supplement the family's income. In some instances, children leave their homes to earn a living on the street. When on the street, they do not attend school and in later years they have difficulty competing with their peers on the open labor market.

The following table illustrates the scholastic achievements of the learners' parents or guardians.

TABLE 4.3

Parents or guardians' educational achievements

	FREQUENCY	%
No schooling	3	15
Grade 1 to Grade 7	8	40
Grade 8 to Grade 9	4	20
Grade 10 to Grade 11	5	25
Grade 12 Diploma or Certificate	0	0
Post Matric Qualification	0	0
TOTAL	20	100

Education is one of the most important social factors that influence our lives in general and our growth, development and health in particular. It plays a decisive role in the improvement in the standard of quality of life. Owing to the fact that there seems to be a positive relationship between one's level of education and one's standard of quality of life, we can assume that the more educated a person is, the better are the chances of earning more and affording a higher quality of life (O'Connor (1991: 123) cited by Chuenyane(1994: 51).

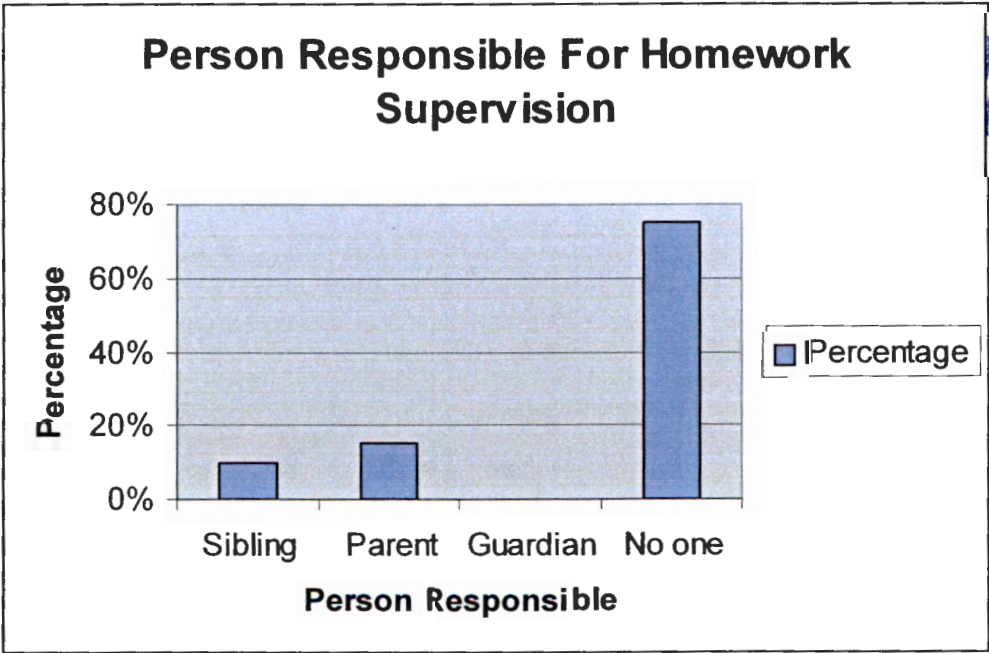
According to the above table, none of the parents or guardians completed Grade 12. 55% had no schooling or only primary school training. As a result, parents cannot support their children academically, and this in turn hampers the learners' scholastic achievements. Bezuidenhout (1998: 165 – 174) maintains that many workers, due to a low standard of education and training, are unable to compete for

a higher paid job. Often these workers are first to be retrenched in times of economic recession. Many come from families in which their parents cannot afford to give them an education or specific training opportunities, and it is necessary for them to work from a younger age to help supplement the family income.

Although there are some uneducated people whose quality of life is relatively high, the majority of the uneducated people struggle to make ends meet. Our health is influenced by our educational standard, social class and occupational groups to which we belong. As we know, access to, and attainment in education determine, by and large, the type of occupation, which, in turn, has a direct bearing on our income, growth, development and health, O'Connor (1991: 123) cited by Chuenyane (1994: 51).

The following graph indicates whether learners have someone responsible for helping them with homework.

GRAPH 4.4



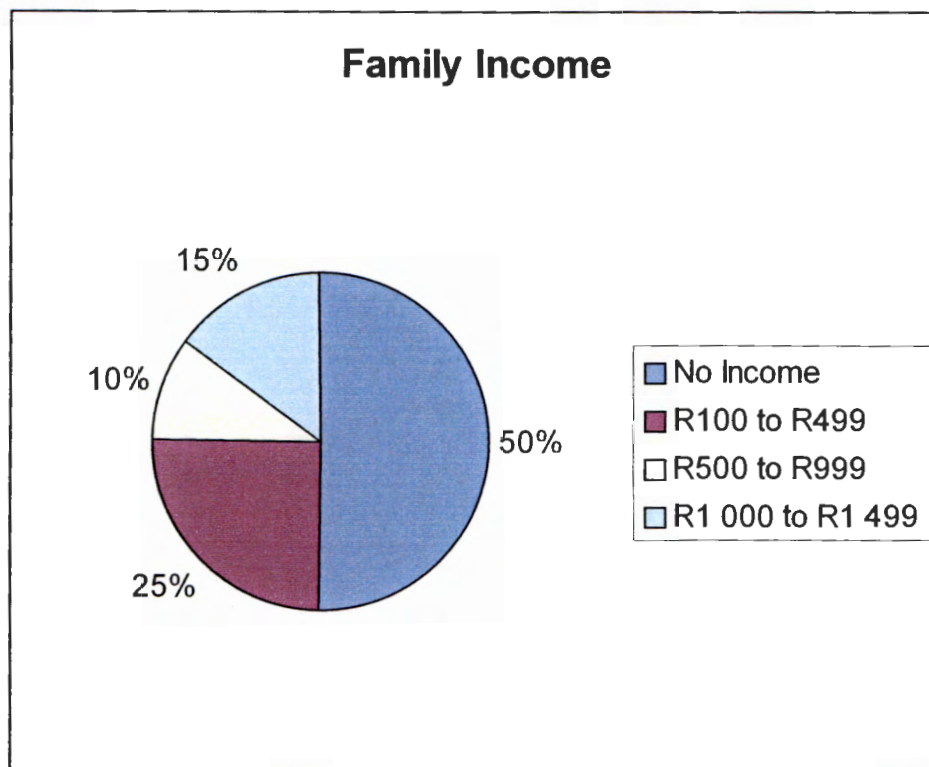
According to Wilson in Holman (1978: 28), educational success is often regarded as the escape route from poverty. Yet the children of the poor do not generally do well at school. In the past, these failures have often attributed solely to the lack of parental stimulation and interest as though they deliberately withheld their support. The responses showed that only 15% of the learners get supervision from their parents, and 75% receive no assistance at all which hampers their learning. This means that one cannot expect a high pass rate if most of the learners are not supervised while doing their homework. 40% of the parents have only gone up to Grade 7 (cf. table 4.3), while some have completed their schooling a long time ago under the apartheid regime and had a lower standard of education than their children, thus hindering them from helping their children who are now in the new era of learning under the new democratic government.

Rip (1978) cited by Chuenyane (1994: 73) contends that fathers and mother are compelled to leave their children to take up employment away from home. In most cases, absence of one or both parents deprive the children of proper parental guidance. This finally leads the children to finding ways of coping on their own and indulging in any kind of anti-social behavior. Homes such as these sometimes end up being meeting places for teenagers, or even breeding dens for prostitution.

“Many children also grow in social environments where both parents are absent because of the migrant labor system and they are left under the care of relatives mostly elderly people who know very little about formal education or lack the strength needed for involvement in the education of their grand-children” (Graaf 1987: 10 - 14).

The graph below illustrates the family's monthly income.

GRAPH 4.5



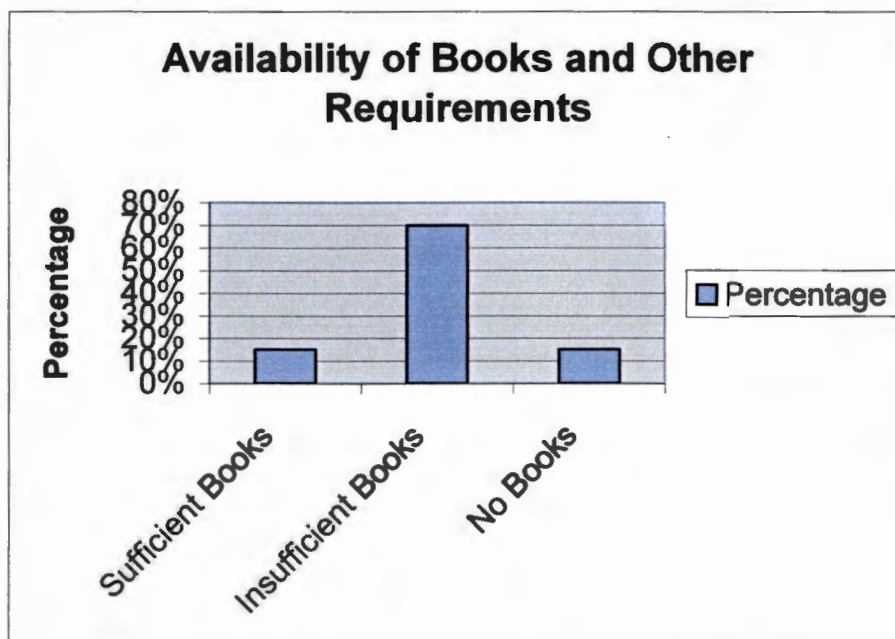
According to Bezuidenhout (1998: 165-174), an individual who finds it difficult to make ends meet, especially if he/she is the breadwinner, may have a low self-esteem. In some instances, such persons feel rejected or experience rejection by members of their families for being unable to secure a job or to provide in the needs of their families.

The above graph shows that 50% of the learners' parents are unemployed, and therefore do not earn an income, which makes it difficult for children to cope with learning and to improve their performance. In this regard, unemployment or lack of income suggests that there is insufficient food for the family (cf. graph 4.20),

which may also hamper the children’s ability to learn as it may cause concentration difficulties.

The following graph indicates whether the learners’ parents are able to afford school requirements or not.

GRAPH 4.6



Judging according to Graph 4.6, 70% received insufficient books for their schooling purposes, whereas 15% had no books to work with. Without the necessary books learners are hampered in preparing themselves properly in their schoolwork. For low income earners, it means that these parents have to spend more time at their job or on household tasks which leaves less time to spend with their children. They will have less money to spend on books, crayons, puzzles or outings to help their child’s development and to develop the skills which the school rewards (Zalewska, 1993: 192). This hampers the children’s ability to learn.

This is also stressed by Holman (1978: 28) when he says that the lack of toys, the absence of constructive play experiences, the non-availability of books, all can retard the development of social and intellectual skills which are prerequisites for success at school. It is not that children are innately less intelligent than others but rather that they lack the cues and stances which outside institutions will interpret as meaning the possession of ability. Consequently, the children have little prospect of breaking away from the life of poverty in which they are raised.

The following table indicates the available facilities in the community.

TABLE 4.7

Available facilities in the community

	FREQUENCY	%
Bus Service	20	100
Study Center	0	0
Library	0	0
Community Hall	0	0
Health Center	0	0
TOTAL	20	100

There is a 100% bus service as a means of transport. Even though there is a bus service, if the parents receive no or insufficient income, they cannot afford to pay for the high bus-fares. Another reason for them not using the available bus transport may be that rural people are more adapted to their situation, and besides not having transport fees, it seems to them that walking is a way of life and they enjoy doing it in groups, so to them it is not such a big deal.

Out of the 20 subjects, no one mentioned the availability of a health center in Tlapeng although a health center is available. This indicates that most people in Tlapeng do not regard the health center as functional due to a continued lack of medicines, lack of adequate and appropriate equipment and lack of adequate human resources. To the members of the community, the health center is just a white elephant and it seems as if they don't even know about its existence. The doctor visits once a week from Mafikeng, sometimes he doesn't avail himself, and the sick return home unattended. Emergency transport is rudimentary, which means that there is no quick access to emergency services when the need arises.

The following table indicates facilities available at the school.

TABLE 4.8

Facilities available at the school

	FREQUENCY	%
Sports equipment	2	10
Laboratory	0	0
Library	0	0
Classrooms	13	65
Electricity	0	0
Water	5	25
TOTAL	20	100

Apparently schools in rural areas are without important facilities for example, a library and a laboratory to enable learners to do experiments and research work, i.e

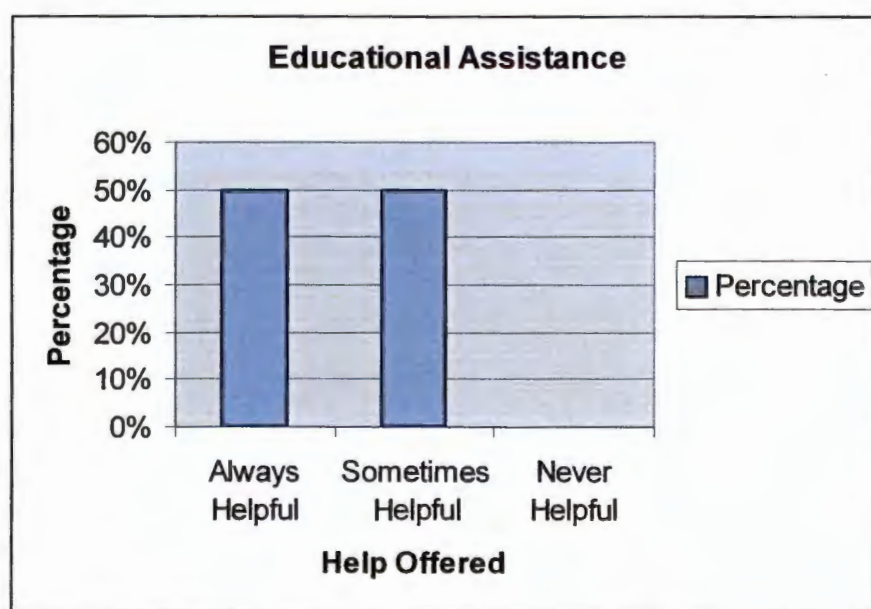
practical work and reading to improve their scholastic performance. There is no electricity in the village and water is not in abundance.

Clean water and sanitation are very important, because a lack of these gives rise to even higher levels of susceptibility to infections. Faeces deposited near homes, contaminated drinking water, fish from polluted rivers and coastal waters, and agricultural products fertilized with human waste, are all contributing towards ill health. Lack of hygiene when preparing food promotes the transmission of disease. Hands should be washed after defecation and before preparing food but, because water is scarce, this does not happen. Lack of water and sanitation is the most important reason why diseases transmitted through faeces are so prevalent in developing countries. The most common of these are diarrhoea and intestinal worm infections. Inadequate water increases the risk of schistosomiasis, skin and eye infection, and guinea worm disease (World Bank, 1993: 91 cited by de Beer, 1997: 2).

On the other hand, “the problems pertinent to rural education are many, ranging from poor school buildings, lack of teaching aids and equipment, under qualified teachers, inaccessibility of the school, disinterested parents, poor relationship between parents and the teachers, undernourished children and high rates of failure, dropout and absenteeism (Graaf, 1987: 10 – 14).

The following graph indicates the status of the educators in relation to their learners in terms of giving assistance in doing homework, assignments, projects, life skills counseling, career guidance, preparing learners for examinations and other related personal and educational matters, in order to help the individual learner to learn in totality so as to become a responsible adult in the future.

GRAPH 4.9



A lack of important facilities and assistance at home is reflected in Table 4.8 and Graph 4.4 respectively. This, however, is made more tolerable by the fact that half of the teachers are available for assistance whenever it is needed (Graph 4.9).

On the other hand, 50% of the respondents indicated that educators are not always available to assist them as a result of them not residing in the village. Graaf (1987:15) also recognized this problem and maintains that the other problem being that of teachers who are not part of the community they work in or teach in, who

are just there for work and money, as well as the lack of many other basic educational resources characterizing rural education. Furthermore rural areas have largely been unable to attract well qualified teachers for a number of reasons, for example lack of proper housing, and other facilities that are already available in the urban areas, for example a lack of good transport service. Because of problems experienced at their homes, such as nobody to assist with homework, low scholastic achievements of parents or guardians and unavailability of books, emphasizes the need for educators’ help in totality.

The following diagrams are combined and used to determine overcrowding. In this regard, overcrowding is determined by having 2 ½ people in one bedroom, ½ person being a child less than 10 years old.

GRAPH 4.10

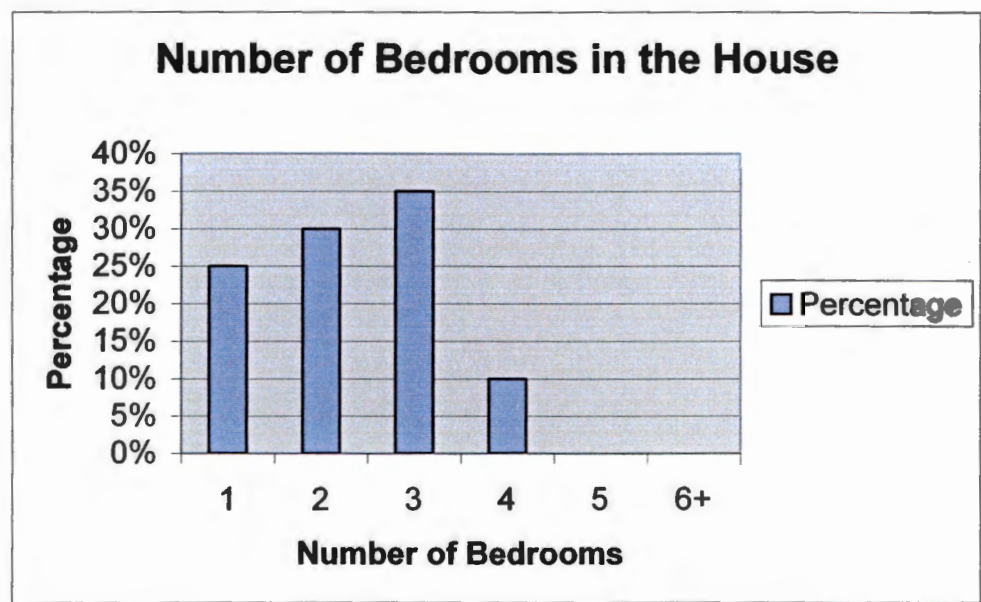
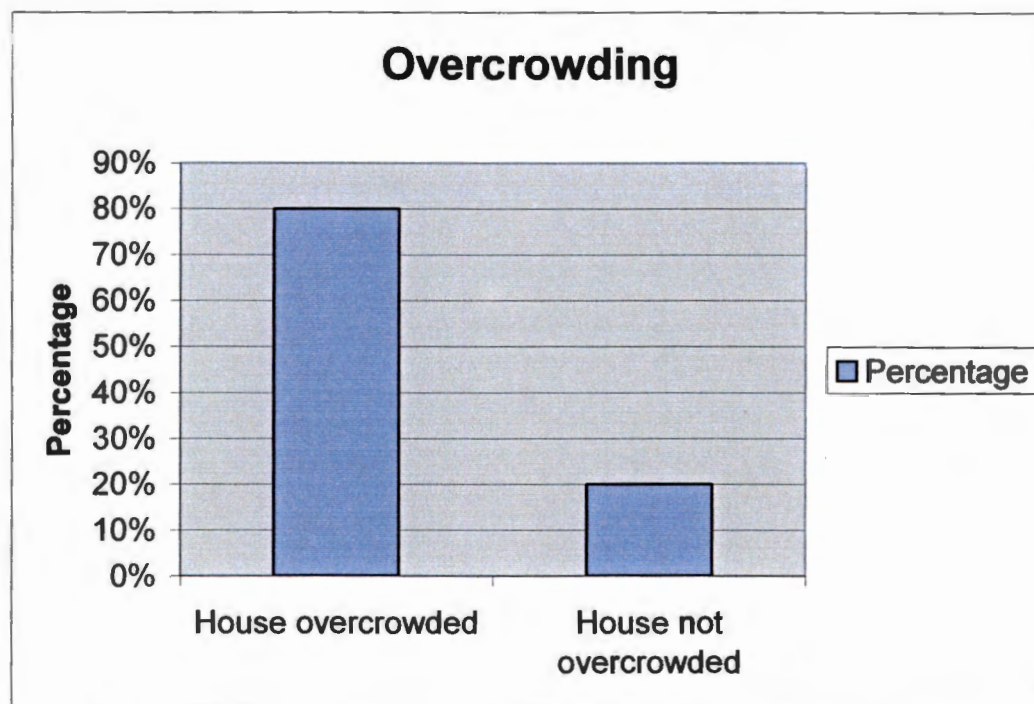


TABLE 4.11

Respondents	No. of Bedrooms	No. of Occupants	House overcrowded	House not overcrowded
1	3	9	✓	
2	3	11	✓	
3	1	3	✓	
4	4	13	✓	
5	1	7	✓	
6	3	7	✓	
7	3	4		✓
8	2	14	✓	
9	2	4		✓
10	3	5	✓	
11	2	3	✓	
12	1	7	✓	
13	3	8	✓	
14	4	5		✓
15	3	6		✓
16	2	8	✓	
17	2	6	✓	
18	2	8	✓	
19	1	8	✓	
20	1	6	✓	
TOTAL			16	4

GRAPH 4.12



Overcrowding and lack of family facilities can also drive the child away from parental protection (Cronje, 1960 cited by Chuenyane, 1994: 74). Impoverished large families may find it difficult to meet a sustaining healthy lifestyle. This is especially prevalent in families earning a low income or in those families whose members do not earn an income (Bezuidenhout, 1998: 165-174).

Most families (90%), have between 1 to 3 bedrooms per family, and most of these families have many occupants (cf. Table 4.11). Although many learners' homes have three bedrooms, the number of occupants is alarmingly high. This is a health hazard due to overcrowding, poor ventilation, vulnerability to the spread of contagious diseases such as influenza, chicken pox and measles, as well as the exposure to sexual acts.

According to the above, overcrowding proves to be a serious problem in rural areas. The same concept denies the learner freedom, privacy and peace to learn in a quiet, conducive atmosphere, and his/her performance can be poor because of noise and interference by other family members. The above graph shows that 80% of the learners' homes are overcrowded, and this may hamper effective learning and concentration. This may be a contributory reason why learners may not perform effectively in their schoolwork.

Due to overcrowding the mother shares the bedroom or facilities with the children and her male partners. Hence children are exposed to sexual acts between mother and partners. Secondly, children tend to run away to seek comfortable privacy from widowed or divorced men who in turn abuse them sexually only to throw them out. This suggests that until the girl becomes older and builds up a different moral standard of values she will still behave in accordance with the moral values she has internalized in her family (Rip, 1978, cited by Chuenyane, 1994: 76).

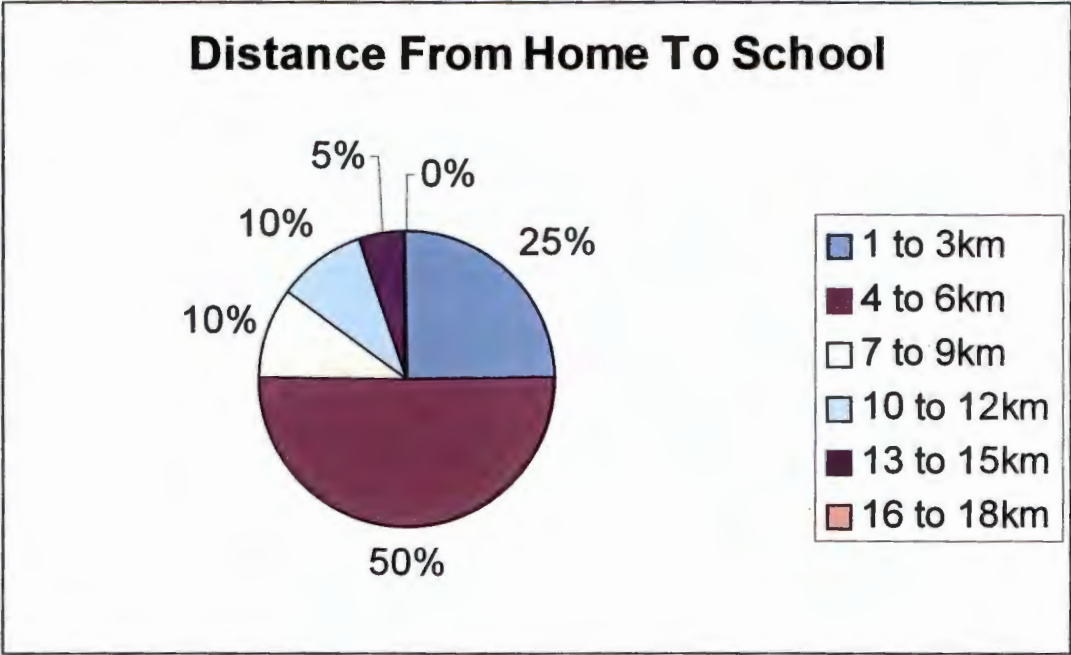
The following diagrams are clubbed together to determine the distance from home to school, means of transport from home to school, and time taken from home to school.

TABLE 4.13

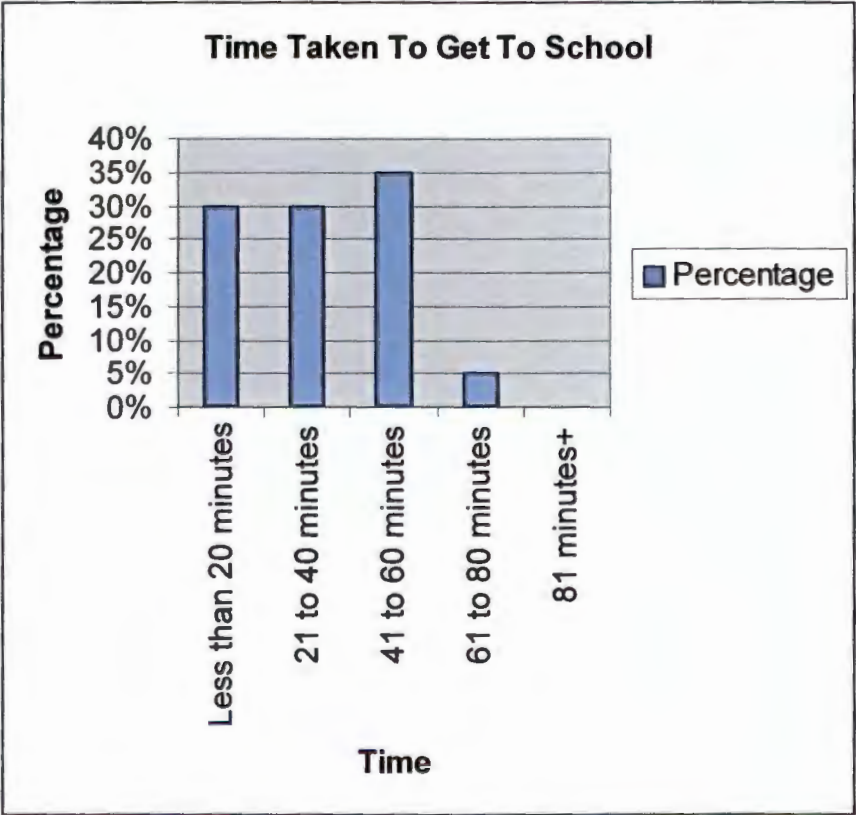
Means of transport to school

	FREQUENCY	%
Bus	0	0
Walking	20	100
Taxi	0	0
TOTAL	20	100

GRAPH 4.14



GRAPH 4.15



Graaf (1987: 15) mentioned that most rural areas are far from urban centers and thus many pupils walk long distances to and from school daily and this means that many arrive at school tired, therefore the extent of concentration is hampered.

The diagrams show that 50% of the learners live far from school, and this means walking between 4 and 6km daily under favourable or unfavourable weather conditions. When they arrive at home, they are tired from the scorching sun and they need to rest and there is little time for studying or even doing homework. 20% of the learners walk between 7 and 12km, this may mean waking at dawn in order to cover the distance and most of them arrive late at school and miss the first period(s) which is a loss to all of them. All the learners in Tlapeng Village walk to school. Staying a long distance from school means, scorching sun, windy and rainy days for the whole school year. Although there is a 100% bus service (Table 4.7), most parents (Graph 4.5), cannot afford the high transport fares for their children. Despite the lack of money for transport, walking seems to be a way of life in most rural areas. As a result of walking, most learners (Graph 4.15) take between 21 to 80 minutes walking to school. This may result in them arriving at school very tired and their concentration span may be shortened due to fatigue.

Although Graph 4.14 indicates that 70% of the learners stay between 4-12km away from school, Graph 4.15, however, indicates that no learner takes more than 80 minutes to walk to school. This contradiction can be attributed to the fact that learners are not aware of and are therefore not accurate in determining the distance they walk to school. It may be possible that some learners spend more than 80 minutes getting to school, particularly those who walk between 4 and 12km.

The following table illustrates the time learners allocate to their homework.

TABLE 4.16

Average time allocated to do homework

	FREQUENCY	%
0 – 60 minutes	16	80
61 – 90 minutes	3	15
91 – 120 minutes	1	5
121 – 150 minutes	0	0
150 minutes+	0	0
TOTAL	20	100

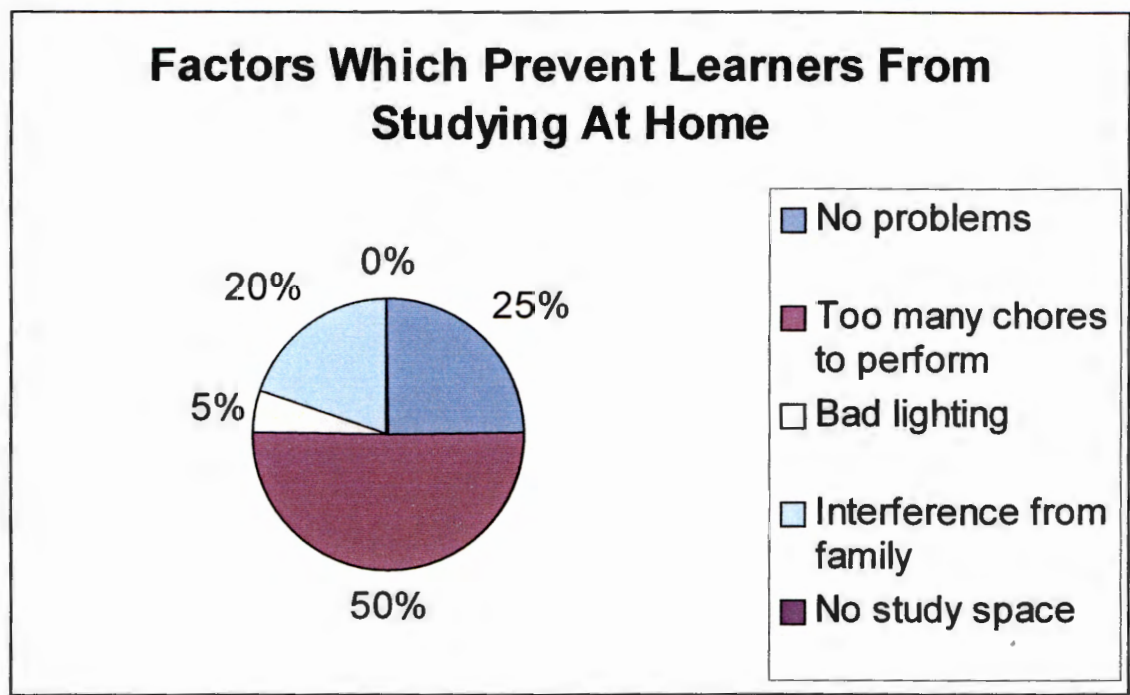
As a result of a great number of contributory factors, it would seem that learners do not spend sufficient time to study at home.

Contributory factors

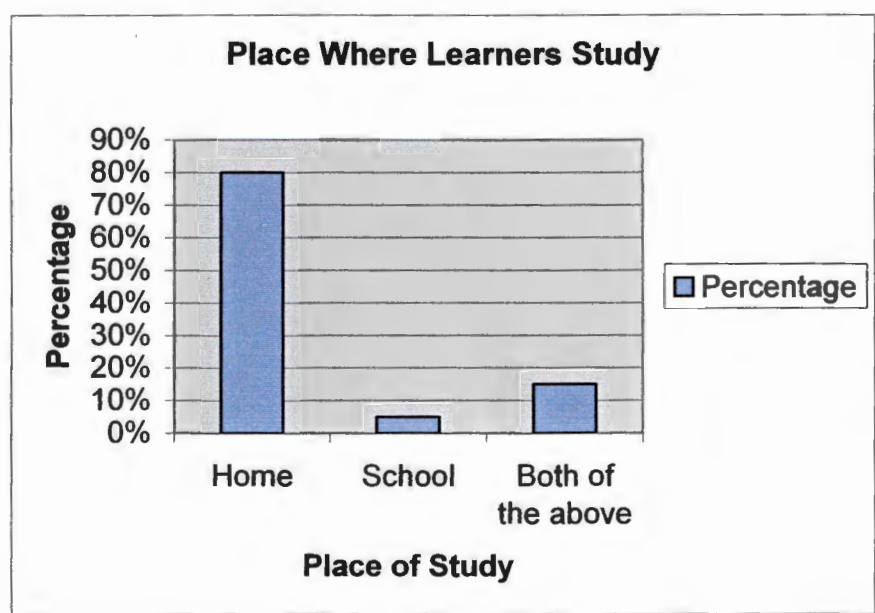
- ✓ Lack of motivation from their parents, themselves and guardians.
- ✓ Lack of parental supervision as far as schoolwork is concerned.
- ✓ Fatigue due to walking long distances to and from school.
- ✓ Having too many chores to perform at home.
- ✓ Interference from family members, for example, noise, family feuds and a lack of privacy.

The following two diagrams have been clubbed together to indicate factors which may prevent the learners from studying conducively at the place of study.

GRAPH 4.17



GRAPH 4.18



According to Graph 4.17, half (50%) of the learners have some daily chores to perform which might lead to fatigue and prevent them from studying. As a result of them not studying and their homework not being done, they get further and further behind in their school work, thus leading to a possible low pass rate.

Poor housing may well affect educational progress as a result of the difficulties of studying at home, the lack of quiet or privacy and an inadequate night’s sleep (Zalewska, 1993: 192).

Although Graph 4.12 indicates that 80% of learners’ homes are overcrowded, these learners, 80% of which study at home (Graph 4.18), do not complain about lacking study space (Graph 4.17). This could lead one to assume that perhaps the learners are given privacy to study when the need arises or that they are so adapted to the circumstances under which they live that they have somehow found ways of making study space for themselves and therefore do not feel the need to complain.

The following table indicates whether or not educators reside in the same village with the learners, so as to be easily accessed by learners when the need arises.

TABLE 4.19

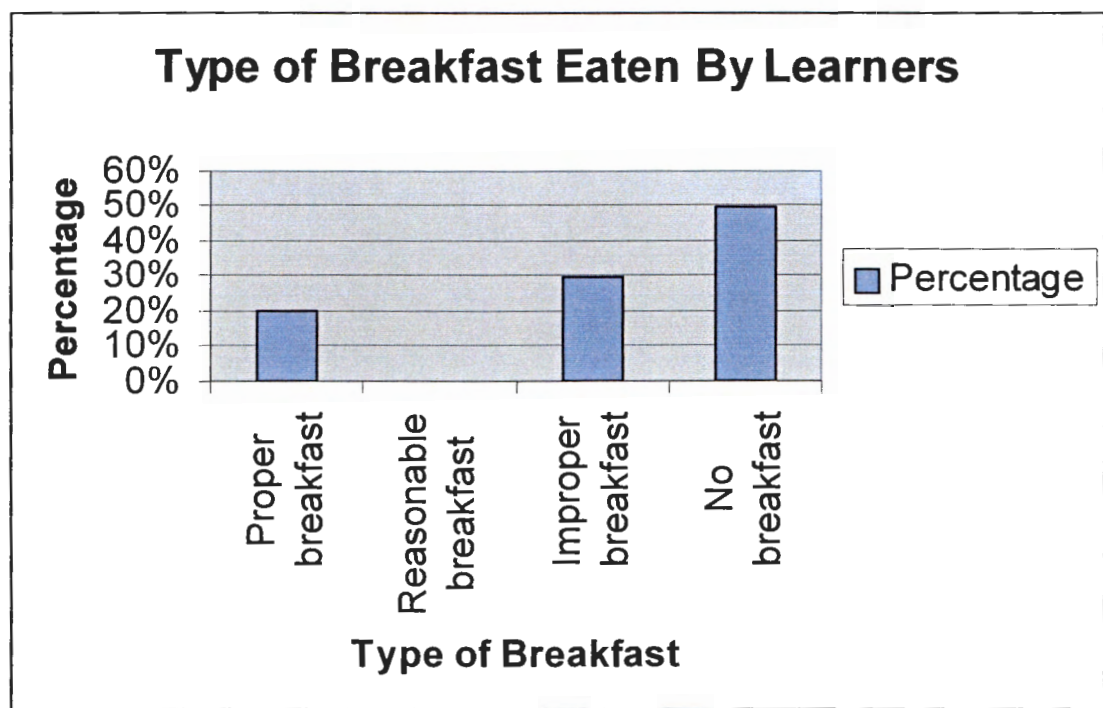
Village where educators reside

VILLAGE	FREQUENCY	%
In the same village	0	0
Not in the same village	20	100
TOTAL	20	100

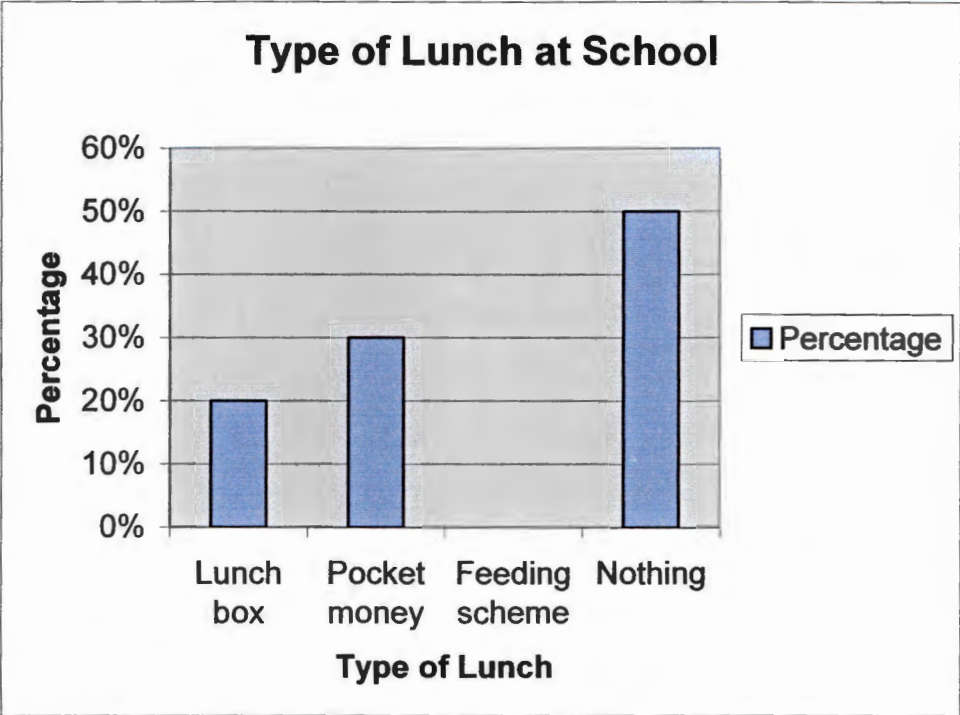
All the educators do not stay in the same village as the learners. This implies that there is no immediate help given when learners are in need of it and this might hamper the learning abilities of the children. Even if the teachers would have liked to reside in the village, there are no teachers' residences in the village. It could also be that the educators are not interested in residing in the village due to a lack of modern infrastructure or do not want to be separated from their families for long periods.

The following diagrams are clubbed together to indicate whether learners have breakfast before school and lunch at school.

GRAPH 4.20



GRAPH 4.21



Little or irregular acquired income may cause ill health and a high mortality rate among the poor. Without adequate financial means or social support, the poor cannot purchase or acquire nutritional foodstuffs necessary to maintain their health. Those who may have opportunity to work find that their energy levels cannot cope with their workload. This not only affects their productivity, but may also lead to their being dismissed from work. Furthermore, it is a known fact that children need sufficient nourishment enabling them to cope with the demands of formal education (Bezuidenhout, 1998: 165 – 174).

According to Graph 4.20, half of the learners (50%) come to school on an empty stomach in the morning whilst 30% have an improper breakfast, which means that

there is no proper nutrition for the body and this may lead to vulnerability to diseases which may hamper learning and concentration span. This might be the reason why there is a high failure rate in rural areas, because it might be difficult for a learner to concentrate for long periods of time on an empty stomach. This may cause dizziness and poor performance in school work. Only 20% have a proper breakfast, thus stressing the point that less students have the required strength to concentrate and thus excel in their school work.

In the following graph the health condition of the learners was determined. The criterion to determine the health status of respondents was calculated as follows:

Good health

Minor diseases during past year, according to observation, seem to be in good health (90 – 100% school attendance)

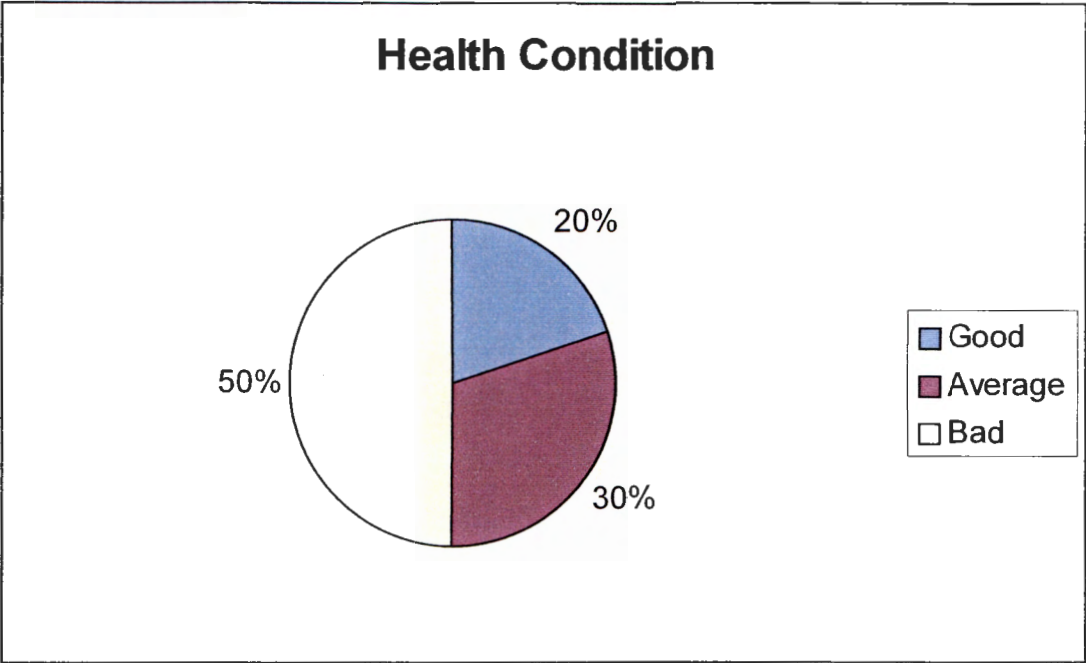
Average health

Been absent from school more often (70-89% school attendance) on account of health problems.

Bad health

Learner suffers from a more permanent disease such as asthma, bronchitis, certain disabilities or even being HIV positive. Bad health was also judged according to the stature of the learner. School absenteeism also occurred fairly often.

GRAPH 4.22



Most learners describe their health condition as bad according to the above graph. This can also be attributed to their parents’ high unemployment rate, lack of medical facilities, lack of proper nutrition, walking long distances to school in all sorts of weather, which is detrimental to the learners’ physique in general. Effective education cannot take place in an unhealthy body. This is further emphasized by O’Connor (1991: 123) cited by Chuenyane (1994: 51) who maintains that, children under such circumstances are likely to be victims of retarded growth and development, feeble conceptualization, wishful thinking, and frustration that may lead to social irresponsibilities and lack of concern for the general welfare and society.

4.2.2 Parents

Parents were mainly questioned to verify the responses given by the learners and to obtain additional information where possible with regard to their feelings and opinions on the unfavourable rural circumstances under which their children live.

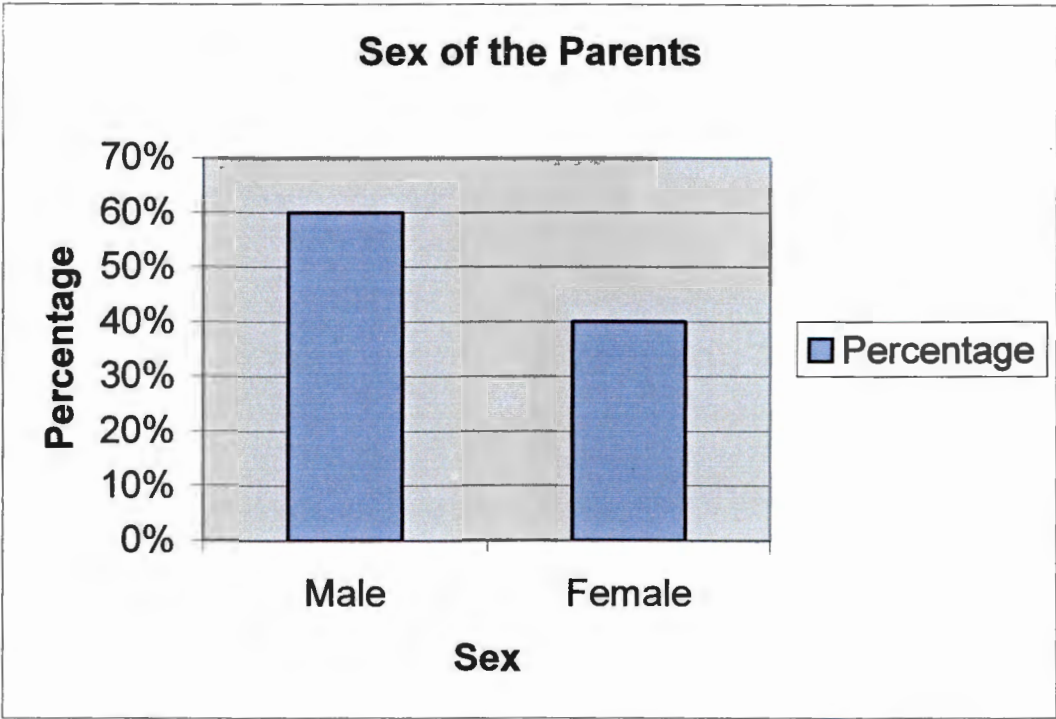
The following diagrams were clubbed together to obtain the sex, age and educational achievements of the parents.

TABLE 4.23

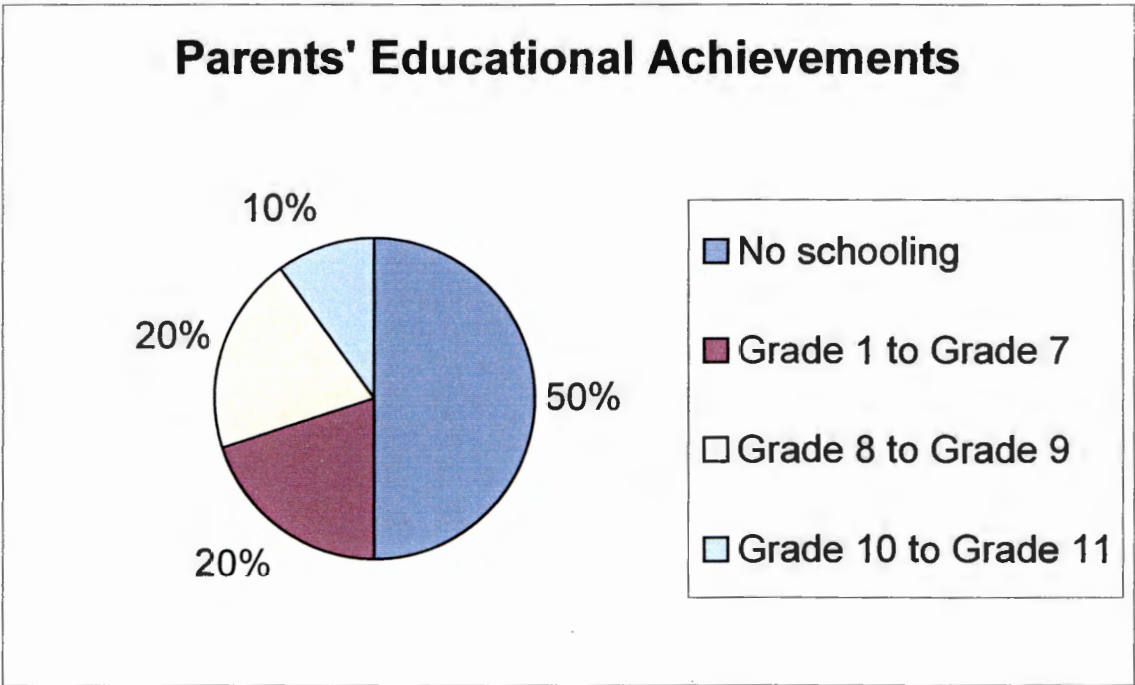
Age of the parents

AGE	FREQUENCY	%
20 – 30	0	0
31 – 40	7	70
41 – 50	3	30
50+	0	0
TOTAL	10	100

GRAPH 4.24



GRAPH 4.25



Most (60%) of the respondents were males and between 31 and 40 years old. 50% of these parents did not attend school, only 40% got up to Grade 9, which is contradictory to the information supplied by the learners in Table 4.3 which states that 60% of the parents went up to Grade 9. This could be attributed to the fact that most learners are ignorant or embarrassed of their parents' educational qualifications.

This information also substantiates the fact that parents are unable to assist or supervise learners who have reached a higher level of education than them as indicated in the learners' information in Graph 4.4 where 75% of the learners receive no supervision.

As the residents of Tlapeng are mostly unemployed, they are not able to afford the money to pay for their further education and training and are also not able to share work experiences with their children as they themselves are inexperienced. As a result, the children also face limited job opportunities as they may not be adequately qualified to fulfill the job requirements, thus resulting in them being vulnerable to unemployment and poverty. In other words, the socio-economic circumstances of the parents are to a great extent carried over to their children.

The diagrams below are clubbed together to indicate parents’ employment situation and their monthly income.

GRAPH 4.26

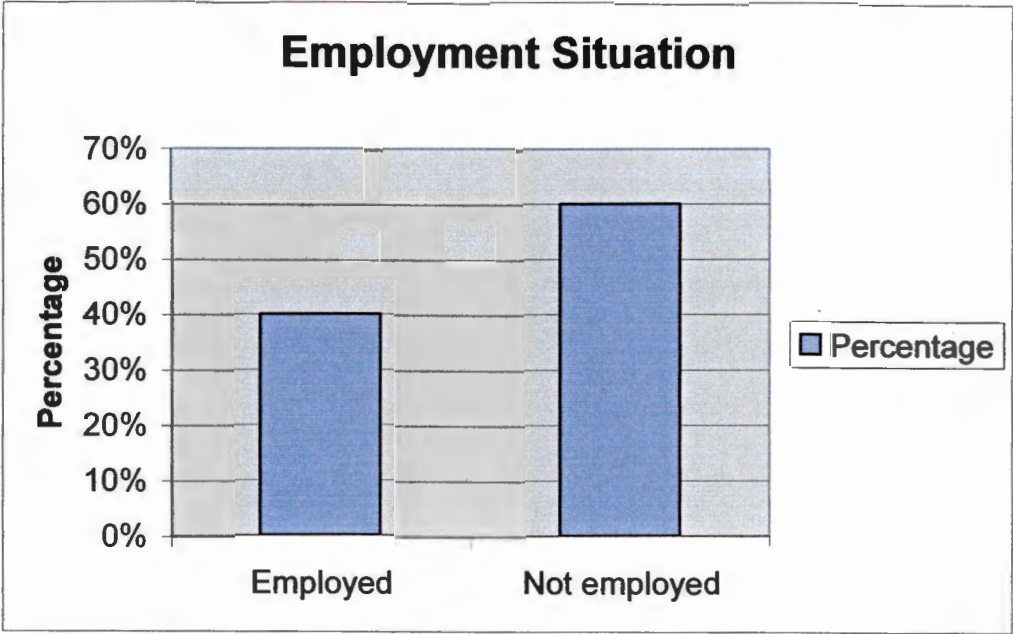


TABLE 4.27

Monthly income

	FREQUENCY	%
No income	5	50
R100 – R499	4	40
R500 – R999	1	10
R1 000 – R1 499	0	0
R 1 500 – R1 999	0	0
Other (specify)	0	0
TOTAL	10	100

Less than half of the parents interviewed are employed. This could be attributed to the fact that most (50%) of these parents are uneducated and inexperienced and are therefore unable to find suitable work. Half of the parents interviewed do not earn an income, and none earn more than R1 000 per month. This differs to a small extent with the information given by learners because children are not always aware of their parents' income. This also substantiates Graph 4.6 where 85% of the learners' parents are unable to afford sufficient books because 50% of the families do not earn an income.

The following diagrams are clubbed together to indicate the type of house the family lives in, number of bedrooms and number of occupants in the house.

GRAPH 4.28

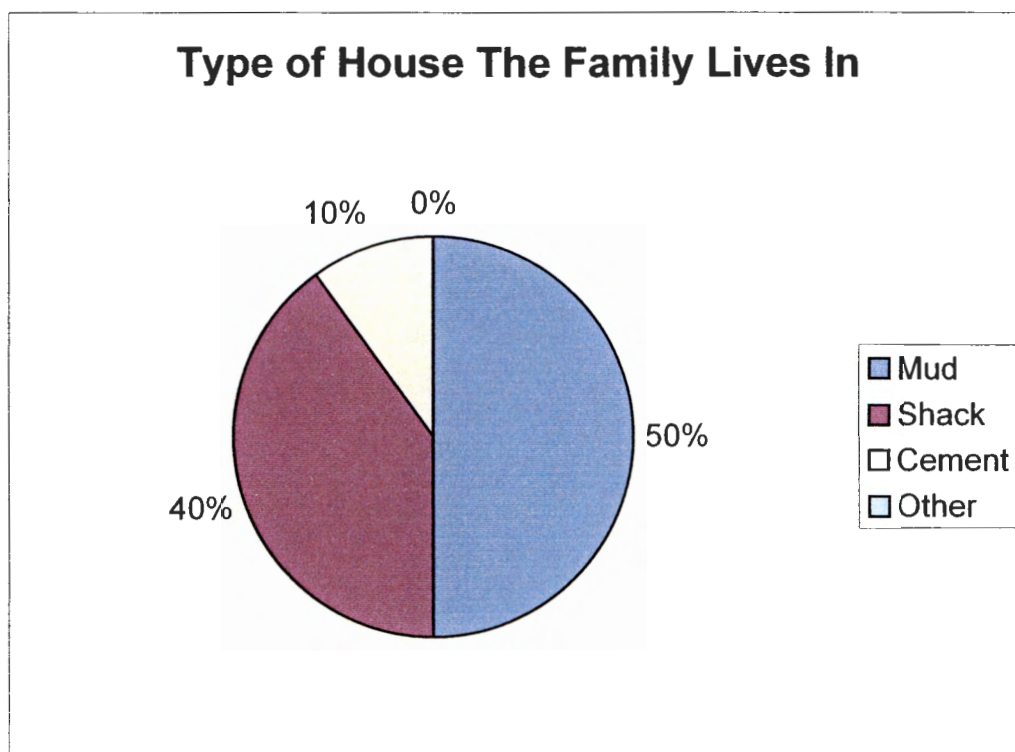
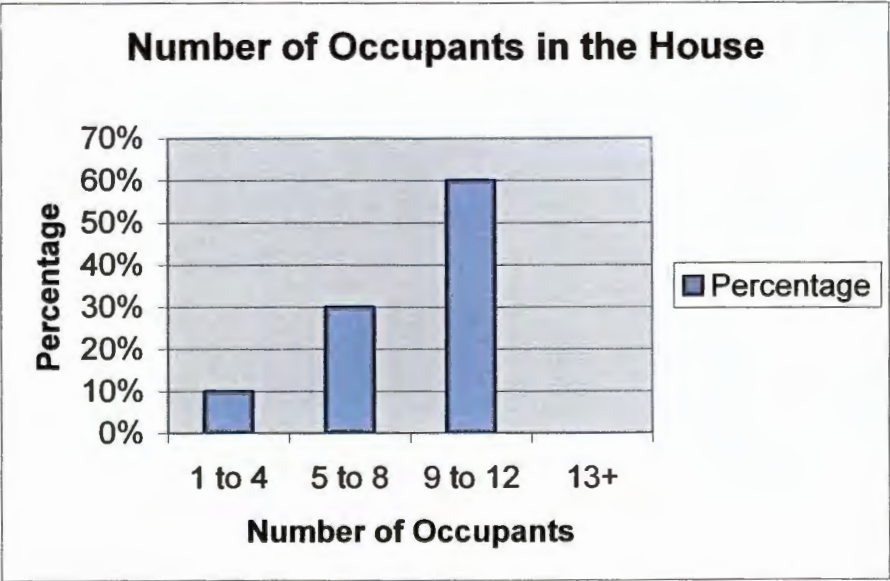


TABLE 4.29

Number of bedrooms

BEDROOMS	FREQUENCY	%
1	4	40
2	5	50
3	1	10
4	0	0
5+	0	0
TOTAL	10	100

GRAPH 4.30



Poor housing may well affect educational progress as a result of the difficulties of studying at home, the lack of a quiet atmosphere or privacy and an inadequate night's sleep (Zalewska, 1993: 192).

From the above information, 90% of the houses have many occupants, being mostly mud and shack houses (90%) and having between 1 and 2 bedrooms (90%) as indicated by Graphs 4.28, 4.30 and Table 4.29. This correlates with Graph 4.12 to some extent, where 80% of the homes have been found to be overcrowded from the information supplied by the learners.

Poverty is associated with high population density and over-crowding. Due to a lack of finances, individuals or families tend to share housing facilities. This leads to overcrowding and many young children in such households take to the street to earn a living. Some of them become child prostitutes, drug pushers, or enter into juvenile gang life. They participate in criminal activities in order to procure much needed finances for themselves or their families (Bezuidenhout, 1998: 165 –174).



The following tables have been clubbed together to indicate the time taken by learners to get to school and the mode of transport used.

TABLE 4.31

Time taken by learners to get to school

TIME	FREQUENCY	%
Less than 20 minutes	0	0
21 – 40 minutes	3	30
41 – 60 minutes	3	30
61 – 80 minutes	4	40
81 minutes +	0	0
TOTAL	10	100

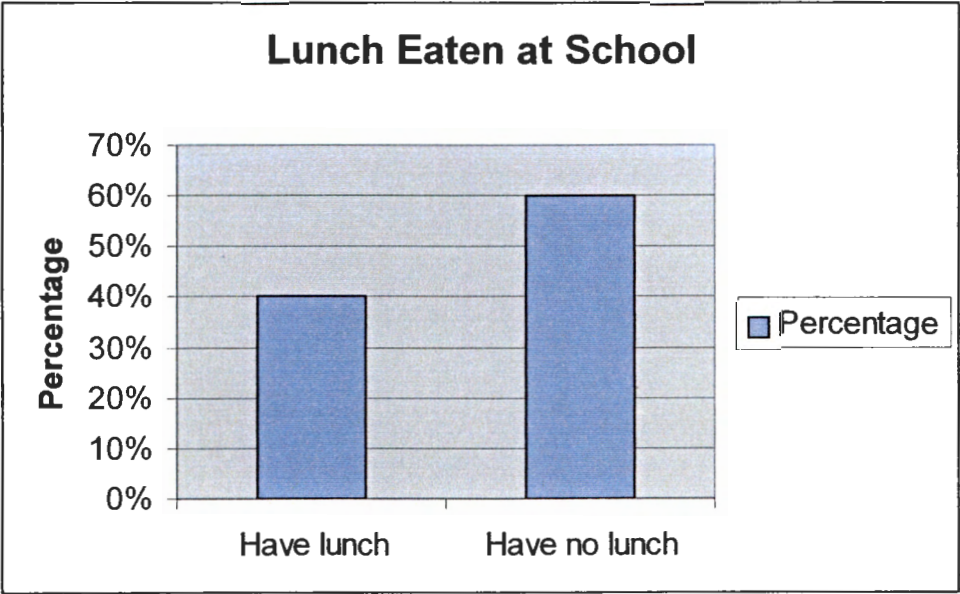
TABLE 4.32

Means of transport the learner uses to get to school

MODE OF TRANSPORT	FREQUENCY	%
Bus	0	0
Walking	10	100
Taxi	0	0
Other (specify)	0	0
TOTAL	10	100

60% of the parents' children take between 21 – 60 minutes to get to school, whereas 40% take 61 - 80minutes to get to school. All the parents' children walk to school. This corresponds with the responses given by the learners (cf. Table 4.13).

The graph below indicates the percentage of children eating lunch at school.
GRAPH 4.33



Only 40% of the parents’ children eat lunch at school, which slightly differs from the information supplied by learners in Graph 4.21. This difference could be as a result of some learners either being embarrassed to admit that they receive no lunch to take to school or receive food from their peers.

While many impoverished families may live together in the same community, they may experience social isolation from the rest of the society. Such isolation may be intensified when the more affluent members of the society label the poor as social outcasts because they believe that they are responsible for their situation.

The poor may also experience powerlessness. Their lack of means to compete with the more affluent in society emphasizes their powerlessness. Individuals who find themselves impoverished, and especially those who may have families to care for,

may experience episodes of depression. Without adequate treatment, such persons may resort to suicide or even family murder (Bezuidenhout, 1998: 165 – 174).

In the following graph, the health condition of the respondents' children was determined. The criterion to determine the health status of respondents' children was calculated as follows:

Good health

Minor diseases during past year, according to observation, seem to be in good health (90 – 100% school attendance)

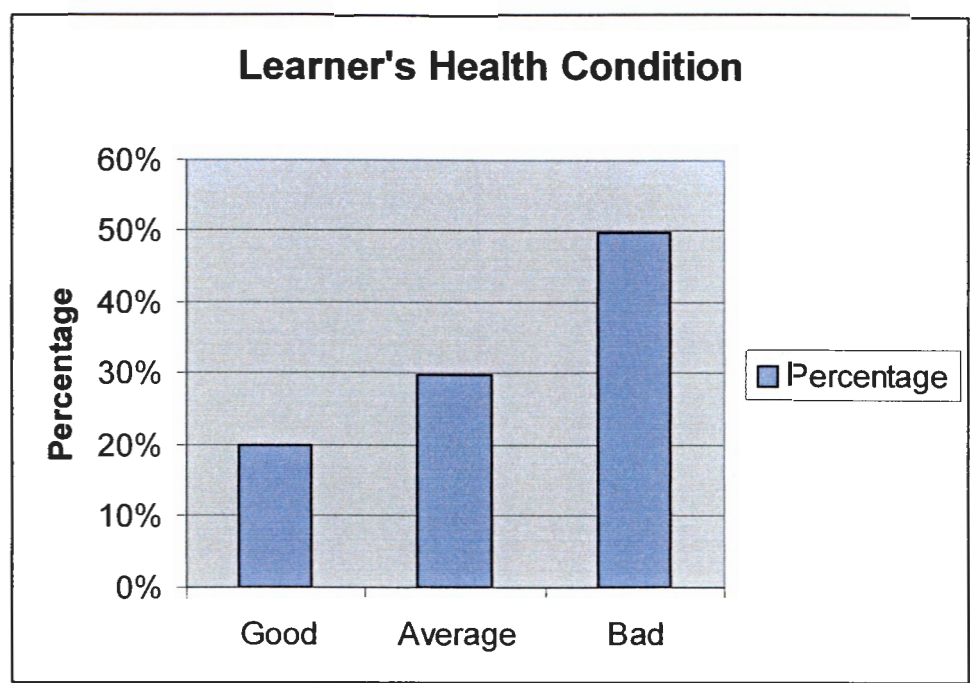
Average health

Been absent from school more often (70-89% school attendance) on account of health problems.

Bad health

Learner suffers from a more permanent disease such as asthma, bronchitis, certain disabilities or even being HIV positive. Bad health was also judged according to the stature of the learner. School absenteeism also occurred fairly often.

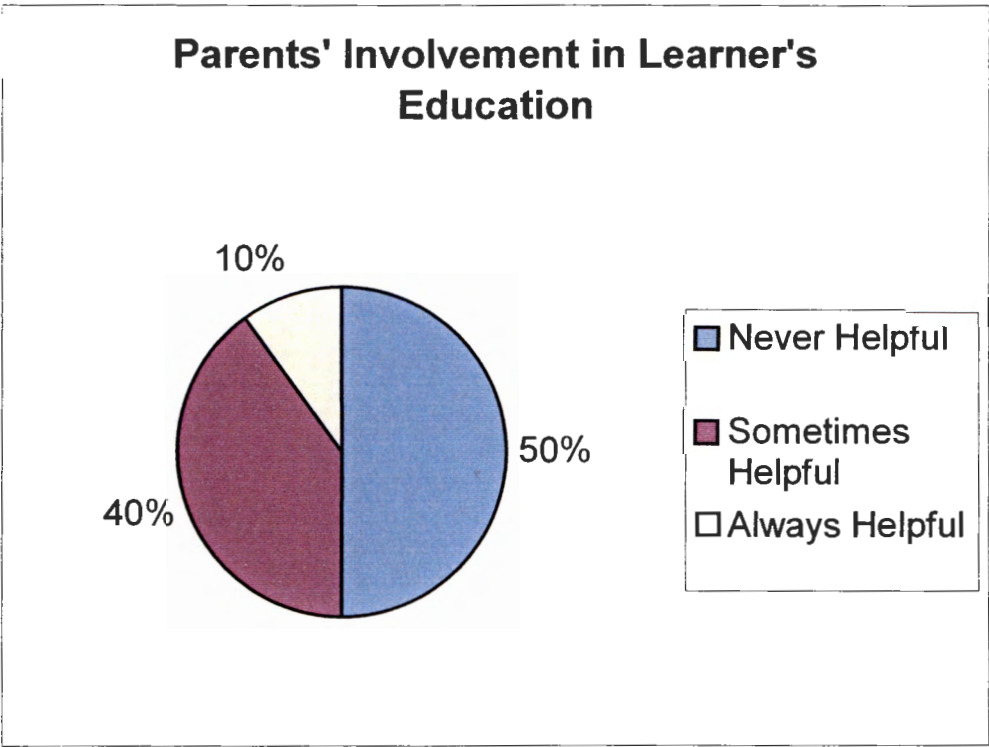
GRAPH 4.34



The above information correlates with the information given by the learners in Graph 4.22.

The following table indicates the extent to which parents help their children with school work.

GRAPH 4.35



Seagull (1987) cited by Brown (1988: 62-64) contends that the presence or absence of social support has an effect on psychological well-being. A person with a weak supportive network of family and friends is less likely to be able to cope with stressful events and will have a poor sense of self-esteem.

Half of the parents interviewed are not involved in their children’s education. This can be attributed to the fact that 60% of them achieved less than Grade 9 and can therefore not help their children who have reached a higher level of education than them (Table 4.3). The reason for not being involved in their children’s education is not that they do not want to be involved, but rather that they do not know how to get involved since many of them have not attended school and cannot even read and write. They lack coaching skills and may tend to show inferiority complexes.

4.2.3 Educators

The educators were interviewed to gather information about the topic under study as they are the people who are directly involved and affected in working with the learners in rural areas. A sample of 5 educators from the neighbouring schools was interviewed.

All the educators interviewed were between 31 and 40 years old and were mainly males.

The socio-economic background of the learners in the school

All the educators viewed learners as coming from a low socio-economic background which supports the learners' and parents' information where it was observed that most do not earn an income and cannot afford basic human needs such as healthy foods, proper housing, educational materials, medical facilities, etc.

Facilities available at the school.

There are no important facilities to be utilized by learners, except many classrooms which are not properly utilized due to low enrollment figures. Learners have no place to do experiments and research work and as a result, learners' scholastic achievements may be hampered. This correlates with learners' information in Table 4.8.

The educators indicated the following issues to be **challenges in rural schools**. They mentioned that no proper and effective learning can take place unless all

these issues are addressed by all stake holders involved in the education and development of rural areas as well as rural children.

Issues which the educators regard as challenges:

(a) Learners' Parents

- Low literacy level of parents
- Unemployment
- Failure to attend meetings at school
- Poverty

(b) Staff Members

- Keep themselves abreast of developments in the new curriculum
- Understaffed and overworked, unsettled, demoralized and tense
- Many learning areas that need to be covered
- High workload
- No adequate and regular support from parents
- Lack of communication, making it difficult to give feedback to both parents and learners.

(c) Learners

- Low socio-economic circumstances
- Seem to be uninterested in learning
- Economic status of their parents directly affects them

- They are too emancipated to be responsible and committed to their work, thus stressing educators, who are concerned about their ill-discipline, irresponsibility and lack of commitment that results from them taking advantage of the fact that they cannot be physically punished anymore.

(d) Physical Resources

- No laboratory and library facilities which are necessary resources for each school
- Little and dilapidated sport facilities
- Lack of electricity
- Lack of modern or electronic appliances, e.g. television, computers, etc.

(e) Financial Resources

- As Tlapeng is a small village with very little infrastructure, it is very difficult to raise funds and also to obtain financial resources in another manner as most of its inhabitants are unemployed or earn very little income.

(f) Community as a Whole

- The entire community must address issues of education even at local municipality level
- Unemployment

- Illiteracy
- Poverty

4.3 SUMMARY

From the information gathered from the learners, it is evident that indeed there are circumstances that may influence the learning abilities of the learners in rural areas. Most learners walk long distances to and from school on an empty stomach. Lack of parental motivation and supervision, low socio-economic status of both learners and parents, poverty, high unemployment rate which results in parents not earning an income and making it difficult to provide basic human needs for their children were the factors mentioned as hampering the effective learning of the learners.

Lack of adequate schooling facilities, understaffed and overworked staff members, having many chores to perform and lack of proper housing and medical facilities, were mentioned as the issues which may hamper the scholastic achievements of the learners in rural areas.



Overcrowding is a serious problem in rural areas as learners cannot study effectively to excel in their work. Families are large with many occupants using the same bedroom. Privacy is compromised and poor ventilation is a health hazard to all the occupants.

Although there is a slight difference in information gathered from learners, parents and educators in terms of figures and percentages, in some instances, a great number of respondents' responses were closely related. This slight difference can be attributed to the fact that some respondents are not aware of the impact the unfavourable rural circumstances have on them, and therefore are not accurate in determining the figures or percentages correctly.

Most parents are the products of an inferior Bantu education which was administered during the apartheid regime. As a result, most of them left school at an early age and only achieved lower grades, and thus cannot cope with the demands of today's education, and they fail to help their children who are in higher standards than them, thus hampering their children's educational achievements.

Graaf (1987: 10) emphasizes that rural areas are mostly the ones in which state services are most often inadequate as compared to urban areas where there is less or no poverty and where the services are not much needed like in rural areas but being available. Some of the factors which have entrenched themselves in the lives of the rural communities and which will need more than a restructured education and financial assistance to schools are: poverty, the continuous absence of many parents due to migrant labor and the unavailability of employment opportunities, illiteracy, low value placed on education, the attitude of teachers and administrators towards rural children and their parents, the efforts made by the chiefs to facilitate educational development and finally the economic and political powerless position of rural communities to develop and improve their own services. If major progress is to be made in rural education, these factors and their effects on the pupil have to be addressed.

Finally, effective teaching and learning cannot take place if the above mentioned learning circumstances prevail in rural areas. The Department of Education, Culture and Technology, the Social Work Department, the Non-Governmental Organisations, businesses, Department of Welfare and volunteers must join hands in assisting to alleviate such appalling circumstances in rural areas.

CHAPTER 5

MAIN FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS and RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. INTRODUCTION

The main purpose of this chapter is to review the findings emanating from the literature and empirical data, and to discuss conclusions drawn from them and to provide recommendations.

5.2. RESTATEMENT OF THE OBJECTIVES

Before discussing the main findings and conclusions, the objectives are restated as follows:

- To determine the nature and extent of the detrimental circumstances (in rural areas) which may affect the learning abilities of children;
- To explore the extent, causes and effects of poverty in rural areas; and
- To device guidelines for creating a more conducive environment for rural school learners.

5.3. GENERAL RESUME

This study was conducted in Tlapeng Village, 25km from Mafikeng in the North West Province. A map of the area of study is attached in Appendix C. The subjects were learners, parents and educators.

5.4. MAIN FINDINGS

The findings of the research, confirmed the hypotheses of the topic under study. The research findings indicated that there are indeed rural socio-economic circumstances that may hamper the scholastic achievement of the learners. As a result, a tendency of dropping out of school, being unable to compete for a higher paid job, a weak supportive network of family and friends due to migrant labor system, diseases due to malnutrition and being prone to delinquency, were clearly proven by the research findings as being detrimental to the learners' ability to learn effectively and to their social well-being. These findings can be summarized as follows:

5.4.1 Poverty

Most rural communities live in poverty. Of the poor in South Africa, 75% live in rural areas mainly in the Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal and the Northern Province (RDP, 1995: 5). Poverty is predominant among Africans of which 65% are considered to be poor, while 33% Coloureds and 2.5% and 0.7%, respectively, of Indians and Whites are poor (RDP, 1995: 12).

Bezuidenhout (1998: 165-174) contends that as in the case with many social phenomena in society, it is difficult to determine a single causative factor for poverty. While a number of factors are discussed below, poverty should be viewed as the result of the **collective effects** of such factors, hence, poverty as one of the main factors that affects the learning abilities of the children is discussed in detail in this research project.

According to the researcher, lack of most factors from the main findings result in poverty, and people cannot manage their lives properly, as a result, they suffer the negative effects of poverty which are outlined in this research project.

Although Holman (1978: 28) maintains that poverty is functional in that it maintains a social system, and that the poor are needed to undertake the least desirable jobs and positions implied in a stratified society, the researcher finds this to be a blow to the entire population if most of them are poor and starving. If only a few are poor, it would be much easier for the government and stakeholders to empower a small group about capacity building exercises, than when it is dealing with a huge number.

5.4.2 Income

According to Bezuidenhout (1998: 165-174), an individual who finds it difficult to make ends meet, especially if he/she is the breadwinner, may have a low self-esteem. In some instances, such persons feel rejected or experience rejection by members of their families for being unable to secure a job or to provide in the needs of their families.

The researcher realized that 50% of the learners' parents do not earn a monthly income (cf. Graph 4.5). To the researcher, lack of income means insufficient food for the family, a basic human need. Again, 50% of the learners at Tlapeng Village go to school hungry every morning because they have nothing to eat for breakfast, and a further 50% do not eat lunch at school (cf. Graphs 4.20 and 4.21), and this may end up in learners having stunted growth and physical development and also make them unable to concentrate on their studies.

This is further emphasized by O'Connor (1991: 123) cited by Chuenyane (1994: 51) who maintains that children under such circumstances are likely to be victims of retarded growth and development, feeble conceptualization, wishful thinking, and frustration that may lead to social irresponsibilities and lack of concern for the general welfare of society.

During the interview, 40% of the parents mentioned that they were employed whereas the remaining 60% were unemployed. Therefore, a great number of parents in Tlapeng are in dire need of jobs.

Furthermore, it is a known fact that children need sufficient nourishment enabling them to cope with the demands of formal education., malnourished children may experience problems with their self-esteem because they do not acquire higher grades or are unable to complete their school year successfully or are unable to compete with their peers (Bezuidenhout, 1998: 165-174).

5.4.3 Parents' Level of Education

According to Wilson in Holman (1978: 28), educational success is often regarded as the escape route from poverty. Yet the children of the poor do not generally do well at school. In the past, these failures have often been attributed solely to the lack of parental stimulation and interest as though they deliberately withheld their support.

Education, the key to success, is scarce among the parents of rural areas. 40% of the parents have gone up to Grade 7, 20% up to Grade 9 and 25% up to Grade 11, and 15% had no schooling at all. This means that none of them have a diploma or Grade 12, therefore, most of the parents cannot help their children with school work, especially if the child is on a higher level than the parent. 75% of the learners receive no supervision from neither of their family members, which may be a contributing reason why there is such a high failure rate in Tlapeng Village. Only 15% of the learners receive homework supervision from their parents (cf. Graph 4.4). These children do not have role models to model the required behavior as far as education is concerned and in turn they become disillusioned and develop a low self-esteem. Their only role models, their educators, do not reside in the same village with them and it is therefore difficult for learners to ask for help in times of need and assistance.

5.4.4 School and Study Material

The research findings indicated that 70% of the parents experience difficulties in buying books and other school requirements for their children (cf. Graph 4.6). Approximately 50% of the parents are without a monthly income – they will

therefore not be able to supply such materials to their children if they are unemployed.

For low income earners, it also means that these parents have to spend more time at their job or on household tasks which leaves less time to spend with their children. They will have less money to spend on books, crayons, puzzles or outings to help their child's development and to develop the skills which the school rewards, (Zalewska, 1993: 192). This hampers the children's ability to learn.

5.4.5 Transport

Although there is a functional bus service at Tlapeng Village (cf. table 4.7), all the learners walk to school. This is, amongst others, attributed to the lack of funds, and in some cases, school might not be far from some of their homes. Despite the lack of money for transport, walking seems to be a way of life in most rural areas as it is perceived to be a form of socializing and recreation as well as cohesion among learners. A great numbers of learners live between 4 to 6km away from school and walk to and from school on a daily basis. Staying far away from school means scorching sun, rainy and windy days for the whole year, which is a health hazard to the learners. On rainy days, most learners stay away from school, not because they want to absent themselves, but because they don't want to get wet and consequently fall ill. As a result, progress is compromised because educators cannot finish the syllabus on time.

5.4.6 Home Chores

Children at Tlapeng Village do not have enough time to do their homework properly because of having too many chores to perform at home (cf. Graph 4.17). A great number of learners travel long distances to fetch wood, water and livestock, and as a result, they are either uninterested or too tired to concentrate on their studies.

5.4.7 Unemployment

The researcher also identified unemployment as a further contributing factor to the learners' inability to achieve at school. A greater number of parents (60%) are unemployed. The fact that 50% of the parents have no income (cf. Graph 4.5), suggests that they are part of the unemployed. Even those few who are employed cannot afford basic human needs from their meagre incomes. This may result in children dropping out of school to secure employment somewhere, to supplement the parents' income, or girls may resort to prostitution with the aim of making an income. Unemployment contributes negatively towards the educational development of the learners because some people cannot afford to send their children to school, which leads to further unemployment.

5.4.8 Lack of Educational Facilities

Apparently there is a sufficient number of classrooms in rural schools, but they are not properly utilized. The unused classrooms could have been used to offer other facilities of importance to education, for example, a library, laboratory, etc. If there are no facilities, learners cannot carry out experiments and do practical work,

they learn only theory and this lowers the standard of education and the learners' ability to learn, because to them, they think that the type of education they receive from their school is inferior.

5.4.9 Lack of Sporting Facilities

Sport plays a very important role in the education of the learners because it improves their personality in respect of how they behave to others (socialization) and serves as an exercising tool to their minds. Most learners in rural areas are talented soccer players. Soccer is the only sport that serves as an exercising tool to their minds, but soccer fields are not existent or properly maintained. Talent in sport, e.g. soccer, is abundant, unfortunately it is not tapped, nurtured or properly coached. Such talent in the long run does not go anywhere and is lost in the wilderness. There are no professional soccer people (players and coaches) who live in rural areas and therefore the children will only learn about basic sports rules by themselves.

As a result the learners may indulge in delinquent or other maladaptive behaviors to occupy themselves. They might also lose sight of the importance of education because life becomes monotonous and they may not see the need to study or even attend school.

5.4.10 Overcrowding

Overcrowding and lack of family facilities can also drive the child away from parental protection (Cronje, 1960 cited by Chuenyane, 1994: 74). Impoverished large families may find it difficult to meet a sustaining healthy lifestyle. This is

especially prevalent in families earning a low income or in those families whose members do not earn an income (Bezuidenhout, 1998: 165-174).

It was indicated that 80% of the learners study at home (cf. Graph 4.18) whereas 80% of the learners' homes are overcrowded (cf. Graph 4.12). Overcrowding is a serious problem in rural areas. The research indicated that a great number of families have limited room space for their many occupants. There is no privacy for the learners, the amount of noise is alarmingly high in such big families and it is disturbing and a hindrance to proper learning. The rate of family feuds in such crowded homes is quite high and stressful for the learners, so they cannot learn to their full potential.

According to Chambers (1983) cited by de Beer (1997: 9), in large families, there are many children, as well as aged and disabled individuals. Many mouths need a great deal of food and the poor family has too little income to provide properly for this basic need. Food is of a poor quality and low nutritional value, resulting in undernourishment and malnutrition. Malnutrition causes low birthweight – a disadvantage to start with in life – it also contributes to poor performance in school and lower labour output.

5.4.11 Migrant Labour System

Rip (1978) cited by Chuenyane (1994: 73) contends that fathers and mothers are compelled to leave their children to take up employment away from home. In most cases, absence of one or both parents deprive the children of proper parental guidance. This finally leads the children to finding ways of coping on their own

and indulging in any kind of anti-social behavior. Homes such as these sometimes end up being meeting places for teenagers, or even breeding dens for prostitution.

Seagull (1987) cited by Brown (1988: 62-64) contends that the presence or absence of social support has an effect on psychological well-being. A person with a weak supportive network of family and friends is less likely to be able to cope with stressful events and will have a poor sense of self-esteem. Furthermore Bezuidenhout (1988: 165-174) contends that families may become impoverished when the soul bread winner dies or disappears without trace. This is most likely to happen in families where the mother does not earn an income and the family's income is insufficient to even meet their basic needs.

The researcher's findings showed that only 15% of the learners get supervision from their parents, and 75% receive no assistance at all which hampers their learning (cf. Graph 4.4). This can be attributed to fact that many of the male parents are staying far away and working in mines and may not be able to visit their families for long periods. Most mothers, out of anger, may complain openly to their children about their husbands' irresponsibility and the poor mind may be totally disturbed, so effective learning will not be able to take place and the learners may end up leaving school to try and earn a salary to help his/her mother.

5.4.12 Educational Aspect

The Department of Education allocates the number of posts to individual schools on the basis of the number of learners, i.e. the post provisioning model. This has proven to be disadvantageous for small rural areas where the villages are small,

there are few learners in both the primary and middle schools, and hence there are few educators.

Because of this situation, one educator offers up to 5 different learning areas in different grades and in certain instances they are not qualified or competent to teach some learning areas. This situation, coupled with lack of educational resources, poor living conditions and other negative influences hamper the achievement capabilities of learners and increases the rate of drop-outs.

Education is one of the most important social factors that influence people's lives in general and their growth, development and health in particular. It plays a decisive role in the improvement in the standard of quality of life. Owing to the fact that there seems to be a positive relationship between one's level of education and one's standard of quality of life, it can be assumed that the more educated a person is, the better are the chances of earning more and affording a higher quality of life. Although there are some uneducated people whose quality of life is relatively high, the majority of the uneducated people struggle to make ends meet. People's health is influenced by their educational standard, social class and occupational groups to which we belong. As we know, access to and attainment in education determine, by and large, the type of occupation which in turn, has a direct bearing on people's income, growth, development and health (O'Connor, 1991: 123 cited by Chuenyane, 1994: 51).

The educators mentioned the following as challenges which need immediate resolution to improve the quality of life of rural communities: Poor parental involvement in their children's education, high rate of learner absenteeism, lack of resources, inadequate staff, lack of electricity, non-payment of school funds as a

result of high rate of unemployment, high percentage of illiteracy, teenage pregnancies, poverty and health problems.

The staff members take extra classes in different grades, even though they are not specialists in some subjects. They are overworked and are therefore unable to perform to their fullest abilities. They are demoralized, unsettled and tense. There is poor class attendance by educators due to frustration resulting from parents' disinterest and their lack of involvement in their children's education. Progress is slow because educators spend more time trying to counsel unmotivated learners.

The researcher realized that there is an acute lack of parental support among the learners. The reason for this lack of support is not that the parents do not want to be involved in the education of their children but how to be involved since many of them have limited education themselves or have not attended school and can therefore not read or write (see table 4.3 and Graph 4.4 combined). Only 40% of the parents have reached Grade 7 (cf. Table 4.3) and only 15% of the learners receive parental supervision, whilst 75% of the learners receive no supervision (cf. Graph 4.4). This could be attributed to the fact that the parents are unable to assist their children who have reached a higher level of education than themselves. Such parents "push" their children to school because they are helpless. As a result, children are not properly supervised in their homework, reading, writing and any other activity related to the school.



5.4.13 Social Aspects

Apart from the educators in rural areas, there are very few people whom children can classify as role models. Also, all of the educators working in the area are not

residents of that specific rural area (cf. table 4.19). They commute daily. There are no social workers, nurses, doctors, engineers in the village to whom the children can turn to for assistance and encouragement. In a way, this results in a situation where the children just go to school for the sake of it. It can be said that they do not think much about future career prospects because of limited role modeling status.

5.4.14 Health Aspects

According to Graph 4.22, most learners describe their health condition as bad. This can also be attributed to their parents' high unemployment rate, lack of medical facilities, lack of proper nutrition, walking long distances to school in all sorts of weather, which is detrimental to the learners' physique in general. Effective education cannot take place in an unhealthy body. This is further emphasized by O'Connor (1991: 123) cited by Chuenyane (1994: 51) who maintains that, children under such circumstances are likely to be victims of retarded growth and development, feeble conceptualization, wishful thinking, and frustration that may lead to social irresponsibilities and lack of concern for the general welfare of society.

According to Bezuidenhout (1998: 165 – 174), little or irregular acquired income may cause ill health and a high mortality rate among the poor. Without adequate financial means or social support, the poor cannot purchase or acquire nutritional foodstuffs necessary to maintain their health. Those who may have opportunity to work find that their energy levels cannot cope with their workload. This not only affects their productivity, but may also lead to their being dismissed from work.

Furthermore, it is a known fact that children need sufficient nourishment enabling them to cope with the demands of formal education.

5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

5.5.1 Poverty

The recent study conducted by the Institute for Democracy in South Africa (Idasa), used survey data analysis and two poverty indicators – income and hunger – to estimate the extent of child poverty (Sowetan, 30 October 2003: 33). Children were asked about their most important needs, what budget priorities should be and what they think their president and finance minister must do for them. They gave the following answers:

First, the government must continue with its set of programmes to deliver basic and social services to children, including programmes transferring income to poor households. Many of South Africa's children still say their most urgent needs are education, food and basic services such as water and electricity. The greatest contributing factor is the income which prevents them from realizing their rights to basic health services and education. Of course, where the design of programmes excludes children, the criteria should be changed to include all children. In addition, discriminatory practices in implementing programmes needs to end and implementation speeded up.

Second, the government needs to continue prioritizing expenditure on infrastructure in the form of roads in the budget. This is because transport costs are one of the main obstacles to facilitating access to schools and health providers.

Alternatively – or in addition – cash transfers need to facilitate access to schooling and health services for all poor children.

Thirdly, according to the children, particularly young girls living in a shelter, the government needs to view development and implementation of programmes to realize socio-economic rights in tandem with programmes to realize the other rights given to children in the constitution. Children don't want to, and should not have to, trade the right to a family life for socio-economic rights.

Fourthly, in order for children to realize their rights, it is important for parents or alternate caregivers to realize their rights. This implies a need to re-visit options to create employment for unskilled labor and/or the idea of extending social assistance programmes for adults to ensure that there is greater coverage for those in need. It requires that the government and civil society focus attention on making explicit a minimum core of socio-economic rights for everyone.

Moreover, establish what services are needed to give effect to the level of entitlement implied, and how the government can make them available to everyone as a matter of urgency.

A crucial challenge that needs to be responded to is defining more precisely a holistic approach to the government's service obligations as implied by the child socio-economic rights in the constitution. This, in turn, requires interrogation of the level of entitlements implied by the socio-economic rights in the constitution and that more research is conducted into the child poverty situation to determine the extent of children lacking their basic rights.

5.5.2 Resources and Feeding Schemes

A possible response to this situation is the establishment of resource study centers in rural areas. These centers could link with educational resource networks which facilitate rural-rural and rural-urban links, providing communities with a means of getting information about wider developments as well as relevant educational materials, particularly for the youth. (Matlhasedi, Vol. 10, No. 1, December 1991: 12)

On the other hand, Griffiths (1980: 17), argues that rural schools must follow very much the same syllabi and rules as urban schools and there should be an equal chance for rural boys and girls to move up the educational ladder according to their ability, but rural science, rural studies, practical agriculture should be taught as alternatives to some of the regular items in the syllabus. In this way those who do not succeed in getting white-collar jobs would at least be partially prepared to take part in the improvement of rural life and where possible continue their agricultural training in special schools for such. Although the rural people's standard of living may not be as high as the urban's, their needs are as deserving of attention.

In addition, the issue of nutrition and school feeding schemes have received scant attention within the context of debates on post-apartheid rural education and development. It has long been recognized that a diet which has an over-dependence on mealie-pap in combination with lack of protective foods high in proteins, minerals and vitamins, result in malnutrition and vulnerability to disease which is common to rural pupils. School feeding schemes which provide balanced nutritional meals could go a long way towards preventive health care in rural areas.

This would have positive outcomes in schools as learners are more likely to realize their full potentials when freed from hunger and malnourishment.

Rural schools in themselves represent potential resources for food production which could meet the nutritional requirements of pupils. Through the allocation of arable land allotments to rural schools, self-sufficiency in production of fruit and vegetables should be feasible. This could be encouraged by state subsidies or boreholes, agricultural implants, seeds and fertilizers (Matlhasedi, Vol. 10, No. 1 December 1991: 14). However, one should note that there is going to be a problem with this approach because of the attitude of the pupils to manual work as part of the school curriculum. Furthermore, rural schools should not only concentrate on theoretical work, but also on practical work.

The difficulties experienced by pupils in rural schools emanate from the poor conditions and other unmet needs in the community, the school and in their homes. Those conditions when combined, form a situation which affects the pupil's behavior at school. Therefore any social work intervention in rural schools should take cognisance of this situation (Matlhasedi, Vol. 10, No. 1 December 1991:14).

The researcher recommends that the Department of Social Services, Arts, Culture and Science and the Department of Education should conduct a thorough research of the schools in dire need of feeding schemes. It has come to the researcher's attention that most of the schools in urban areas are not in need of such help and it is therefore a waste to provide food to them because they throw it away. Most of the parents in urban areas are employed and can, therefore, afford this basic human need.

If a thorough research can be conducted, it will indicate that most of the learners in rural areas may be the ones in dire need of nutritious food and could therefore benefit from such a scheme. So, according to the researcher, let the needy get what is supposed to belong to them for proper development and growth so that effective learning can take place, which will also avoid stunted growth and development which is a serious problem in most rural areas.

5.5.3 Educational Aspects

In its implementation of the post provisioning model, the Department of Education should be encouraged to sympathetically assist rural schools. They should give them enough educators and also help with educational resources like libraries, laboratories and books, etc. This will ease the burden on the learners so that they should not be the victims of rural circumstances at home and also in the school. A further recommendation is to merge (join) primary and secondary schools together so that they may be able to pull resources together. According to Policy Handbook for Educators (2003: 7), Section 4, Chapter 2, the Member of Executive Council may, by notice in the Provincial Gazette, merge two or more public further education and training institutions into a single institution.

The interviewed educators suggested the following to lessen or combat such challenges as mentioned in 5.4.12: The state should fully take responsibility for funding the rural schools with resources. Principals, school governing bodies and educators' concerns should be taken into consideration by the department when taking decisions. The members of executive councils (MECs) for education must visit schools in rural areas to assess their needs for development and job creation.

Non governmental organizations(NGO's) and members of the business sector should be invited to schools for sponsors and fundraising.

The Department of Education should introduce Adult Basic Education and Training centers (ABET) in rural schools. Most parents have not gone far with education and introducing ABET can improve their level of education and can give them the ability to be able to help their children with homework and other educational matters.

5.5.4 Capacity Building Exercise

There should be an overall intensive capacity building exercise aimed specifically at rural parents carried out either by the Department of Rural Development, Local Council or any other structure. Such program may include rural job creation, plant growth for sustainable development and rural development. These exercises will go a long way in helping the parents to take an active part in the education of their children. Such exercises should be inclusive of all stakeholders, for example, tribal chiefs and their structures, women's groups and the youth.

Tribal meetings could be arranged with the help of schools, whereby prominent speakers or professionals are invited. The idea behind this is to encourage rural people (learners) not to regard their condition as a barrier to their future success but rather as challenges.

5.5.5 Diagnosis of needs in rural areas

The researchers aligns herself with Wagner, cited by Zalewska (1993: 192) who advocates that the Department of Social Services, Arts, Culture and Science, should therefore, analyze and diagnose the needs of the children from rural areas in the domains of:

- improvement of their health and conducting resocialization.
- help to regain psychic and emotional balance.
- help in the situations of school problems.
- making up for the effects of social deprivations (i.e. housing conditions, educational attainments, etc.)
- initiation in and preparation for independent problem-solving.

5.6 CONCLUSION

With the current changes taking place in South Africa, it is inevitable that rural education will benefit from the restructuring of the education system and the reallocation of funds. In contradiction however, Lawrence and Paterson (1991) cited by Graaf (1987: 15), maintain that the problems of rural education will not be wholly redressed by the above changes because they are more complex than it is considered or known. Graaf attributes this to the ignorance to what is taking place in the rural schools because more attention is given to urban schools.



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Structured Interview

This structured interview is classified into questions that were directed **ONLY** to educators (E) and those that were directed **ONLY** to parents (P), as well as those directed to **BOTH** parents and educators (P&E).

APPENDIX A

SECTION A (Demographic Data)

1. Age(P&E)

20 – 30		1
31 – 40		2
41 – 50		3
50+		4

2. Sex (P&E)

Male		1
Female		2

3. Religion (P&E)

Protestants	1
Catholics	2
Zionists	3
Other (Specify)	4

4. School Enrollment (E)

Less than 400	1
Between 400 and 800	2
More than 800	3

SECTION B (Challenges Facing the School Which May Hamper the Learning Abilities of the Children)

5. How would you describe the economic background of learners in the school? (E)

Low socio-economic	1
Moderate	2
High	3

6. Mention any 5 facilities available in the school for effective running of the school. (P&E)

7. There are a number of challenges in your school which can hamper the effective running of the school.

7.1. List all those challenges since 2002 (E)

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7.2. What do you think can be done to lessen/combat such challenges? (E)

7.3. What do staff members do with regard to these challenges? (Any special effort or action taken) (E)

7.4. How are the staff members affected by such challenges? (E)

7.5. How do you cope with such challenges, and how do you think learners cope with them? (E)

7.6. When did stakeholders come on board for professional help? (E)

7.7. List areas which affected you in relation to these challenges. (E)

8. Describe issues which you regard as challenges to the following:

8.1. Learners' Parents (P&E)

8.2. Staff (P&E)

8.3. Learners (P&E)

8.4. Physical Resources (E)

8.5. Financial Resources (P&E)

8.6. Community as a Whole (P&E)

8.7. List other challenges in the management of change in schools. (E)

8.8. How would you describe your health? (P)

Good		1
Average		2
Bad		3
Uncertain		4

THE QUESTIONS BELOW WERE ADDRESSED ONLY TO PARENTS

8.9. What is the highest standard that you have passed?

8.10. Are you employed, or what is your source of income?

8.11. What is your monthly income?

8.12. How are you involved in your child(ren)'s education?

8.13. What type of house do you live in?

8.14. How many bedrooms are there?

8.15. What is the number of occupants in the house?

8.16. How much time does it take your child to get to school?

8.17. What means of transport does your child use to get to school?

8.18. Does your child eat lunch at school?

8.19. How would you describe your child's health?

9. Suggest ways in which Change could be managed

APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRE

A. INSTRUCTIONS

- a. Tick X in the appropriate box.
- b. Do not tick more than one box.
- c. Specify where asked to do so.

B. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. AGE

14 - 18	
19 - 22	
23 - 30	
31 - 45	

2. SEX

Male	
Female	

3. RELIGION

Protestant	
Catholic	
Zionist	
OTHER (Specify)	

4. How far did your parent or guardian go as far as education is concerned?

No schooling	
Grade 1 to Grade 7	
Grade 8 to Grade 9	
Grade 10 to Grade 11	
Grade 12 Diploma or Certificate	
Post Matric Qualification	

5. How much does your family earn monthly?

R100 - R499	
R500 - R999	
R1 000 - R1 499	
R1 500 - R1 999	
OTHER (Specify)	

C. BOOKS

6. Do you have books and other school requirements, do your parents afford to buy them?

Always	
Sometimes	
Not at All	

7. Which facilities are there in your community?

Good Bus Service	
Study Center	
Library	
Community Hall	
Health Center	

8. What level of education do you want to reach?

Lower than Grade 9	
Grade 10 - Grade 12	
Tertiary Education	
Uncertain	

9. How are your educators when you need help?

Never helpful	
Sometimes helpful	
Always helpful	

10. How do you study when you don't have study material?

Have study material	
Do without	
Borrow from friends	
Use school books	
OTHER (Specify)	

11. Facilities available at your school are:

Sports Equipment	
Laboratory	
Library	
Classrooms	
Electricity	
Water	
OTHER (Specify)	

12. Which career do you want to pursue? (Please write them in order of preference)

1.		
2.		
3.		

13. Who is your care giver at home?

Mother	
Father	
Grandparents	
Guardian	
OTHER (Specify)	

14. How much are your parents involved in your education?

Always involved	
Sometimes involved	
Never involved	

D. HOUSING

15. at type of house are you staying in?

Mud	
Cement	
Shack	
OTHER (Specify)	

16. How many bedrooms are there in your house?

1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	
6 +	

17. How many are you in that house?

Number of Children	Less than 10 years	
	10 to 18 years	
Number of Adults		

FOR OFFICIAL USE	
House Overcrowded	
House not crowded	

E. ROBLEM AREAS

18. How much time does it take you to get to school?

Less than 20 minutes	
21 - 40 minutes	
41 - 60 minutes	
61 - 80 minutes	
81 - 100 minutes	
OTHER (Specify)	

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19. What means of transport do you use to travel to school?

Bus	
Walking	
Taxi	
OTHER (Specify)	

20. How far is your school from home? (Approximation in km)

1 - 3	
4 - 6	
7 - 9	
10 - 12	
13 - 15	
16 - 18	

21. What do you use when you study for lighting your room?

Electricity	
Gas	
Paraffin	
Candle	

22. What type of breakfast do you usually have in the morning?

1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		

FOR OFFICIAL USE					
	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
Proper Breakfast					
Reasonable					
Improper					
Nothing					

23. Who supervises your homework?

Sibling	
Parent	
Guardian	
No one	
OTHER (SPECIFY)	

24. Where do you study?

Home	
School	
Both of the Above	
OTHER (Specify)	

25. What prevents you from studying?

No problems	
Too many chores to perform	
Bad lighting	
No study space	
Interference from family	
OTHER(Specify)	

26. Where do your educators reside?

In the same village with me	
Not in the same village as me	

27. How much time do you allocate to your homework?

None	
30 - 60 minutes	
61 - 90 minutes	
91 - 120 minutes	
121 - 150 minutes	
150 +	

28. What do you have for lunch at school?

Lunch Box	
Pocket Money	
Feeding Scheme	
Nothing	
OTHER (Specify)	

29. How do you spend your leisure time?

Cycling	
Swimming	
Sports-grounds	
Sleeping	
Television	
Reading	
OTHER (Specify)	

F. HEALTH

30. How would you describe your health?

Good	
Average	
Bad	
Uncertain	



TLAPENG

TLA-PENG

