SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS AND THEIR IMPACT
ON SCHOLASTIC PERFORMANCE (ACHIEVEMENT)

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DECLARATION

I declare that SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS AND THEIR IMPACT ON SCHOLASTIC PERFORMANCE (ACHIEVEMENT) is my own work and that all sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

M.P MASHILWANE

7-12-01
DATE
I DEDICATE THIS STUDY TO MY
LATE FATHER

MAMOCHICHI BETHUEL MAKOLA
(The first teacher to pass matric at Lobethal)

MAY HIS SOUL REST IN PEACE
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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to examine the impact of socio-economic factors on scholastic performance (achievement) of learners in the secondary school. The study was conducted in the Southern Region of the Northern Province, in the Nebo District. The Southern Region, which is made up of basically Nebo and Sekhukhune, forms part of the former Lebowa and is basically rural.

A literature study was conducted, which unravelled and brought into surface factors of social and economic nature, which are contrary to effective learning and contributes towards poor performance, especially in public secondary schools. Literature study revealed that learners from disadvantaged backgrounds especially in the rural communities have their learning process heavily affected and disturbed by social and economic factors.

An empirical survey was also conducted to establish the views and opinions of parents, educators and the learners themselves. A qualitative research method was used. Letebele Marishane Secondary School in Ngwaritsi circuit was used as a case study. Educators completed questionnaire whilst learners and parents were engaged in focus group interviews (discussion groups). Information gathered through observations was also taken into account.
Both the literature review and the empirical survey agreed that the learner’s background that is his/her family, home environment; his/her neighbourhood and other factors of economic and social nature can impact positively or negatively on performance in the classroom. That is, according to information gathered, learners from advantaged backgrounds stand a better chance in the classroom than learners from disadvantaged backgrounds. It is evident therefore that poverty that prevails amongst the rural communities impacts on learning and performance in the examination and other classroom activities.
CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL ORIENTATION

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

It is common knowledge that as communities develop, one of the major responsibilities of adults is to see to the education of the youth. It is the responsibility of each society to ensure that the youth access education that is hassle free. Suttner & Cronin (1996:186) reminds us of the African National Congress’s Article VIII of the Freedom Charter which states “The doors of learning and culture shall be opened for all”. Despite this, learning amongst the underprivileged communities has never been easy. Compounding this is the fact that performance has in many instances been affected by disadvantaged backgrounds whose membership is more apt to exhibit learning problems. Sutter & Cronin further elaborate that a child with relatively normal intelligence can perform poorly at school because of learning problems.

Information gathered from novels like Thoko, Comfort Herself, When Rain Clouds Gather and Weep Not Child, reveal that, to most Blacks, education has been and is still a privilege, (Mutinich 1996, Kaye 1996, Head 1995, Ngugi wa Thiong’o 1986).

Social and economics conditions affect education even in First World countries like the USA. (Kotlowitz 1991:13).
Kallaway (1984:136) describes how Bantu Education evolved into a social problem and regards it as an ‘Unfinished Business’. It was used to divide the nation, resulting in inevitable hatred as the gap between cultures widened. The schools for the sons of chiefs were also used as weapons to divide blacks, as the future chiefs were separated from the people they were supposed to lead (Marishane 1992:26).

One of the problems is that learners from disadvantaged background, because of the situation they find themselves in, end up carrying family responsibilities instead of concentrating on their school work (Naidoo 1985:2). These are attributed to the fact that other factors outside the classroom like family setup, environment and cultural values and norms in most instances are contrary to the demands of learning.

One other factor that has been frustrating for both teachers and learners, is a question of needs that are not satisfied (Kotlowitz 1991:32 and Zaroulis 1993:5). The South African history has it that deprivation and inequalities angered blacks so much that the demand for change, in the form of strikes and demonstrations, had in many occasions, even to date, held Black education hostage through strikes. In the process, the health of education of the underprivileged suffered as learners drifted away from their teachers and found new masters outside the teaching profession, to control and misguide them, (TUATU, July-August 1990).

In some instances, South African Black education has always been characterized by frustrations which led to underachievement, drop outs, financial and academic exclusion
(Zaroulis 1993; Mali 1994; Purnell 1994; Pampallis 2000; Clark; 1994 and SADTU News; October 1999). These frustrations become vivid and are best described by newspaper headlines like: Teachers under fire; Students must take education seriously; High school building set alight; A noble profession under scrutiny; Teachers face empty classrooms and Priest called in to drive evil spirit from school girls (Sowetan, September 27, 1999; City Press, September 12, 1999; City Press, November 7, 1999; City Press, October 3, 1999; City Press, November 14, 1999 and Drum, July 1, 1999).

1.1.1 Delimitation of the Study

This study is conducted in the Northern Province, which is chosen because, unlike other provinces in South Africa, it is predominantly rural in character and poverty is pervasive. The inhabitants of particularly rural areas in the province are far from facilities and employment opportunities often available in urban areas and in many other cases, and are inaccessible to outside relief from aid workers (DBSA 1998:43).

The Northern Province shows an interesting amalgamation of three main lifestyle categories, which are, namely; Mpumalanga, Farmlands and Miners Glory. This study concentrates on Mpumalanga's lifestyle category which covers the former self-governing territories of Lebowa and Gazankulu in the province. This lifestyle is characterised by a high population density of many females and a very young population. The people mainly speak Northern Sotho with some few Tsongas most of whom are without basic education. People live mainly in traditional dwellings with many homes fully paid off. The most prevalent household size is six and has the highest number of people who are
unemployed. For the few who are employed, the average per capita income is between R1000 and R5000. The population is predominantly African (HSRC, 1&2).

Despite the fact that the education system in South Africa is struggling to provide quality education: “The Northern Province’s education system lags behind those of the other provinces. The literacy rate in the Northern Province was 73.6% in 1991, while average literacy in South Africa was 82.2% in normal schools; because of learning disabilities” (DBSA 1998:49).

The Southern Region of the Northern Province is characterised by Mpumalanga lifestyle. It is made up of two main areas, namely, Nebo and Sekhukhune, which are predominantly Pedi speaking. Nebo has, according to educational administrative purposes, been divided into seven circuits which are Phokwane, Glen-Cowie, Eensaam, Lepelle, Masemola, Lobethal and Ngwaritsi. The Northern Province has been ranking last in matric results for many years whilst in the province itself, the Southern Region has always come last, with an average percentage pass which has hardly gone beyond 40% in the last seven years, that is, since 1994.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The proposed study raises concerns, thus:

- How do social factors impact on the education of secondary school learners in the Southern Region of the Northern Province?
How do economic factors impact on education of secondary school learners in the Southern Region of the Northern Province?

Does socio-economic factors have any impact on effective learning and thus affecting performance of learners in the Southern Region of the Northern Province?

1.3 AIM OF THE STUDY

The study hopes to:

- Investigate the impact of socio-economic factors on learning in the secondary schools.
- Examine the extent at which learners with socio-economic problems could be supported in order that effective learning could be enhanced.
- Recommend to the government and all other stakeholders, support measures (best suited for the rural setting) that could be applied to support learners with learning problems emanating from socio-economic factors.

1.4 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

1.4.1 Socio-economic factors

This refers to situations under which different cultures, families, etc., live and their ability to meet and acquire basic needs. For this study, investigation will be done on the learner’s environment and community, the type of livelihoods that they depend on for their basic needs and others.
This study adopts Hallahan’s (1994:243) view that children from disadvantaged backgrounds are more apt to exhibit learning problems. Other causes of learning problems that are common amongst the disadvantaged are, for example, visual, hearing or motor handicaps, mental retardation and so on. In his discussion of learning problems he concentrates on learners with emotional disturbances, environmental, cultural and economic disadvantages.

1.4.2 Effective Learning

Learning is a change in behaviour occurring under conditions of practice. Learning is not always improvement in behaviour. In some cases when wrong things are learned, for example, there is no benefit to the learner.

However, learning should be distinguished from changes in behaviour due to maturation. Learning is the initial process of storing information. Storage and retrieval have always been involved in learning (Halsey & Johnston 1986:418).

Halsey and Johnston further elaborate on principles of more effective learning. They indicate that, although there are a number of principles of learning, such as the relationship between practice and performance, research has uncovered some less obvious principles that are useful in many situations. They bring in encoding of information and distribution of practice as principles of effective learning (Hasley & Johnston 1986:421).
On the encoding of information, when a person learns something, it is important to know not only what it has been learned but also what aspects of it have been learned. That is, meaningful encoding is the single most important factor in effective school learning. It is during this phenomenon that careful attention is given to the meaning of the lesson. In some cases, a third method, visual imagery, can be an even more successful form of study (Hasley & Johnston 1986:420). The more vivid the image is, the more easy it will later be to remember that the two items go together. In cases where there is no simple, automatic way to visualize the item, one must rely on meaningful encoding. The main point is that it is not only the amount of time and effort devoted to practice that make for effective learning, it is also the kind of practice that also makes a difference (Hasley & Johnston 1986:421).

1.4.3 Poverty

Poverty is defined as the inability to attain a minimum standard of living measured in terms of a household’s ability to meet its basic consumption needs or the income required to satisfy them. Usually this is stated in relation to a poverty line which is an income level or monetary value of consumption which separates the poor from the non-poor (SA Health Review 1999:3).

Haralambos (1988:92) and Townroe & Yates (1996:286) regard poverty as a social problem. In their definitions they identify three types of poverty, namely, absolute poverty, relative poverty and subjective poverty. According to their argument, it was initially believed that poverty was caused by defects of character such as idleness, ill
discipline and inability to plan for the future. They also bring in the culture of poverty that indicates that poverty passes from generation to generation in a cycle of deprivation because the children of the poor are socialized into the subculture of poverty.

1.4.4 Culture

Byram in Makola (1996:15) defines culture as customs and shared values of a given social group. Byram refers to culture as “the knowledge and practices of people belonging to particular social groups, like national groups”. According to the American anthropologist Elyde Kluchohn, as outlined in Makola (1996:15), culture consists of different individuals who adjust to social life and learn creative expressions. Brown (1983:24), on the other hand, defines culture as “the context within which we exist, think, feel and relate to others, whilst, Hudson (1980:74) regards it as socially acquired knowledge.

All the above definitions stress the fact that no society can exist without a culture. Each member of a society is expected to have shared knowledge of how to behave when in contact with other members of the same speech community.
1.4.5 The Northern Province

Map 1.1 Nine Provinces of South Africa.
The Northern Province straddles the Tropic of Capricorn and forms a small landmass, widening gradually southwards. It borders Botswana, Zimbabwe and Mozambique on the northern side, while its southern borders are shared with Mpumalanga, Gauteng and the North-West provinces. The province covers 116 824 square km or 9.6% of the total surface of South Africa (DBSA 1998:1).

According to research done in 1994 it was estimated that by the year 2000 the population of the province would be 6.1 million people. Based on an average annual increase of 2.19%, the population will approximate 6.8 million people by the year 2005 (DBSA 1998:1). Over 41% of the inhabitants are younger than 15 years of age, making it the province with the second highest proportion of children in the country. This is because children are often left with their mothers and grandparents while their fathers migrate to seek work in the industrialized Gauteng. Another reason is that, parents in urban areas often send their children to live with relatives in rural areas. The large number of women is one other reason that contributes to high population growth in the province. Women make 57% of the adult population. In the rural areas in the former homelands of Venda, Gazankulu and Lebowa, most women live in abject poverty, and have little, if any, access to family planning (DBSA 1998:1).

Compared to the rest of South Africa, the population density in the province is above average at 45.6 people per square km, whilst the level of functional urbanization is far below average at 32.4%. Most urban concentration occurs in the vicinities of Pietersburg, Seshgo, Thabamoopo and Thohoyandou. Between 1985 and 1994 the level of the
functional urbanization increased by 7.5% per year, compared with the South African average of 3.3%, which became the highest growth in the country (DBSA 1998:4).

Northern Sotho is the home language of approximately 62% of the population. Xitsonga is spoken by 26.5% and Afrikaans by 3.6%. Eight percent of the inhabitants speak a variety of the languages, of which Luvenda is spoken by 1.1% of the inhabitants of the province (DBSA 1998:4).

The Human Development Index of the province is the lowest as compared to the rest of South Africa. It is on par with Lesotho and Myanmar in South East Asia; two countries with low human development indexes (DBSA 1998:4). The low level human development index of the inhabitants of the province, correlates with the severity of poverty in the region. According to SALDRU (1993) survey results there are nearly 608 000 poor households, and 3.6 million poor people in the Northern Province, which is approximately 62% of households and 69% of individuals. Almost 1.9 million of these are children (DBSA 1998:5) and hence socio-economic reconstruction and development continues to be a major challenge facing the province.
Map 1.2 Northern Province Sub-regions
1.4.6 Sub-regions

The province was divided into six sub-regions which became seven in the year 2000 when Bushbuckridge became a region on its own. They are:

- The Bushveld Region is formed by the Western districts. The main urban complex in this region is Thabazimbi.
- The Western Region is made up of the districts of Mokerong and Potgietersrus.
- The Central Region consists of the districts around Pietersburg.
- The Northern Region includes the eastern districts around Letaba.
- The Southern Region is the Nebo-Sekhukhune Area.
- The Lowveld Region includes the Eastern districts around Letaba

(DBSA 1998:20)

1.4.6.1 Southern Region

The Southern Region has approximately 786 000 people, 430,000 of whom live in Sekhukhuneland and the rest in Nebo. The formal urbanization level is 7.5% and there is the density of 117.4 people per square km (DBSA 1998:39)

The economy in the region is and remains vulnerable to external shocks and has a stress index of 70.5%. Although the region is predominantly rural, agriculture in the region grew at a negative rate of 9.5% (DBSA 1998:39).
1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In every successfully carried out study, methods are the tools of the researcher’s trade. There are a variety of social research methods available. All the researcher needs is how to use them and when they should be used. Social research methods can be grouped into those that are concerned with collecting data and those that are used to convert data into information. In both cases the categories can be subdivided further into, amongst others, quantitative and qualitative research methods. For this study, qualitative research method will be chosen for its relevancy (Bailey 1995:103).

1.5.1 Qualitative Research Method

This is chosen because it is a non-quantitative approach to educational research in which the context is not controlled and the number of participants studied, is small because time-intensive methods like interviews and observations are used (Gay & Airasian 2000:16). Again, the method is not rigid and therefore gives room to different perspectives and contexts. It also allows difference of opinion and provides insights into what people believe and feel about the way things are and how they came to be the way they are. It deals with the basics as it involves people at different levels in order to achieve different levels of understanding (Gay & Airasian 2000:18).

Finally, this method will be used because the envisaged outcomes are in a descriptive form and no counting will be involved/used (Bailey 1995:102).
1.5.2 Case Study

A case study shall be used as the basis and a point of departure of this study. The study shall be conducted in the Southern Region of the Northern Province. This region was chosen because of its rural nature and because it is characterized by social and economic problems. The region has six districts for educational control purposes. The districts are Nebo, Sekhukhune, Apel, Magakala, Demilton and Bohlabela.

Letebele Marishane Senior Secondary School was chosen for the fact that it is situated at Ngwaritsi Circuit in the Nebo District where the setting is predominantly rural and the learners are from different rural communities (mostly Phaahla, Marishane, Tisane and Mamone). The learners at this school are from diverse social and economic backgrounds that represent extremes in as far as family settings are concerned. Educators, parents and learners in Grade 8 to 12 will be interviewed. Outcomes of observations by the researcher that was gathered over a number of years, as an educator and particularly a headmistress at this school will be taken into account too.

1.5.3 Data Collection

Data collection refers to the fieldwork that is embarked upon after the researchers have gained entry into a setting and have selected participants (Gay & Airasian 2000:211).

There is a distinction between the use of quantitative and qualitative methods for collecting data. In quantitative approach, information is collected on things that could be
counted whereas in qualitative research, concern is on information about things that are less understood by counting them (Moore 2000:102).

The researcher will use a variety of sources for collecting qualitative data in conducting this study. Sources to be used are observations, focus group interviews, documents, recordings, sketches, Internet and informal conversations. The reason behind this choice is for the sake of gathering and understanding individuals and group views whilst literature review will enable the researcher to have insight into documented information about the subject.

1.5.3.1 Observations

Observations can take many forms in qualitative research. The researcher can choose to be involved either as an observer who can be a participant or a non-participant. In qualitative observational research emphasis is on understanding the natural environment. The amount and kind of observation that is appropriate for a given study is determined by the nature of the study (Gay & Airsian 2000:212).

There are ethical issues that the researcher will have to take into cognizance especially because the subject of research is people. The researcher will also consider the fact that all the people involved have the right to know that they are being observed and, therefore, necessary precautions will be taken to minimize change in behaviour. The anonymity of the participants will be preserved too.
The learners’ conduct inside and outside the classroom shall be observed. Amongst others, the researcher will look at their behaviour, emotions, relationship formation, morale, team spirit, respect, neatness, participation in, for example, extra-mural activities, communication skills, leadership skills and many others.

1.5.3.2 Literature Study

No research project exists in isolation. Each work relates in some way to the environment within which research takes place. It relates to the theories and concepts that have been developed to explain the environmental conditions and also to other researches on the topic. In this study, for the sake of coherence and relevancy, full account of what has gone before and what is going on presently will be taken into account. The researcher will therefore gather relevant data pertaining to the study problem from different sources that were carefully and critically examined; evaluated; classified and objectively recorded. The problem will be described as it prevailed during the period of research. The researcher will therefore make a careful selection and study of newspaper articles, books, journals, papers delivered at public gatherings, governmental publications, findings from HSRC and DBSA, publications by UNESCO and others, and shall also acknowledge contributions by literature study, which will be interpreted (Marishane 1999:9).

1.5.3.3 Focus Group Interviews

Focus groups are commonly known as group discussions. In focus groups, people are urged to consider how they feel about issues in the light of other people’s feelings. Members of the group interact. In the process, it is important that people moderate their
views, react to different perspectives and manage their disagreements. In a proper focus group, no set of questions are directed to each member of the group and members do not just respond to the interviewer all the time but the interviewer chairs the discussion, steering it occasionally and ensuring that everyone has a say.

This study will use, together with other data collection procedures, focus group interviews in order to obtain a variety of views and opinions from learners, educators and parents. The views of groups and individuals gathered through interviews and observations will be carefully analyzed and interpreted. Findings and facts gathered, which are relevant socio-economics factors like the family background, parent’s level of education, parents income, teachers findings and learners own contributions, will be carefully scrutinized.

1.5.4 Data Analysis

After gathering information, the data collected will be analyzed before being interpreted. The reason for data analysis in this study is to ensure that the collected data is clearly described, comparison is made and the research questions are answered.

Data collected in this investigation will be arranged according to categories used for collection, namely, parents, educators and learners. Only the qualitative analysis approach will be followed in order to analyze data collected through questionnaires, observations and the interviewing process.
1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The study will help understand the level of achievements by learners from different socio-economic backgrounds. It will, for instance, be understood why the Northern Province usually comes last in the final examination matric results as compared to other provinces like, for instance, Gauteng, Western Cape and others. It is also hoped that recommendations made will probably help to influence policy, which will help enhance learning among the disadvantaged.

1.7 SAMPLING –

Sampling is the process of selecting individuals for participation in a research study. That is, a sample is selected from a larger group referred to as population. A sample is used to get information about the population (Gay & Airasian 2000:126).

Sampling will be used in this study because, as Foreman (1991:1) indicates, inductive reasoning based on samples is very much part of our daily lives. In addition, Berdie (1986:10) points out that the survey can be done at less expense and in less time whereas the quality of the data collected will normally be the best.

Stratified random sampling will be used. This type of sampling organizes the population into homogeneous subsets, leaving room for heterogeneity (Bailey 1995:87). Rather than selecting the sample from the entire population, it ensures that appropriate number of elements is drawn from homogeneous subsets of that population. A greater degree of
representatives is obtained whilst the possibility of sampling errors are decreased (Foreman 1991:32).

For this study, Letebele Marishane Senior School in Ngwaritsi Circuit, Nebo District in the Southern Region of the Northern Province, will be used as a case study. The school forms 10% of the Senior Secondary Schools in Ngwaritsi, and it is strategically situated in such a way that it is easily accessible by learners from different villages in the Circuit. The target population will be parents, educators and learners. A random sample of 10% will be drawn from each subset, namely, parents, educators and learners.

Learners who, according to the school survey of 2001, fall within different categories of Learners with Special Educational Needs (LSEN) will be used in the survey irrespective of gender, age and grade. A simple random sample of 10% will be drawn from this population. Methods enumerated above will be used to gather information.

1.8 RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

In order to answer questions that may come up from the research problem and achieve the aim of this study, the structure of the research is divided as follows:

Chapter 1 deals with general orientation and covers aspects such as background to study, statement of the problem, aim of the study, definition of concepts, research methodology, data collection, significant of the study and sampling.
Chapter 2 deals with literature review, which investigates different scholars' views on the relationship between effective learning and good performance against the socio-economic factors.

Chapter 3 covers design and methodology of the empirical research looking into the impact of socio-economic factors on learning in secondary school. Participants in observation and focus group interviews are mainly members of the trio in education, that is, learners educators and parents as well as other stakeholders with an interest in the education of, especially, the disadvantaged learners.

Chapter 4 analyses and interprets all information gathered through literature studies, observations and interviews. Research findings, recommendations and conclusions are also dealt with.

1.9 SUMMARY

This chapter introduced a problem of socio-economic factors that prevail amongst the secondary school learners in the Southern Region of the Northern Province, Nebo Area in particular, which threatens effective learning.

Investigation shows that the environment of the learner (that is home, community and so on) has a bearing on a learner's extent of coping in the classroom. The problem was formulated, followed by the aim of the study, definition of concepts, research
methodology, data collection, significance of the study, sampling procedures and research framework.

Chapter Two will consist of literature review on the socio-economic status and its impact on scholastic performance (achievement).
CHAPTER TWO

SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS AND ITS IMPACT ON SCHOLASTIC PERFORMANCE (ACHIEVEMENT)

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Education is a universal human right and should therefore aim at the development of the intellectual, moral, physical and aesthetic capabilities of individual children. It should also contribute to the improvement of society economically and, depending on circumstances, politically and socially. That is, besides the first level of basic schooling being available to all children regardless of race, language, religion, sex, social class and place of residence, the second level or secondary education and indeed higher education should also be accessible to all (Holmes 1987:7).

Education should be aimed at unlocking the hidden potentials of an individual by tapping that part of the brain that has never been activated before. Magama (1991:10) sites the views of Hysloop and Elliot that, to most blacks, education is a privilege because of poverty which is aggravated by the fact that education for blacks, in most cases, has always been divorced from the needs of the community; and worst of all, not relevant to the workplace. To those who were fortunate enough to go to school, on completion, they would not have the skills that the workplace requires. This finds relevancy in the theory
of cultural deprivation, which provides the standard explanation for the widespread
failure of learners from low-income families (Haralambos 1988:207).

In 1965 at Kliptown, a Freedom Charter was adopted. Clause 8 of the charter indicates
that the doors of learning and culture shall be opened. It sets out principles of free,
universal, compulsory and equal education, promises to wipe out illiteracy and
undertakes to remove all cultural, sporting and educational colour bars (Readers’ Digest
1995:379 and Boutros-Ghali 2000:8). This according to (Sadker & Sadker 1991:2)
implies that there should be equal educational opportunities according to which every
student should be given a chance to develop fully whatever talents, interest and abilities
he/she may have, without regard to race, colour, national origin, sex, handicap or
economic status.

The constitution of the Republic of South Africa also emphasizes the fact that everyone
has the right to basic education (RSA Constitution 1996:14). The government must,
therefore, ensure that everyone receives basic education by, for instance, building
schools, staffing schools with well qualified teachers, ensuring that structures and
resources are available at schools and that good standard of education is maintained
(SASA 1997:5).

A school is the only public institution in the life of a growing child that stands between
the family and the job market. It is the school that should inculcate in the children the
prevailing social norms, values and behaviours that will prepare them for participation in
the large working class culture. A school serves as a minor of the norms of the large class and economic system (Cuban 1984:240). Above all, according to Walters (1997:39), schools should be better places for the students to learn; the disadvantaged learners in particular.

On the contrary, a good proportion, that is, 19.3% of the South African population aged twenty years and above, has never been to school. This tendency of no schooling is highest in the predominantly rural Northern Province standing at 36.9%. It is also evident that no-schooling is much higher in rural areas than in urban areas. This has notable implications on teaching and learning in South Africa which, especially amongst blacks, is characterized by lack of support to learners; an element that is at the centre of effective teaching and learning. This is due to low literacy levels of the parent population (EFA 2000:4).

2.2 THE EFFECT OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS ON SCHOLASTIC PERFORMANCE.

In his address at the millennium summit in September 2000, the Secretary General of the United Nations raised a concern about the impact of extreme poverty and indicated that it makes many other problems worse. He mentioned that job opportunities could not be well taken care of. He commented on the adverse impact of poverty on education and how social norms can affect education. According to him, most of the world’s individual families are involved in poverty stark choices. In such cases schooling is often expensive, girls are a traditional source of free household labour and parents are not confident that
an educated daughter will benefit the family as much as an educated son. To overcome this difference between household priorities and those of the society at large, families need support from their local communities and governments, backed by the wider world. Generating employment opportunities for women would have a similar effect (Annan 2000:19).

According to the United Nation Development report of 2000, the violation of human rights is far larger in the economic and social areas, throughout the world. Hence, on the eve of the UN conference in Geneva, which was meant to review world poverty targets, the Oxfarm report raised a concern that the lives of 17 million children will be needlessly lost in the year 2000. This owing to mainly to the fact that world governments have failed to reduce poverty levels (Gule 2000:14).

According to Alexander (2000:1096), children reared in poverty have poorer physical and mental health and do worse in school. They also experience more punitive discipline styles and abuse. Such children live in poorer neighbourhoods and are likely to engage in deviant or delinquent acts. They suffer from a variety of ailments at higher rates than affluent children, and that obviously affects their attendance and performance at school.

As indicated by the National Council on Family Relations, as many as twelve million children each year go without food at some point every month. They, therefore, suffer the immediate pain of hunger and eventually the long-term consequences of malnutrition. It goes without saying that without proper nutrition children are in a weakened state.
They run the risk of more frequent colds ear infections and other infectious diseases as well as impaired brain function and stunned growth and are more vulnerable to environment toxins.

The worst is that, whilst living in poor families puts children at a higher risk for serious medical problems, often those problems go untreated (Alexander 2000:1102).

It is evident from the findings by National Council on Family Relations of November 2000, that children living in poverty have more socio-emotional and behavioural problems and are more likely to suffer from depression and social withdrawal. They also have peer relationship difficulties, and low self-esteem. They suffer from behavioural and conduct disorders and eventually do poorly in school. It is further said by Alexander (2000:1103) that the association between poverty and youth problem behaviours may be explained by possible links among educational quality, home environments and academic failure, which in turn may prompt or sustain misbehaviour or emotional distress in school.

This further indicates that, in general, children from poor family backgrounds receive lower scores on standardized tests and lower grades in tests and exams. They are, therefore, unlikely to finish high school, and are less likely to attend or graduate from college than are youth from families which are not poor. Townroe & Yates (1996:186) agree with the above findings and go further to elaborate more on the reason for dropping out. According to them, pupils from poor families are less likely to remain
in education after the school-leaving age and are more likely to try to get a job. This is because in neighbourhoods where the jobs people do and the status they hold owe little to their education, it is natural for children as they grow older to regard school as a brief prelude to work rather than as an avenue to future opportunities.

According to the “Overview of the Northern Province Education System”, Draft 1, as submitted to UNESCO on 27 March 2000, educational effectiveness is implicated by many other factors which the Northern Province government, in particular, needs to attend to concomitantly. This is, if it needs to make a positive dent on educational attainment among learners in the long run. The publication brings in the socio-economic environment and how to a large extent it impacts on whether or not parents will send kids to school and provide them with the necessities and moral support for learning success (Gule 2000:15).

The family stability and guidance necessary for children to excel in school is affected by the prevalence of migrant labour out of the Province. The parents cannot give the schools the expected support because of the socio-economic conditions in the Province. This is due to the fact that, in an environment where parents are struggling to make ends meet, it is highly likely that education, whilst important, may not get a fair share of family’s resources and attention hence high drop-out rates, poor attendance or absenteeism (Gule 2000:15).
2.3 THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPLICATIONS OF EDUCATION FOR THE MAJORITY OF SOUTH AFRICANS

It is evident that education for the majority of South Africans is characterized by problems, which are not conducive to learning. This is due to, among other things, the fact that black families are in most cases large and, as Pallas (1999:166) indicates, having many siblings limits an individual child’s access to educational support materials. That is, coming from a non-traditional family and having many siblings have in general a negative influence on educational performance. As it is, family background is important for educational success and contemporary inequality in these background attributes help to explain racial gaps in achievement.

It is also evident, for example that Blacks invest in their children’s education differently as daughters are somewhat more unlikely than sons to be the recipients of parental investment in cultural capital and education (Pallas 1999:167).

Within the majority of South Africans a very high premium is possibly placed on school education and the positive influence of the school on the learner. It is believed that school education can open many doors in life and this leads to homes simply handing over the responsibility of educating the child. Adolescents from the majority of disadvantaged communities find it hard to improve their abilities so that their school performance could improve. Their problem is that, as much as they are concerned about their future, they have doubts as to whether they would be able to meet future demands and regard education as an important means towards future security (Duminy 1991:45).
The researcher’s view, based on practical experiences, is that the Southern region; especially the magisterial districts of Nebo and Sekhukhune, was seriously affected by the aftermath of Soweto uprisings ten years later when schools came to a halt on 03 March 1986. That lasted for a month until April 1986 when schools reopened after the scheduled Easter holidays. That impacted seriously on the region’s economy and badly on education as in the process parents and teachers lost control over the youth. Property was destroyed and the workforce, especially the teachers embarked on a stay away and the communities at large had no choice but heed the call for consumer boycotts.

According to Elliot in Magama (1991:16), progress at school depends more on the socio-economic background than the school itself. This implies that, a crisis in education disturbs the normal learning process in many ways. The Southern region is no exception, hence this recent picture of matric results, which is a product of a resistance that plagued the region for many years and had destroyed the culture of teaching and learning.

TABLE 2.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>REGION</th>
<th>PASS %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western Region (Region 1)</td>
<td>13,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Region (Region 2)</td>
<td>41,99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Region (Region 3)</td>
<td>45,17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North-Eastern Region (Region 4)</td>
<td>38,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Region (Region 5)</td>
<td>31,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern Region (Region 6)</td>
<td>25,62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bushbuckridge Region (Region 7)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Southern region came to last in the 1999 matric results and even if it improved with a 9.98% in 2000, it still came number last.

TABLE 2.2 MATRIC RESULTS IN THE SOUTHERN REGION PER DISTRICT IN 1999 AND 2000.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DISTRICT</th>
<th>PASS %</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apel</td>
<td>42,00</td>
<td>48.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bohlabela</td>
<td>18,6</td>
<td>26.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dennilton</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>32.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magakala</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nebo</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>44.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sekhukhune</td>
<td>27.8</td>
<td>35.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although the Southern Region still comes last in the 2000-matric results, there is a visible improvement in all its districts, with Nebo improving with a 16.3 % pass.

TABLE 2.3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>PASS %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>24.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>27.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>44.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nebo, which is the largest district in the Southern region and predominantly rural, has been working well and improving in the consecutive years.
The Northern Province which is formed by the former homelands of Venda, Gazankulu and Lebowa, bound together by a few strips of the former central government, has for many years always come last when it came to matric results in South Africa, as compared to other provinces. According to the above tables, the Southern region, which is formed by the former Lebowa has for equally many years, come last in matric results. The reason is that, according to the researcher’s point of view, the region is predominantly black with no job opportunities. The region is also, as already indicated, predominantly rural and as such it is plagued by social and economic problems, which obviously impact on educational performance reflected clearly through matric results.

This picture, according to the researcher, implies that, if the Southern region could be removed from the Northern Province, the province will eventually move from the 51,5% pass percentage to around 61% pass for 2000. It is therefore evident that the Southern region has a lot to correct as it is mostly to blame for the poor performance in the province.

2.4 THE ECONOMIC ENVIRONMENT

Any type of education that does not suit the needs of the community alienates the learner from his own society and has therefore, adverse results. According to Duminy (1991:197), this is because the home is the first and most influential educational agency, for it is within it that the foundations of a child’s knowledge and of his entire personality, moral, social and religious life are laid. He further indicates that the value of the social education a child receives at home depends specifically on the moral and social quality of
his parents and educators. Important also is the quality of the home life and atmosphere; which, according to Gunter (1980:270), is a rare commodity amongst blacks in particular. Poverty is blamed for lack of motivation amongst the learners who due to shortage of resources, get out of the classroom to fend for themselves. This results in high dropouts especially in black schools.

A child's economic environment is determined by the income by that which is brought home by parents. The parent's income is in fact the determinant of the type of a neighbourhood a child is brought up in. This, according to Cusick (1992:62), to a certain extent has an influence on the child's behaviour and performance in the classroom. As it is, children of economically poorer parents are the ones most likely to exhibit control problems. Troubled classrooms in most cases are those that contain economically poorer students. Male students become rebellious whilst their female counterparts purposefully refuse to comply or follow orders.

Strained economic circumstances, poor housing, troubled and troublesome siblings, a mother at her wits' end, and an absent and/or cruel father all contribute to children's behaviour. So, it boils down to the fact that students' problems are attributed to the troubled home environment (Cusick 1992:63).

In the Journal of marriage and the family Alexander (2000:1104) writes that family poverty is mainly caused by unemployment and inflation. Using Alexander's observation, focus on the country’s market issues indicates that, in 1996 about 34% of the
South African labour force, was unemployed. This percentage was mostly made up of youth aged between fifteen and twenty-four years. Since then the unemployment problem has worsened, partly because of poor performance of the South African economy. High unemployment contributes to, and is in turn affected by, the high levels of poverty, which is prevalent in South Africa. Realities like, for instance, economic restructuring and global trends, as well as labour market inefficiencies and inequalities also affect youth participation in the labour market. In order to reduce poverty, the unemployment problem has to be addressed by strengthening job creation initiatives whilst on the other hand preparedness for the labour market has to be improved by enhancing the quality of education throughout the different levels of the system (EFA 2000:6).

2.5 THE SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT

The social and emotional problems cause resistance in the classroom. The reason, as outlined by Cusick (1992:65), is that learners from lower economic levels assess themselves as disadvantaged relative to overall society, and equally disadvantaged relative to school. They have come to believe that what the school proclaims about their chances for economic equality is false hence they refuse to conform. Cusick further brings in the fact that learners from poor backgrounds resist because the future which the school is to prepare them for seems foreign to them. The things they learn and practice at home are not the things the school expects and rewards. This implies that the school values, norms and curriculum are unfamiliar to the economically disadvantaged. They are, for instance, being asked to stop being poor and of lower class and rather adopt
professional work habits. The school also asks them to be time conscious, orderly and patient, qualities not found in many poorer people.

All this might be ascribed to the legacy of apartheid. The social conditions of South Africa were shaped and devastated by apartheid. From 1948 to 1994, succeeding apartheid driven regimes enforced a social policy, which revolved around maintaining white hegemony and economic prosperity to the exclusion of other races. These segregated races suffered extremes of poverty and degradation. Social inequalities and poverty along racial lines resulted from the entrenchment of such policies. Other racial groups in South Africa, blacks in particular, were deprived opportunities to access basic social services like education, health, clean water, sanitation, electricity and other amenities (EFA 2000:6).

The outcome of Punda Maria conference, based on the findings gathered by research teams who visited a number of schools in the Northern Province was the agreement that effective learning in especially rural schools is impaired by socio-economic conditions, which are amongst others the social environment, which is not conducive to learning. As teachers from the visited schools reported that “Poverty and high unemployment in the area were the crux of the crisis in schools. Parents are forced to leave home in search of work. Children are left behind with relatives or alone. Familial care and support are lacking. Some learners drop out of school to earn money for school fees, uniforms or other necessities. Others drop out from lack of parental support and supervision. Younger children are sometimes withdrawn from school for months at a time to
accompany their parents to work somewhere else. These social, economic and cultural factors need to be understood within a historical and contemporary perspective of the region itself" (Van der Vynct, Mokgalabone and Papo 1999:77).

Rural schools have common features such as lack of basic amenities such as classrooms and learning space, suitable furniture, learning materials, toilet facilities and so on. The absence of all this makes it difficult for effective teaching and learning to take place. Under-resourced schools create substandard learning environments where poor conditions of learning is a norm and where effective learning cannot take place, with most learners experiencing learning problems. A problem of under-aged and over-aged learners is a common feature amongst the poor. Poverty is one of the main reasons why young people in the areas do not attend school. School failure is a process that takes place over time. In-class over-crowding among learners account to repetition and erratic school progression. Poor performance is a norm of such over-crowded situations (Van der Vynct, Mokgalabone and Papo 1999:79).

2.5.1 High school dropout

High school dropout remains a national problem in both urban and rural areas amongst the low-income populations. This, according to Walters (1997:241), is a culmination of a long-term process of academic disengagement and is due to, among others, the families' socio-economic status as well as family types. On the other hand, children's personal resources can play a role in school dropout.
Children from lower economic backgrounds are at risk because in most cases they experience failure in fostering a sense of attachment or commitment to the school's agenda and that weakens their psychological barriers to school dropouts (Walters 1997:241).

This is normally evidenced as compliance with school routines contributes to school success. Moreover that children from poor background find it hard to conform and adjust to the demands and expectations the school puts before them. That is, academic failure is the driving force behind a frustrated self-esteem with a downward spiral that often culminates in dropout. This is a common feature in Black schools (Walters 1997:241).

Walters (1997:242) agrees with Papalia (1987:156) that being from a low income family, being male, having relatively many siblings, being born to a younger mother and residing in a solo-parent household all increase the risk of a dropout.

As elaborated in Cusick (1992:65), the families of school dropouts do not see any need for schooling. They do not see any link between what the school offers in terms of content and what might be later required on a job. All they need is entry in the lowest rung of the workforce. Furthermore, the prosperity of these children to run afoul of the rules and regulations, confirmed the parents' educational view that the school did not like them or their children. Dropping out is a reasonable solution because it saves the family from having to put up with embarrassing scenes in the vice principal's office. Once out
of school, the children could return the good blessings of the family; under the disguise
of protection of the family name, and everyone in the family will be happier.

It is evidenced by these arguments that truancy and dropout are associated with low
academic achievement and failure to obtain credit (Franklin 1999: 126). To some extent,
dropout rates are an indication of a school's failure to reach out to those pupils who are
inclined to feel alienated and who might consider their further efforts to succeed likely to
be useless.

2.5.2 Teenage pregnancy

Young women who become pregnant during their teenage years represent an “at risk”
population for educational underachievement. Earlier research proved that in most cases
pregnant teenagers tend to come from personal and family backgrounds characterized by,
for instance, social disadvantages including young and single motherhood, lower material
educational qualifications, low socio-economic status and above all, below-average living
standards and adverse family circumstances.

However, the latest findings with regard to the impact of teenage pregnancy and
scholastic achievement suggests that, young women who become pregnant in their teen
years tended to come from disadvantaged family backgrounds, were less able
academically, and in fact typically became pregnant after having left school. That is,
consequences of an early pregnancy due to educational under-achievement depend on a
number of contextual factors, as Milardo (2000:157) indicates.
He further partly dismisses the fact that teenage pregnancy was not a major cause of educational under-achievement by simply reasoning out that, all in all, the psychological background of pregnant young women indicate that teenage mothers are characterized by multiple social, personal and educational disadvantages. In addition, they are also faced with the difficult task of rearing a child as a young, and often, single parent. Milardo also puts it clearly that maternal youth is clearly associated with increased psychological risks of offspring. As indicated in Papalia (1987:531), the children of these young parents are most likely than other children to have low IQ scores and to become teenage parents themselves. This process is explained by the personal and social backgrounds of teenage mothers and the quality of the child rearing environment they provide for their children.

2.5.3 Sex role stereotypes

Sociologists point out the importance of nature on the process of socialization. They stress how our upbringing prepares us for our sex roles and how the portrayal in, for instance, comics on TV, offers us stereotypes. In the process, reality is distorted by oversimplified images (Townroe & Yates 1996:14).

This is taken further by the fact that the stereotypes occur at home and at school. From birth, the type of clothes, colours, bedrooms, toys, duties and even behaviour emphasize the difference. This draws a sharp line between the two sexes from the earliest stages of children's lives. They are initiated into stereotype situations by their home environment.
In addition, this is taken further at school through subjects, courses and behavioural expectations. All this, according to the researchers, channel the extent of one's aspirations in life. They condition one's thinking and beliefs. Hence, in most cases the fairer sex lives in the shadow of their male counterparts and this automatically affects the former's performance in class. They become not used to taking the lead (Lisben 2000:319).

Earlier research findings on in-class interaction showed that male pupils are mostly active, assertive and demanding of teachers time and attention. Boys receive more praises than girls and usually dominate class discussions. Furthermore, many teachers take longer to get to know the names of the girls they teach and they usually praise boys for good pieces of work and girls for good behaviour. On the other hand, girls tend to blame themselves for their difficulties and attribute their successes to good luck; whilst boys tend to blame others for their failures and to praise themselves for their successes (Townroe & Yates 1996:15).

2.5.4 Parenting and adolescence alcohol/substance abuse

Parental alcohol abuse affects family socialization factors which in turn affect adolescent alcohol misuse outcomes. Parental alcohol abuse significantly reduces family support. Black adolescents are, according to Milardo, less likely than their white counterparts to initiate alcohol misuse. Furthermore, it has been discovered that male adolescents engage in heavy drinking throughout adolescence than their female counterparts. That is, there
is a significant difference in gender related initiation into increased alcohol misuse (Milardo 2000:160).

Socialization of children is a critical function of the family and to the extent that families do not adequately nature and rear (monitor) their children, we are likely to see resulting adolescent problem behaviours, including alcohol and other substance abuse (Milardo 2000:161). Duminy (1991:127) sites the fact that in South Africa, there is an apparent increase in the use of cannabis sativa (marijuana) by school children. According to Duminy, marijuana smoking causes personality disorder and may lead to psychopathy. The outcome of a research conducted in 1980 was that more than 10% of black adolescents had already taken drugs a couple of times or used drugs regularly, while about 17% had not yet tried drugs, but would use drugs just for fun if they got a chance.

2.5.5 Delinquency

It is prevalent, according to Duminy (1991:128), that juvenile delinquency is one of the most social problems of this era; even amongst school-going children of between the ages of six and eighteen; with the ages between fourteen and sixteen as the most probable. About five times as many boys as girls are involved in delinquent acts. Duminy further sites the fact that delinquents are, according to him, largely a product of either the environment in which they grow up, or of the type of upbringing they are subjected to at home. He gives instances where some youngsters commit crimes to relieve boredom and frustration. Children may, in their dire need for recognition, security, independence and affection turn to antisocial behaviour.
Some delinquents are drug addicts who need money to support their habits, whilst others are trying to “get even” with their parents and society. On the other hand, it is indicated that youngsters sometimes engage in delinquent acts because antisocial behaviour is very much part of their background. There are instances of children who grow up in slums, or come from families where there is little appreciation and regard for law and order. These children are most likely to get involved in delinquency than children who come from better homes. At times, even well adjusted youngsters may turn into delinquents because of mixing with the wrong group; in cases where it will be group pressure that may compel them to take part in delinquent acts (Kotlitz 1991:32).

2.6 THE IMPACT OF BANTU EDUCATION ON SCHOLASTIC ACHIEVEMENT

The social disparities in education in the Republic of South Africa were applied through the implementation of the apartheid policy, which led to the introduction of Bantu Education. Missionary schools were taken over by the state. From then onwards, schooling for blacks took a turn. In the 1960’s and the 1970’s, under Bantu Education System, schooling focused at redirecting individuals to “homelands”, which were strategically scheduled areas for black Africans, lacking economic viability. Funding of education was allocated on an unequal basis under Bantu Education policy (EFA 2000:9).

According to the National Party’s ideologies, the “native” was different from his white counterpart, and should, therefore, be taught differently. The mission school education
had to be replaced with a system that would teach Africans to accept their “proper
place”. Bantu teachers were trained to serve at Bantu schools, with salaries that had been
fixed accordingly. In 1953, a black teacher earned just over two pounds a week and a
university graduate earned just over four pounds, rising to seven pounds after thirteen
years. This led to a dramatic drop in the number of trainee teachers. Department
standards were used to measure Africans. That is, the school was geared to equip the
Bantu to meet the demands which the economic life would impose on him (Reader’s
Digest 1995:179)

According to the strategy put in place by the National Party, it was of no use teaching
Bantu Children mathematics, for instance, when they could not use it in practice. There
was a law prohibiting private schools and transgressors faced prosecution for “illicit”
selling of education. Cultural clubs were set up for boycotting children, but because of
lack of funds, the majority of learners were forced into Bantu Education schools. By the
late 1950’s apartheid education had been extended to University level (Reader’s Digest

The purpose of Bantu Education was according to (EFA 2000:10) aimed at perpetuating
white supremacy by giving them a better education than that given to others. This had a
notable adverse impact, as illiteracy and innumerate tendencies increased and high-level
skills among black Africans became very limited. The result was that by 1990, according
to reports, 66% of the youth and adults between sixteen and thirty-four were functionally
illiterate, a majority of which was amongst the black population. Schools attended by
blacks were characterized by lack of resources, understaffing, high dropout and high failure rates. People resisted Bantu Education and the result became a total collapse of the teaching and learning culture at black schools (EFA 2000:11)

It is therefore evident that the democratically elected government inherited, amongst others, economic structures set up under apartheid that were designed to protect the interests of the white minority and restrict access by the black majority to property, in areas such as, and especially, health and education (EFA 2000:11).

2.7 FAMILY BACKGROUND FACTORS AND SCHOLASTIC ACHIEVEMENT.

Family situation is one other factor which can affect the learning of children to such an extent that it is not possible for them to meet expectations that the school holds on the (Duminy 1991:197).

Duminy further brings in the fact that “a great deal of learning, often incidental learning, takes place in the family”. The attitudes and the values children hold when they enter school for the first time have all been acquired in the family situation. Some children, as Duminy puts it, come to school eager to learn, others are much less eager or even resistant. Some children find the transition from home to school fairly easy because they realize, for example, that the school holds the same basic values, ideas and ideals that are present in their homes. For some the transition is very difficult and often traumatic. They
might recognize a serious discrepancy between what is lived and advocated at home and what is taking place at school. Such children struggle with conflicts and contradictions in general, that their schoolwork even suffers (Duminy 1991:197)

Home or family plays a significant role in the education of a child and could be an important determinant of successful scholastic achievement. As Cherian (1987:23) indicates, children spend much of their time in and around the home than they do at school, throughout their formative years. Many research studies found out that a good home is a most powerful determinant for best scholastic achievement (Mlanjana 1991:35 and Cherian 1994:867). A family could, therefore, produce the climate that supports the development of cognitive abilities and satisfaction of doing cognitive work as well as the develop a healthy personality characteristic that may facilitate academic development.

Furthermore, the type of family in which a child is raised could determine the intellectual development of the child in a number of ways. A child who is raised in a healthy, intact and well-organized family has a solid foundation for success at school. On the contrary a child who is raised in a family which is characterized by conflicts, divorce or separation, is likely to experience learning problems which could drastically affect its scholastic achievement (Doob 1998:663).

2.7.1 The family as a social institution

In order to further emphasize the importance of a stable home environment in a child’s life, Cherian (1987:52) brings in the fact that, a child’s family is the first institution
wherein a child receives its first education in an informal fashion. Hence, family influence plays a major role in a child's life. It is through its family that a child gets first experience in social living which will therefore have an effect on the child's later development and formation of relationships with those around him/her.

A family is therefore the most significant environment in the child's life. According to Pallas (1995:166) most theories agree that family background does have a great deal to do with scholastic achievement and success in the examination. He further indicates that family dysfunction affects the child adversely (Cherian 1987:52).

In this viewpoint, he supports Wood et. al. (1998:16) that home environment can determine how well or bad a child performs at school. For the fact that, according to Pallas (1999:167), an enriched family environment can facilitate superior scholastic achievement at school, it is therefore important to note that education of a child should be viewed as a joint venture between the school and the child's family.

According to Pallas (1999:167), a family should provide its child with love and security and should also be a haven of relief from outside pressures. A family should play a role of a backdrop in which the child learns to deal with the emotions and drives, and to handle problems in a socially acceptable manner. Against this background, it becomes very clear that if a family does not help children to adjust to the stable environment the family had created, they may lose the most important means of psychological support and
the most effective support for socialization which may positively influence learning at school.

On the other hand, according to Pallas (1999:167), children must be fully inspired and motivated from their homes in order to prosper in terms of scholastic achievement. Cusick (1992:65) agrees with the views about the importance of family background and outlook on life which will facilitate a child’s learning at school. It is the quality of a family that determines the pupil’s success in terms of scholastic achievement.

2.7.2 Family types and how they impact on learning and performance

Recent studies of families have distinguished several family types amongst whom there are single parent families, which showed lower achievement and presented more discipline problems than did their peers from two-parent families (Cherian & Malehase in Doob 1998:665). From these findings it is evident that an increasing number of families are in a state of transition.

Many families are recently changing from the traditional two-parent form of a family to a single parent or even stepfamily structure, as well as multi-generation families wherein grandparents assume major responsibilities for raising their grandchildren. These types of families have a number of psychological needs that could interfere with the schooling of children (Franklin 1999:127).
This structural change in family life reflects the rise in disrupted families because of divorce, separation or other factors such as incarceration of one parent. This, in a number of cases has a bearing on the chances of a child to study and perform well at school. This, however, does not mean that a single mother and father absence are the root cause of child poverty, school failure and juvenile delinquency. Although living with just one parent increases the risk of each of these negative outcomes, it is not the only, or even the major cause of them. That is, growing up with a single parent is just one among many factors that put children at the risk of failure. However, according to the views of Witkins (1999:156) and Townroe & Yates (1996:18), in most cases, as indicated, children of single-parent fare worse at school and in finding jobs and are more criminal than those from two-parent families. They had grown without the discipline and role model of fathers.

Cusick (1992:190) also elaborates on family types and their effect on learner’s performance by emphasizing the importance of the quality of a family as the child’s point of departure. As Shaw (1982:6) points out, there is a marked increase in juvenile delinquency and poor scholastics achievement of pupils from single-parent families. This is contrary to those learners from two-parent families. High incidents of behaviour problems are, according to Charles & Shear (1984:120), more common amongst children of single-parent families. Hence, the relevancy of the fact that, according to Wood (1998:29), in most cases, most of the behaviours that children display at school emanate from their home.
Cherian & Malehase in (Doob 1998:665) further argue that school and home operate as complements to each other. According to this viewpoint, children who experience parental absence may all be urged to be retarded in school progress, be in a disruptive class and inferior in measured achievement and overall intellectual ability.

Swartzberg et. al (1983:303) bring forth the effects of divorce on children and indicate that it has a negative impact on their school performance. The is due to the fact that in most cases, children tend to react to parental divorce with regression, grief, aggression, withdrawal, sadness and increased needs of attention.

On this they are supported by Townroe & Yates (1996:18) who further elaborate on the fact that boys who experience father absence, as a result of divorce, are alleged to be retarded in school progress, disruptive in class and inferior in measured achievement. Hence, according to Marsh (1990:327), it is true that lower academic achievement may be the result of disruption of a stable family configuration.

After elaboration on and comparison of different views of research about children’s behavioural problems, which emanate mainly from discord at home. Pallas (1999:167) argues that it is impossible for the climate, which is conducive to learning, to prevail if the family environment is unstable. He further indicates that in case of a conflict within the household, it is the children who suffer the most. The result could lead to poor scholastic achievement.
2.7.3  Brother-Sister situations

The way the family is constituted can also affect the child’s performance at school. Older children are in most cases given extra responsibilities and tasks which they, at that stage, might seriously resent and that resistance might be carried over into the school situation (Duminy 1991:49).

In other instances, in some homes, one child might be less intelligent and less successful at school than his/her siblings. The child will often be compared to, and “played off” against other siblings who are performing better. This might result in, among other things, resistance and learning problems among the other siblings at school (Duminy 1991:49).

He also sites the fact that early withdrawal from school often follows a family pattern. According to him, the number of years that children attend school tends to be only a little higher than those established by their parents or their elder brothers and sisters. A child could attend school with an established barrier to learning, if parents or elder siblings have a depreciating attitude to academic achievements.

2.8  THE ROLE OF A PARENT

Cherian & Malehase in Doob (1998:666) indicate that there is a relationship between parental control of children and children’s scholastic achievement. This, according to their view, includes general household governance and parental control, which may affect scholastic achievement. They further bring in the fact that learners’ dependence on
external sources for academic guidance may result in poor scholastic achievement. This further implies that poor parental control exposes teenagers to increased risks of marrying earlier, a factor which can lead to poor scholastic achievement. Findings of the research by Cherian & Malehase confirm the fact that the more control parents had over their children, the better the children’s scholastic achievement.

Cusick (1992:67) brings in the role of parents in the enhancement of their children’s learning by indicating that parents, who encourage their children to speak up and out, are school-advantaged from the beginning.

2.8.1 The relationship between parental income and scholastic achievement

The findings of Giyama (1991:59) in his investigations into the relationship between parental income and scholastic achievement are that, the socio-economic status of the family in most cases compensate for the strained relationships between parents and their children.

On the other hand, it is evident, according to Cusick, that parents of very large families tend to have occupations in the semi-skilled, unskilled or labouring categories. And their children tend to be of average or below average intelligence and usually tend leave school earlier; at fifteen years average, to begin work in order to contribute to the family income. He further unraveled the fact that very bright children normally come from small families and remain longer at school. He also brings forth the fact that there is a tendency for the income of parents of more intelligent children to be individually high (Cusick 1992:68).
Walters (1997:245) supports the fact that the eldest or elder siblings in the family are worst affected by the socio-economic status at home; in common cases, whereby the father would normally be in an unskilled occupation with a low wage. In most of these cases, the mother would be a housewife caring for children in an overcrowded home. It is in this type of family where there is little or no incentive to keep a child at school. School leavers in situations like this are normally a relief to parents who struggle to make ends meet. In short, to them a school-going is a waste of time since the need for money is a pressing issue.

Perry (1998:70) and Gladwell (1997:80) both agree with Walters that a low socio-economic level of living has a marked impact on school achievement in a number of ways. They agree that such children are vulnerable to ill health. They also site poor housing that, amongst others, impedes pupils’ attendance of their homework as well as the opportunity for reading and constructive play. The question of an environment conducive to learning is further supported by, for instance, Shorp in (Tonjeni 1983:186) who suggests that the environment in which a child grows should stimulate his sensory organs and his natural curiosity as well as encourage the development of his verbal skills. Perry (1998:89) states that the absence of a suitable place for a child to do his homework may interfere with child’s ability to maintain the standard of performance of which he is capable. Perry’s view is supported by Bruer (2000:82). They both agree that the absence of a good environment at home cold prevent a child from performing up to his or her potential. A child brought up in a stimulating environment in which he has adequate
facilities and contact with, for instance, books, words and ideas, is likely to develop to 
his/her full potential.

As Milardo (2000:163) indicates, it is clear that a family income, to a large extent, 
determines the standard of living in the house as well as the nutritional state of the child. 
A child from a poor home cannot learn effectively as he/she lacks stimulation in a 
number of ways and is confronted by unfulfilled physiological needs. The difference in 
performance between children from a poor family background and those from rich 
background can be explained by the motivational patterns and basic beliefs that parents 
in professional occupations have. High status parents, who are in professional 
occupations, believe that they can master the environment and therefore encourage their 
children to follow in their footsteps. On the other hand, parents of a lower status lack 
confidence in themselves, have a fatalistic outlook and belief that success generally is a 
matter of luck. This attitude reduces the motivation of low class children to embark on 
long-term goals such as education.

Jubber (1998:287) also brings in the relationship between family income with nutrition, 
health, home set-up, how a family attaches value to education as well as the ability of the 
family to supply the kind of support, materials and experiences which foster school 
success. According to him, the family income has a bearing on a child’s cognitive 
development. Fuller (1986:365) indicates that finances rather than ability determines 
who shall ascend the education ladder. It is evident that female-headed households are
bound to be hard-hit by economic needs because of their marginal position in the labour market and in society (Agenda No. 31, 1996:18).

2.8.2 Accommodation versus the family size

A learner has to study at home and if studying has to be effective, there had to be a suitable place at home where they could study comfortably. On the other hand, the availability of room is obviously determined by the family income. It is also a norm that education has to do with a better salary and comfort. This implies that poor families, which are in most cases illiterate, cannot afford a home environment conducive to learning.

In his thesis, Mlanjana (1991:40) agrees with Jordaan (1991:21) that small families are normally rich whereas large families are in most cases poor. Black families are basically large and poor; which makes it hard for a learner to study effectively at home because of overcrowding and lack of resources. It is very common in such families not to be able to afford a candle for children to study at night.

Doob (1998:667) sites further implications by Cherian & Malehase which could lead to underachievement like, for instance, the absence of room and time for play. He also brings in the fact that diseases like malnutrition are a norm in large, overcrowded families. Other diseases like TB are also common in situations like this. He, however, stresses large families as a cause of poverty among the poor.
He agrees with Cusick (1992:68) that large families are common amongst the manual labour working class homes where children are regarded as a cheap source of labour. Jordaan (1991:24) further elaborates this factor by indicating that in rural areas large families are a norm. Besides providing free labour, children are seen as security in old age, social status and as a direct source of income in communities where daughters are given away in marriage in exchange for lobola (dowry).

Traditional communities worldwide seldom think of the future. As Jordaan (1991:24) puts it, planning for the future is a literate concept for literate people. This implies that, in most cases, the masses seldom think of the long-term implications of overcrowding at home and overpopulation, which could impact on learning. This means that over and above, the effects of a poor environment and poor housing can have an adverse impact when a child has to study at home whilst poor nourishment can impact adversely on the cognitive development of the child.

2.8.3 Parental background and academic achievement

According to Seifert (1983:61) effective learning takes place through models. Parents act as models to their children. This implies that highly motivated learners have highly educated and motivated parents. To support this statement, Ezewu (1983:48) brings in his own point of view by indicating that Black children from families with a high socio-economic status in a number of cases speak grammatically correct English even before going to school. This is due to the fact their parents can provide sound models of English at home for the children to learn.
Kapambwe (1980:80) reinforces this idea by bringing forth the fact that children whose parents are well-educated are likely to surpass children of the less educated parents in school work. Haralambos (1988:192) also indicates that children of skilled workers perform better at school and are more likely to go on to higher education than are the children of the unskilled parents. Other views brought forth are that gifted children tend to come from homes that are characterized by a high level of education and income on the part of the parents.

On the other hand, lower class parents want that which everyone else wants, for their children. Pallas (1999:168) and Jubber (1998:287) also bring in the socio-economic status as the most important variable. It is the socio-economic status that contributes to pupils' psychological, emotional and social development, directly or indirectly. Its direct contribution relates to things such as the relationship between income and nutrition; health; the quality of a home as an information environment; parental educational level in relation to the value they attach to education, and the ability of the home to supply relevant materials and experiences which foster scholastic success (Jubber 1998:287).

According to Haralambos (1988:192), class and ethnic stratification are directly related to educational attainment. Cusick (1992:68) further indicates that troubled learners have poor parents who are themselves uneducated and have not taught their children basic skills. In such cases, children are unable to move along with their ever-progressing
classmates; they become frustrated and behave badly. They cannot work by themselves. They do not attend to homework obligations. Their aspirations are low because they do not have anyone at home who cares about their education. Parents of such learners, being uneducated and poor, cannot afford to provide their children with a home environment that is conducive to learning personal responsibility and orderliness.

2.8.4 The relationship between parental involvement and scholastic achievement.

According to Pallas (1999:169), working class parents place less value on formal education whereas middle-class parents always encourage their children towards formal education. Children, according to Townroe & Yates (1996:20) value their parents' interest and encouragement throughout their schooling years. This enhances good performance. Cusick (1992:69) brings forth the fact that many working-class parents are unable to give sound advice and encouragement to their children about their schoolwork and future careers. The reason is that they are not conversant with what is taking place in education.

Brown (1983:223) blames parents' lack of interest in children's educational activities as one of the causes of truancy among learners from the lower end of the socio-economic scale. Demaine (1981:59) elaborates on this by stating that this lack of interest among working-class parents is accountable for the relative underachievement of working-class children. The attitude of parents, older siblings and playmates may have an adverse impact on the child's enthusiasm, at the time of going to school.
In support of how financial constraints can affect the lives of people in a particular home, Lauer (1992:111) conducted an investigation, which included pupils of high and low socio-economic status. High socio-economic parents were more involved in their children’s education by providing any material needed for school purposes. These parents did so, because they could afford that financially. On the contrary, parents from a low socio-economic status were found to be less involved in their children’s education. However, they were not completely uninvolved, but were involved to a limited extent due to financial problems. Hence, their children performed poorer than their counterparts.

Socio-economic statuses are related to achievement motivation. Pupils from a high socio-economic status tend to experience much parental interest in scholastic achievement than pupils from the lower socio-economic status. Thus, high achievers tend to come more frequently from high socio-economic status. For these reasons, the researcher concludes that the involvement and interest of high-income parents in the education of their children seem to be stronger than those of the lower income parents (Townroe & Yates 1996:113).

In addition, it is not that parents from lower income homes are not involved or rather show no interest in their children’s education. They merely tend to be less supportive. On that account, the parent-child relationship in lower income homes displays serious problems, which eventually may affect pupils’ scholastic achievement.
Parents from different socio-economic classes use different behavioural codes in dealing with their children. For example, people from the lower classes rely primarily on gestures, facial expression and unwritten rules. Those from the higher classes resort much more often on elaborate verbal communication, full complex sentences and individual variation in modes of expression. Such parents' language is instructive and varied. They frequently take the initiative in encouraging new behavior. Lower-class parents, on the other hand, tend to use commands addressed to children as a group, short sentences and are more repetitious (Haralambos 1988:193).

Moeketsi (1998:41) brings together the findings of different researchers who all agree that a pupil's home environment and the support that a child gets from home can help to enhance learning and positively affect scholastic achievement. Hence, the importance of material and emotional support from a pupil's first teacher, his/her parent, throughout schooling days. Moeketsi's view finds relevancy in the opinions of, for instance, Fantuzzo et. al (1995:272) and Keith et. al. (1993:474). They all agree that parental involvement enhances scholastic success and reduces chances of failure. They further identify parental involvement as a powerful influence on scholastic achievement of pupils.

Other feelings about parental involvement are, for instance, those of Kapambwe (1980:51), who brings in the fact that parents with high levels of education motivate their children, who in turn also develop a high level of educational aspirations. Marjorikabanks (1991:237), Ogundare (1991:149) as well as Alwin & Thornton
agree that pupils with parents in high status occupations do better in their school work than those with parents in low status occupations. All in all, it is evident that the home environment itself is determined by the socio-economic status of the family. And both factors determine the extent of involvement by parents as well as the extent of support the learner will receive.

Fadem et. al (1995:1142) and Brody et. al (1994:590) bring both the relationship between the socio-economic status of parents and the qualitative rating of the school attended by the pupils. According to them, parents with the financial means and social influence match the school and the home with ease. This implies that there is a strong correlation between the home income and scholastic achievement, which is probably enhanced by the involvement of parents in their children’s education.

It is because of this idea that Stevenson (1990:58) regards the home income as the most powerful background which can enhance learning. It is evident from these ideas that poverty makes it difficult for the pupils to access school support materials which can make learning easier. It is evident again that poverty makes parents to be less willing to offer scholastic support by getting involved in their children’s education. It is poverty that makes parents less willing to keep their children at school a year longer lest they become bound to be involved in their children’s education. The truth is the fact that, as Cusick (1992:70) puts it, the socio-economic factors are the most important and powerful predictors of parental support and encouragement.
Finally, Townroe & Yates (1996:186) indicate that the single most important factor relating to education attainment was the degree of parents' interest in their children's education. Middle-class parents are more likely to attend parents' evening and to encourage their children to stay on at school.

2.9 CULTURAL NORMS AND VALUES OF SOCIETY AND THEIR INFLUENCE ON LEARNING AND PERFORMANCE

Mathunyane (1996:9) uses Stark's views and defines culture as: "the way of life of a group of people or a society". According to him, culture embraces knowledge, ideas, values, traditions, art, morals, law, custom as well as any capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society.

Lisben (2000:475) draws culture closer to learning by indicating that each population has its separate system of values but all groups are brought under the influence of a single unified economic and political system. He goes on to say that people from different segments of the society acquire information from the same national media, send their children to a centralized education system, work under the condition of an encompassing labour market and are exposed to a shared political ethos.

It is believed that children should be encouraged to speak up and out from their early ages at school. But there are whole cultures even in the first world countries like the USA, which do not value criticism and analysis, and that distrust people who practice them. One is not asked or expected to volunteer what she or he thinks. On the other hand, the
school culture favours the students whose verbal patterns match the schools
organizational patterns. Amongst those most disfavoured by the school culture are the
lower-class students (Cusick 1992:64).

2.9.1 Class and ethnic subcultures and educational attainment
A number of studies has shown that even when IQ is held constant, there are significant
differences in educational attainment between members of different social groups. This
implies that black students from a working-class with the same measured IQ's as their
middle-class white counterparts, are less successful in the educational system. In
particular, it has been argued that the subcultures, the distinctive norms and values of
social classes and ethnic groups, influence performance in the educational system,
(Haralambos 1988:193).

Haralambos (1988:194) basis his argument on the fact that firstly, members of the
working-class place lower value on education. They place less emphasis on formal
education as a means to personal advancement. They see less value in continuing at
school beyond the minimum school-leaving age. In evaluating jobs, they emphasize
stability, security and immediate economic benefits and, therefore, tend to reject the risks
and investments involved in aiming for high status occupations. Job horizons tend,
therefore, to be limited to a "good trade".

As compared to their middle-class counterparts, members of the working-class believe
that there is less opportunity for personal advancement. This belief is probably the basis
for the lower value placed on education and high occupational status. In general, the lower class individual does not want much success; knowing he could not get it even if he wanted to, and does not want what might help him be successful. Thus, the motivation to achieve, whether in or outside the school, will generally be lower for members of the working-class.

The theory of cultural deprivation states that the subculture of low-income groups is deprived or deficient in certain important respects and this accounts for the low educational attainment of members of these groups. This theory places the blame for educational failure on the child, his family, his neighbourhood and the subculture of his social group. A culturally deprived child is deficient or lacking in important skills, attitudes and values which are essential to high educational attainment. Deficiencies of a culturally deprived child include linguistic deprivation, experiential, cognitive and personality deficiencies as well as a wide range of substandard attitudes, norms and values (Haralambos 1988:202).

Haralambos’ views are echoed in Drum Magazine (2000:109) wherein there is an article that agrees that difficult conditions at home, such as living in a shack, can be so depressing that a child may be driven to thoughts of suicide. It is, therefore, up to the school to detect such signs in time. In the same publication, Sello Maake Ka-Ncube, a TV personality, says that we must look at how we were raised because that is ingrained in us. According to him, boys graduate into manhood by fighting each other. They do not engage in debates to resolve problems but engage in violent acts, like destroying
property when they are annoyed. He goes on to say that men become violent because they suppress their feelings. They do not have the ability to speak about their pain. Their culture of violence stems from this inability (Drum 2000:8).

2.9.2 Class position and educational attainment

According to a French Sociologist, Rayn Fond Boudon in his publication entitled, "Education, Opportunity and Social Inequality", there is a relationship between a social class and educational attainment. Boudon argues that the secondary effects of stratification are very important because they stem from a person's actual position in the class structure. He maintains that even if there were no subcultural differences between classes, the very fact that people start at different positions in the class system will produce inequality of educational opportunities.

For example, the costs involved and the benefits to be gained for a working-class boy and an upper middle-class boy in choosing the same educational course are very different simply because their starting positions in the class system are different. Thus, if an upper middle-class child chose a vocational course such as carpentry, catering or building, his choice would probably lead to 'social demotion'. The job he would obtain as a result of the course would be of lower status than that of his parents. On the other hand, the situation would be very different for the working-class child who selected similar courses. It may well lead to 'social promotion' compared to the occupational status of his parents. Thus, there are greater pressures on the upper middle-class children to select
higher level educational courses, in order to maintain their present social positions (Haralambos 1988:205).

2.9.3 Cultural stereotypes and their impact on educational attainment.

Many sociologists begin from the assumption that human behaviour is largely directed and determined by culture. Thus, it is believed that norms, values and roles are culturally determined and socially transmitted. From this perspective, gender roles are a product of culture rather than biology. Individuals learn their respective male and female roles. The sexual division of labour is supported and justified by a belief and value system which states that gender roles are normal, natural, right and proper (Haralambos 1988:373).

When a boy is born, he is given a particular status in society; for example, being told that his role in life is that of family provider. This makes him feel superior to a woman, who receives negative comments at birth (Drum 2000:9).

2.9.3.1 Value placed on motherhood.

In most cases, teenage pregnancy in the Black population group as well as in rural developing Coloured communities is not much condemned by the community and the parents of the teenagers. After reprimanding the teenager, parents soon accept the situation and are generally quite prepared to help her raise the child. On the other hand, of late, the authorities also indirectly encourage illegitimate births by the provision of welfare allowances. Jordaan (1991:26) is of the opinion that, in contrast with other cultural groups, having a child out of wedlock does not affect a Black teenager's chances
of a good marriage. Instead, it tends to count in her favour as proof of her fertility - an important factor to most traditional Black men and some Coloured men.

On the other hand, the use of contraceptives is widely condemned because of a belief that it may affect a girl’s fertility. It is, therefore, evident that incidences of pregnancies among Black teenagers, particularly those who adhere to traditional values, could not be significantly decreased. There ought to be a strong discouraging measure put in place. Moreover, this is worsened by the reality that other churches encourage contraception whilst on the other hand most churches in South Africa oppose abortion (Jordaan et.al 1991:29). The bottom line is that high school girls are faced with a dilemma of coping with single motherhood whilst they are expected to behave like other girls of their own age in the classroom.

2.9.3.2 The Status of Socio-economic position of women.
Jordaan et. al (1991) rightly puts it that a harsh reality is that:

"the relatively low status of women and the high incidence of illiteracy in traditional and rural communities results in larger families. Since children give meaning to these women’s otherwise limited lives. Poor couples with a relatively low socio-economic status generally have larger families than wealthy couples. This frequently creates a vicious cycle of poverty and rapid population growth which communities cannot easily break without the help of drastic measures from outside".
Poverty has also increased during the past decade because of the rise in the numbers of single-parent families, particularly those with single mothers. The result of this condition is worse given that lower wages are mostly paid out to women generally, particularly those who belong to a minority group. The correlation between single-parent households and poverty is also due to the limited receipt of child support. Male partners of welfare recipients tend to earn little at the time their child is born but their incomes typically increase over time. However, the child’s grant is seldom adjusted (Alexander 2000:1101).

Whilst men have always been expected to fulfil the ‘important’ positions of life such as being businessmen, lawyers, surgeons, government ministers and many other positions that require resourcefulness, women on the other hand have traditionally been expected to play a different part in the society. Essentially, what has been required of women is not that they lead or build or create, but to serve others. Thus, an important job for a woman has been that of a housewife and mother. Typical female occupations, such as nurses, typists or junior school teachers, have also involved serving others (Townroe & Yates 1996:15).

2.9.3.3 Marriage as traditionally defined for females.

Marriage has been viewed traditionally as a major life goal for women. In the past, women of high education and achievement were "marital rejects" or "pathetic misfits", persons who were "unfeminine" and "undesirable" to males, and who therefore remain unchosen. Today, achieving women may consider marriage confining and therefore
reject the institution. That is why most women today give evidence of viewing singleness as a way of life allowing greater freedom and flexibility in pursuing career goals and travel and educational opportunities, which are benefits they might miss by rushing into marriage. That is what Gloria Streinem said of achievement-oriented women today, when she said, "we are becoming the men we wanted to marry" (Scanzoni & Scanzoni 1988:209).

The truth is, highly educated men have not faced the dilemma faced by highly educated women. For women it has always been 'the/or'. But, for highly educated men, it has been a matter of 'both/and'. No one would think of telling a man upon marriage that he should now seriously consider giving up his career. If anything, marriage may be considered an aid to his career aspirations because having a wife in the traditional sense, is expected to relieve him of concerns about everyday household matters like laundry, meals, good order and others.

Again, having a wife increases his opportunities for entertaining important guests and clients and in general, provide him with the emotional support and encouragement that can be so helpful in advancing his career. Even in cases where a woman has elected to follow the path of a high-powered career combined with marriage, she is traditionally expected to be the spouse who makes the greater sacrifices and carrier of the heavier load of household tasks (Scanzoni & Scanzoni 1988:215).
This does not make a career women any better than a housewife and does not motivate teenage girls to work hard at school. What will be the use of hard work if at the end she will be expected to give up her career.

2.9.4 How thus cultural trend impacts on children’s schooling and performance.

It is evident from all these cultural trends that cultural norms, values and practices can seriously impact learning and educational performance. In comparison with middle-class children, working-class children are likely to be less educable.

As it is, typical upper-middle class children live in a class subculture where they are surrounded by educated persons who speak the English language correctly most of the time, enjoy classical music, buy and read books, travel and entertain graciously. They are surrounded by people who are ambitious, who go to work even when they do not feel like it and who struggle to attain success; whilst on the other hand children from the lower-class live in a subculture where scarcely anyone has a steady job for very long. They live in an environment where being unemployed and living on charity is a common feature. This adversely affects the child’s learning and may lead to underachievement (Mlanjana 1991:49).

2.10 THE SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT AND THE EXTENT TO WHICH IT ENCOURAGES EFFECTIVE LEARNING

Almost a third of a child’s life is spent in school. Apart from family, school is the most important influence in a child’s life, shaping friendships, successes and failures. It should
however be noted that not all schools are good schools. Some have higher rates of
truancy and delinquency and more disruptive and badly behaved children than others. Not
all these differences can be explained away by saying that these schools take in more
difficult or deprived children. The school itself provides an environment which will
influence its pupils one way or the other. It is this environment that, in the long run, will
influence the child's behaviour and achievements. A good school should, among other
things, have a good mixture of children, in terms of both the background and ability.
The quality of the teachers and the way in which they manage their classes is important
too (Fenwick & Smith 1993:149).

According to Fenwick & Smith (1993:149), the size of the school or even the size of
classes contributes very little towards academic achievements of learners. Buildings do
not need to be new or spacious but they should look as though somebody cares. Among
other things, cleanliness should be maintained, broken furniture or windows repaired
quickly, the atmosphere should be warm and the pupils cheerful.

2.10.1 Educator-Learner relationship and how that impacts on learning.
There are several other connected elements in the explanation of why poorer students do
worse in school. The importance of a sound educator/learner relationship should not be
underestimated. It is obvious that teachers will be bound to treat students who support
their efforts better than those who do not. Learners who display a negative attitude
toward school and teachers, as well as a tendency to create discipline problems in the
classroom through disruptive behaviour, will probably be most likely rejected or turned off by teachers (Cusick 1992:66).

It should be noted that the school and teachers are doing what they have to do in a differentiated and industrial society. Even while offering opportunity to all, they are sorting children along the lines of available opportunities. Top places in school, like top places in society, are limited and competition for them is intense. The school does its best to reduce inequality for individuals. It is unfortunate that poorer children enter school less-socialized to the norms and values of society and often without work habits needed to compete for society's better positions. Such students are more likely to resist and rebel against the school's efforts and subsequently are more likely to be relegated to the slower classes and eventually to the lower strata of society (Cusick 1992:67).

Cusick goes on to indicate that excellent teachers can make up for, but not eliminate, the problems that poorer students exhibit. If and when students enter the classroom enthusiastic about the subject matter, and find a teacher equally enthusiastic, then the social system takes care of itself. If the students are resistant, the teacher has to pick up the elements of orderly discourse that students drop.

Children of poorer parents, with their non-acceptance or even rejection of a school's basic assumptions, are more likely to resist and more likely to exhibit distrust towards those social characteristics a school is trying to change. Such learners make control more problematic. In most instances, learners from the economic and social margins of society are likely to have the most trouble with a school's central values (Cusick 1992:68).
2.11 THE RESPONSIBILITY OF THE STATE TO ENSURE THAT EACH CHILD
ACCESSSES EDUCATION

The democratic constitution of the Republic of South Africa recognises that everyone has
the right to basic education (SASA 1997:5). It is, therefore, the responsibility of the state
to ensure that everyone receives basic education, by providing all it requires to make
hurtle free education accessible to all.

2.11.1 The Aim and Nature of the Schools Act

One of the aims of the South African Schools Act is to change the impact of South
Africa's long history of apartheid and other forms of unfair descrimination in education.
It is meant to reverse the past system which was based on unequal school and education
systems, which were crafted according to ethnicity, race and colour. The major concern
being that the results of unfair descrimination may still be present in the school system
(SASA 1997:6). The disparities that are still visible in the education system cannot be
denied as they keep on surfaced through, and especially, learner performance at school.

Question such as the following may be posed: does SASA live up to its standard of
giving everyone equal opportunity to develop his/her talents? Is the system which does
not have a place for racism, sexism or intolerance in place yet? (SASA 1997:6). One
more question is, if the Education Department is prepared to bring transformation by
ensuring quality education to all learners without any form of descrimination by
providing, for example, better facilities, better trained teachers, better methods of teaching and better school conditions, what makes learners to be less motivated and less disciplined to an extent that they end up not taking education seriously.

2.11.2 The necessity for change in social demands.

The South African National Education itself, in the "Green Paper on further Education" (FET 1998:8), admits that there are in, particular, deep-rooted problems that confront the public school system like, for instance, low morale among staff members, the poor quality of provision uncertain institutions and so on. The question is, what is the root cause of these problems? The new society's fundamental demand is that the state has an obligation to redress the wrongs inflicted under apartheid.

To increase a shift towards life-long learning and growing demands for the expansion of FET to accommodate new, as well as traditional learners, the issues of staff representivity, student access, equitable funding arrangements, staff development programmes, capacity building and the rebuilding of disadvantaged institutions must challenge all providers (FET 1998:11).

2.12 SUMMARY

It is clear, from the related literature reviewed that scholastic performance at school is enhanced by many factors and, just as much, there are factors that can impact negatively on performance. The notable result being that, children from upper middle-class do exceptionally well than those children from the lower class.
This chapter has unfolded the fact that socio-economic factors impact on education and scholastic achievement. It unpacked related factors that could influence the outcome of the learning process like, for instance, the environment that forms the neighbourhood where the child spends his/her first years. The family-type and size and how it impacts on learning; parental background which determines the level of involvement, education and income, as well as other factors like cultural norms and values, the school and teachers, as well as the government.

Finally it is important to note that all these factors revolve around the significance of a child's point of departure which is its home. An environment in which a child spends its infant years are valuable as it determines his/her future. It is at home wherein a family, parents and first relations are formed, and just as much, it is where the type of school which the child will attend is determined; and this will obviously dictate the type of education the child will receive.

As stated by Perry (1998:64), the environment in which a child grows and develops, shapes his/her future, and has an impact on his/her capacity to learn. It is therefore evident that childhood experiences truly create a person.

According to Hillary Clinton, when she hosted a daylong conference entitled "A child's brain is a work in progress" in April 1997, a child's earliest experiences, its relationship with parents and caregivers, the sight and sounds and smells and feelings it encounters,
the challenges it meets, determine how their brains are wired. Hence it is important that
the first three years of a child's life should be well taken care of. For, the right kind of
parenting during those first three years could have a lasting effect on a child's life, and on
the other hand, it implies that if we missed this opportunity the resulting damage might
well be permanent (Perry 1998:64).

In the next chapter, procedure for data collection will be outlined. The data collected
through literature study and empirical study will be analysed according to feedback
provided by learners, educators and parents, as well as through observations.
CHAPTER THREE

EMPirical DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapters dealt with background to the study as well as literature review on the impact that the socio-economic factors may have on scholastic achievement/performance. The two chapters concentrated on factors of economic and social nature which can influence scholastic achievement of learners. Thus, the study focuses particularly on scholastic achievement of learners from disadvantaged backgrounds.

This chapter deals with the empirical research design and outlines the manner in which data was gathered and the methods used. The sampling techniques used and the sample size will also be outlined as well as the limitations of the study.

3.2 SAMPLING

3.2.1 Description of the research sample.

According to Mc Millan & Schumacher in (Marishane 1999:105), a sample is constituted by subjects or individuals who are selected from the population for the study purpose. The selection of subjects from the population is done in such a manner that each individual stands an equal chance of being selected and the probability of selecting the individual is known. The results obtained from the sample are regarded as representative of the population from which the sample is drawn. In order to avoid bias and to attain
representation, subjects constituting a sample are randomly selected from the entire population. Since it usually is costly and cumbersome to study each subject or individual in the population, particularly where a large population is involved, a sample is used to generalize the results and still presents them as valid.

3.2.2 Sampling design/technique

The population for this study is made up of:

- Secondary School learners
- Secondary School educators
- Parents of Secondary School learners

For this study, stratified random sampling was used. A simple random sample of 10% was drawn from each stratum as follows:

A 10% sample was drawn randomly from 285 learners, at Letebele Marishane Secondary School. To ensure representativity of data collected, a further 11% was drawn, which made the population of learners to be 60 in all. A sample of 33 parents which is 11.6% was also drawn. With regard to educators, all the 8 educators at the school were used as well as other educators from three other neighbouring secondary schools.
3.1 The sample size.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Learners</th>
<th>Educators</th>
<th>Parents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Letebele Marishane</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bopedi Bapedi</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kgotswane</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nkgonyeletse</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
<td><strong>17</strong></td>
<td><strong>33</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Letebele Marishane school is used as a Case Study for this research. All stakeholders at the school; parents, learners and educators, were therefore requested to participate through providing data needed for this study. To strengthen findings made and contributions by educators, samples were also drawn from educators from the neighbouring secondary schools in the same district.

3.3 DATA COLLECTION

3.3.1 Questionnaires and Interviews

Three questionnaires were used in this study as devices for collecting data from learners, educators and parents. The reason the use of questionnaires was because they are economic in terms of time and resources and ensures anonymity too.

The items listed on the questionnaires in this study were designed to convey the objectives of the research problem and constitute answers to the research question. The following questionnaires were used:
• Learner Interview Questionnaire

• Educator Interview Questionnaire

• Parents Focus Group Interview

The researcher personally monitored the process as only one school was used as a case study. After learners were randomly identified, the researcher gathered them together and discussion were held to explain the purpose of the study. Through interaction with the learners, answers on the learner interview questionnaire were provided. The same procedure was followed with parents who were also invited to the school. After they were assured of confidentiality in whatever they came up with in their responses, fruitful discussions were held with the nature of their answers being directed by the questions on the questionnaire.

3.3.2 Observations.

The information which the researcher gathered through daily observations of learners as a headmistress at the school which was used as a case study has also been used to compliment information gathered through questionnaires.

See Appendix A, B and C for questionnaires, and Appendix D for Learners' observation schedule.
3.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study has a few limitations which are:

- The study has been qualitative in approach hence variables were neither controlled nor tested.

- The research was conducted during the mid-year exams period and the sample drawn had to be adjusted to fit the time when all grades will be free to take part, and with the anxiety of the exams the information supplied may not carry the strength that was possible in a relaxed mood. Teachers were obviously restless with the anxiety of invigilation and marking the exam papers.

- Learners, especially those who are from rural communities and from disadvantaged backgrounds are normally shy and cannot easily open up and answer questions that are personal. This may have an impact on the outcome of the research findings.

- A question of attitude too may impact on the findings. This may have had a bearing on why only one educator failed to return the questionnaire. It may also have been because of a negative attitude that there were no no comments throughout one educator's questionnaire, for without comments the 'Yes' or No' marked became valueless. Comments made would have added value and enriched the findings.

- Some learners were not sure of other information that they were supposed to supply.
• Some parents were not free to discuss factors like academic qualifications and monthly income. They still doubted the privacy of the whole process even after repeated assurance.

• The empirical study was not funded by any organization and, therefore, limited resources used may have an adverse impact on findings.

3.5 SUMMARY

In this chapter, an account of the empirical research design and methodology was outlined. Details on research instruments used were given. The sample design and size, procedure followed in administering and validating them were also supplied. Data collection procedure and the instruments used in collecting the necessary data was also outlined. Limitations to the study were also indicated.

The next chapter will cover data analysis, findings, recommendations and suggestions for further research as well as concluding remarks.
CHAPTER FOUR:

DATA ANALYSIS, FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS
FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

4.1 INTRODUCTION
While the previous chapter dealt with the design and methodology of the empirical survey into the impact of socio-economic factors on scholastic achievement, this chapter deals with the presentation and analysis of data collected by means of questionnaires, focus group interviews and observations.

Data collected through educator questionnaire as well as learners and parent’s focus group interviews will be analyzed.

Findings, recommendations and suggestions for further research will be dealt with too. Observations recorded in accordance with learner observation schedule will also be provided.

4.2 DATA ANALYSIS
After data was collected as indicated in 3.3, it was then analyzed qualitatively. In the analysis, tables were used as follows:
4.2.1 BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION OF LEARNERS

Table 4.1  Ages according to gender

Participants were randomly chosen across all secondary school grades ranging from Grade 8 to Grade 12

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGES</th>
<th>LEARNERS</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BOYS</td>
<td>GIRLS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FREQUENCY</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>27.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>18.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22+</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A learner who starts school at the age of seven (next birth date) should be in Grade 12 when s/he turns 18 years of age.

Table 4.2 below stipulates that out of a sample 60 learners, 15 of them are 19 years of age and above.
Table 4.2  Assistance in homework.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PERSON ASSISTING IN HOMEWORK</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sisters</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brothers</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (Aunt)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No assistance</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>36.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 4.2, most learners at high school level battle with their homework alone without any assistance from home. Assistance is received for an average number of learners from brothers and sisters and very few get assistance from parents.

Table 4.3  Payment of school fees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PERSON PAYING FEES</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>36.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grandmother</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grandfather</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not indicated</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The learner’s school fees according to Table 4.3 is in most case paid by their parents, with a number of exceptions where the fees are either paid by grandparents, brothers or sisters and even other relatives.
Table 4.4  Walking distance to school

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Walking distance to school</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1km</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2km</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3km</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4km +</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>41.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.4 indicates that most learners walk a distance of almost 8km to and from school each day. The distance will be even much longer for those learners who have to go home for their lunch break.

4.2.2 Family Background

Table 4.5  Number of siblings in a household

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NUMBER OF SIBLINGS IN A HOUSEHOLD</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 2 and 3</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>28.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 4 and 5</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 4.5, there are more households with 2 to 5 and few with those that have less than 2 and even fewer with those that have more than 5 children.
Table 4.6 Family set-up

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FAMILY SET-UP</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Two-parent family</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>56.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single-parent family</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>41.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both parents deceased</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 4.6, the picture is that there are more two-parent families than single-parent families. But, in essence the number of two-parent families is reduced when absentee fathers are taken into account as this institution is situated in a rural community and most people, especially men work away from home. This also adds to families that are managed by grandparents and other relatives, in the case where both parents work far from home.

4.2.3 Parental Background

Table 4.7 Ages of parents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGES OF PARENTS</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 25 years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 26 and 30 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 31 and 40 years</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 years and above</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>81.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
For the fact that only six parents, as shown in Table 4.7, are 40 years of age and less; as compared to the 27 who are above 40 years of age, implies that most parents gave birth to their children (who are presently at secondary school level) when they were over 20 years of age.

Table 4.8 Qualifications of both parents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualifications</th>
<th>Father Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Mother Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Total Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Never been to school</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>28.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower than Grade 7</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>51.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>28.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 12</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23.4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>41.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical Qualifications</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not indicated</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23.4</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>50.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.8 implies that there are more mothers of learners at secondary school level who have never been to school than there are fathers. On the other hand the table further indicates that women do catch-up once they are given a chance to go to school and that they eventually stay as long as men up to matric. According to the table, both gender groups hardly proceed beyond matric. Amongst other reasons both economic and social factors may be the cause.
Table 4.9  Employment of parents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EMPLOYMENT OF PARENTS</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-professional</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>36.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>54.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.9 shows that unemployment rate is higher than 50% amongst the parents of learners at this institution. It also indicates that those who are employed are, in most cases, in non-professional occupations whilst only a very small number are in the professional sector.

Table 4.10  Monthly income of parents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MONTHLY INCOME OF PARENTS</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than R500</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>39.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between R500 and R1000</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between R1000 and R1500</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 1500 and R2500</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2500 and above</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information not supplied</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to Table 4.10 most families live on a monthly income of less than R500. It once more indicates that eleven families have no income at all, which means that they depend on handouts from relatives.

4.2.4 Educator responses

Findings are that 87.5% of the educators have teaching experience of more than ten years and that they are all teachers by profession, only 18.8% of them have a two-year teachers certificate whilst 81.2% have at least a three year diploma in teaching. 93.8% of them are permanently employed whilst only 6.2% are temporarily employed. They are all overloaded with work as they teach an average of three to four Grades each up to 12 whilst 50% of them are in the management teams of their schools and 12.5% are headmasters. They also teach different subjects and learning areas, which indicates that because of understaffing at their institutions, specialization is not feasible.

This picture impacts negatively on performance as these teachers do not prepare thoroughly for their lessons if they have to teach different subjects in different classes daily, and above all, be expected to see to the proper running of the schools.

4.2.4.1 Rating of learners performance

Seventy-three comma three (73.3%) percent indicated that there is a general tendency of underachievement amongst the learners they teach. They blame that on:

- The environment which is predominantly rural
- Learners not taking their schooling seriously
- Having to learn in a second language
• Problem of time management and setting priorities right.

4.2.4.2 Experience of problems with learners

Eighty one comma three (81.3%) percent indicated that they do, now and then, experience problems that are in most cases minor with few incidents of major problems like:

  • Substance abuse
  • Bullying
  • Disrespect
  • Abuse of their rights
  • Family problems

Other problems sited were:

  • Lack of writing and reading skills
  • Lack of concentration especially after breaks, to which they blame on poverty as they indicated that most learners are from very poor families and have nothing to eat at break.
  • They also blame poverty for the learners inability to do their homework. Some households in rural communities cannot afford a candle.
  • Lack of commitment which according to educators may be because they do not see any value in schooling and that at times some parents encourage their children to leave school, to seek work in order to supplement the family income.
4.2.4.3 Level of participation in the classroom

Table 4.11  Classroom participation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CLASsROOM PARTICIPATION</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bad</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>68.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Educators blamed the low participation rate to factors like:

- Poor communication skills due to learning in the second language, they are therefore ashamed to make mistakes.
- Negative attitude towards, for instance, certain subjects like Afrikaans, Mathematics, Science and so on.
- Lack of motivation, confidence, exposure and absence of parental involvement.
- They also sited insufficient training on the side of teachers and they gave example of teachers who are supposed to facilitate learning areas in OBE whereas they have not been properly trained to do that.

4.2.4.4 Discussion of learners problems by educators

Table 4.12  Discussion of learner’s problems by educators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DISCUSSION OF LEARNERS PROBLEMS BY EDUCATORS</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>With other educators</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>87.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>43.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>37.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learners</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>75.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Some educators indicated that they discuss with more than one party. According to their responses, they prefer to discuss learner’s problems with other educators and learners themselves rather than with their parents and the principal. This could enhance teacher-pupil relationship and teacher-teacher relationships. These two relationships are vital in that they can enhance learning. Teachers who work as a team and who have opened communication lines with learners will have created an environment conducive to effective teaching and learning which will automatically enhance performance.

Although it is imperative that teachers should have a platform where they can communicate with parents it is not always possible to the teachers, because:

- Parents do not attend parents meetings.
- Learners do not like to have their parents around the school.

In most instances, discussions revolve around learners’ performance, encouragement and their reasons for failing to conform to values and norms as prescribed by the school policy.

4.2.4.5 Impact of cultural norms and values on performance

Seventy-five (75%) percent of the educators indicated that, at times, cultural values and norms impact negatively on a learner’s progress in class. They sited incidents that disturb the normal attendance of learners like:

- Circumcision schools which disturb learners in especially Grades 8 and 9
- Witchcraft – some learners do not bring their text and prescribed books to school for fear of being bewitched. This impact negatively on learning as it becomes impossible for teachers to give class-work exercises.

- A display of negative attitudes towards school values that are not in line with what is practiced at home.

- Cultural values which are meant for respect of elders like being labeled as disrespectful for a younger person to answer or comment when an elderly person talks. At school, the teacher forces the child to answer questions whereas at home his/her parents do not allow him/her to answer or look them in the eye.

4.2.4.6 Relationship between socio-economic factors and learners’ performance.

Educators strongly felt that learners’ performance at their schools is strongly affected by:

- Their poor backgrounds – learners cannot concentrate on empty stomachs.

- The fact that, because of unemployment, their parents cannot afford to pay for their post-matric studies, lives them with no choice but to be unmotivated and uninspired. They see no need of passing matric if that would mean that they would have to stay at home and do nothing.

- Lack of exposure, as parents cannot afford to pay for educational tours, newspapers and others. Such learners find it hard answering most of the questions in the examination as they are only confined to the textbooks, which have minimal information.

- Public schools in the rural communities in particular are characterized by absence of basics like electricity, library, laboratory, toilet facilities, schools that are not
fenced, overcrowding and modern devices like photocopierns. This lack of resources retards maximum performance and the result is normally poor performance in most cases.

4.2.4.7 Performance according to gender

Sixty-eight comm. Eight (68.8%) percent of the educators indicated that in general, girls perform better than boys at secondary level and they blame the environment and the children’s neighborhood for that and sited other factors like:

- Boys as carriers of most of the household responsibilities like herding the cattle, digging graves on Fridays and playing many other father roles instead of concentrating on their school work.
- Some boys are disturbed by the use of drugs and alcohol from an early age.
- Boys easily succumb to peer pressure and end up roaming the streets at night and engaging in mischief instead of studying.

It was also sited that, although in general, girls do better than boys in the classroom, girls in most cases perform well in junior classes but their performance declines in the higher classes. This is blamed on fear of being abused or having been abused already.

4.2.5 Outcome of a focus group interview with parents

Findings in general were that 81.8% of the parents were 40 years of age, that 50% of them had never been to school or dropped out at Grade 7 and that 75% of those that are employed are in non-professional occupants whilst 51.5% are unemployed. 39.39% of
those who are employed have a monthly income of less than R500. Only 6% have a monthly income up to R2500.

Given the level of education of parents, it is not surprising that about 69% of parents are not aware that they are expected to assist their children with homework.

Even those who are capable of assisting their children, cited either that they did not have time to do that and that their children did not ask for help or that they did not know that they were allowed to give them assistance.

It is however commendable that despite their financial state, 50% of them are able to pay their children's school fees on the first day when schools re-open in January. Those who cannot afford to pay fees on the first day, cited the following reasons:

- They did not have any income at all;
- That they have many other children;
- That their salaries are too little;
- That they only receive their salaries at the end of January whilst schools reopen during the middle of January;
- Their brothers and sisters pay fees; and,
- That the learners themselves have to do piece jobs to pay for their own fees.

Sixty (60%) percent of the parents do attend meetings and other school functions. Those who never bother to attend meetings indicated the following as their reasons:
4.2.6 Outcomes of learner interviews

Findings indicated that learners perform below expectation because of factors outside the classroom, and these factors are of social and economic nature. Many children indicated that they work hard at home and end up being too tired to study. They also spent time brooding over petty needs than studying. They complain of not being allowed to go out at night, not having enough clothes, not being allowed to watch TV at night and many other things.

Seventy six (76%) percent of learners indicated that they share rooms with other members of the family like parents, grandparents, brothers, sisters, uncles and others. This is because their parents do not have enough money to build houses big enough for their families; houses which could even accommodate extended families. Some children complained that it is impossible to study at home because of overcrowding. Hence, 55% of the learners indicated that at one stage, between their Grade 1 and Grade 12, they had to repeat Grades because of factors other than the absence of a room for studying. These include the following:

- Dropping out because of pregnancy;
- Just staying at home without any valid reason;
- No money for school fees;
- Walking long distance to school;
- Moving;
- Abused;
- Ill health;
• Underage and not yet ready for school; and,

• Lack of interest.

Fifty (50%) percent of learners go home at lunch break. This indicates that some learners are bound to walk 4km four times each day and be expected to concentrate in class and perform well. On the other hand 6% of the learners indicated that they go home at break but at times find nothing to eat at home.

Fifty six (56%) percent of the learners admitted that they do not do well at school and blamed the following:

• Not given time to study at home, does household chores and are sent on different errands. This affected the eldest siblings;

• Some admitted that they are slow and cannot catch-up at the pace of learners;

• Learning disability like shortsightedness and hard of hearing; and,

• Others admitted being playful which implies that there is no one who cares about some children’s education.

Fifteen (15%) percent of the learners indicated that at some point they thought of leaving school because of the following reasons:

• Hates morning studies;

• Fear of failing matric;

• Financial problems at home;

• Could not study at home as there was no money for electricity;
• Parent's complaining about school fees;
• One teacher hated me; and,
• Being bullied by other people on my way to school.

4.2.7 Learner observation schedule

4.2.7.1 Outside the classroom

Learners form disadvantaged backgrounds at secondary school level, in most cases, experience behavioral problems of some extent and have a problem in forming stable and sound relations with playmates and peers. They have a tendency of becoming touchy, bullying and so on. They, in some instances, display wild emotions if they are probed into anger. They are fond of playing rough games and girls in particular, seem to enjoy hurting others. Such learners go to extremes. Some are wild and noisy in class and have a problem in concentrating whilst on the other hand some are extra quiet and very reserved. They prefer to keep to their quiet comfort zones and are therefore not capable of engaging in classroom activities.

These types of learners were not taught values from home and as such are not capable of identifying and relating to authority figures, such as their educators, outside the classroom and others. They have a tendency to use a language that is unacceptable, and vulgar, to express their feelings. Hence they seem to be comfortable making friends with other children form the same backgrounds. They have a problem relating to the other gender and easily succumb to peer pressure.
4.2.7.2 Inside the classroom

Learners from poor backgrounds go to school not having been taught proper listening and communication skills. This hampers their ability to answer questions in class. In the Southern Region of the Northern Province, Sepedi speaking learners from the disadvantaged backgrounds are fond of starting with impolite words such as “Gape……..”, “a ke re……..” and so on, when answering questions. They do not fit in well in teams and can hardly carry out simple instructions unless they are repeated several times.

They work out their homework in the classroom and are not motivated to perform well and, in average, they do badly in tests. The few exceptions available depend on the extent of the disadvantage, the type of family and the neighbourhood as well as the environment from where they reside and even the vicinity of the school itself. This also accounts for their organizational and leadership skills. Closer observation revealed that it is the type of family that dictates these skills.

4.2.7.3 Involvement in extra-mural activities

Most learners from poor backgrounds engage in sporting activities almost all the time. That is, after school and over weekends herd boys play soccer even when they are supposed to be looking after cattle. It has also been observed that those learners who do not have anything to eat during lunch break, girls in particular, engage in play.
They take losing very badly to an extent that, in most cases, the losing group would start a fight. Their morale is normally high but they hardly participate in outmatches partly because their parents cannot afford to pay for their transport whilst in some cases it may be because they always anticipate that they are bound to lose. To them, losing is part of their upbringing and they can hardly stand losing once more. They are also not keen to take part in outmatches because they are afraid of going far from home. They are comfortable in their own surroundings and are afraid of going out and venture into the unknown.

4.2.7.4 Other outcomes

Depending on the family background, their neighbourhood and the tone of the school, some can hardly wear school uniforms as their parents can hardly afford them or because all their clothes were handouts. But in most cases even very poor parents struggle to provide their children with the required uniform. Depending on their religious background they normally show keenness at the assembly but are in most cases shy to reveal their singing talents. Hence they had to be probed now and again to start songs and sing them with vigour.

Seriousness in their schoolwork also depends on how they attach value to education. In families where there are siblings in institutions of higher learning, their brothers and sisters at high school level are better motivated and take their schoolwork seriously. In general it is as if most learners from disadvantaged backgrounds go to school because they have to and not because they attach value to schooling.
If shown the value of time and have identified themselves with role models of time-consciousness like punctual teachers, they easily get used to respecting time like being punctual in the morning and breaks. Listening to one teacher after the other with no activities to engage them seem to be boring and monotonous. Learners from different backgrounds enjoy lessons, which involve hands-on activities like technology lessons.

It has also been revealed through observation that the extent of parent involvement is determined by the extend at which those parents attach value to schooling. There are parents who have never been to school but have a keen interest in their children schooling. There are communities which take pride in monitoring the education of their children and that enhance the extent of respect for teachers by both learners and parents.

In most cases, learners whose parents never turn up for parents' meetings, have a tendency of displaying aggressive behaviour when being reprimanded or punished and they are in most cases, the ones who are prone to be involved in incidents of lying, fighting, bullying and rudeness.

4.2.8 Performance in examinations

In scrutinizing and following learner's progress over a period, it was discovered that learners postpone their preparations for the exams to the last few months just before the exams. Their performance is generally very poor at the end of the first term and is equally poor in the mid-year exam. But, they start taking their work seriously towards the exams and because of time constraints, even if they could manage to pass, their symbols and aggregate would be low. Hence, those learners who were condoned at the
end of grade 11, in a number of cases, they do manage to pass grade 12 with a matric pass although they would have failed in March and during the mid-year trial exams.

This observation report shows that there are a number of factors that could impact on learner performance and that, among other factors, the most crucial ones are those of social and economic nature. Ironically, it is again learners from disadvantaged backgrounds who engage in activities like digging graves on Fridays in preparation for weekend burials; absenting themselves to go and collect wood for funerals and do baking in case of girls.

It is these very learners who will take time off to take part in the initiation ceremonies; either being part of the initiates or as guardians to the initiates. It is also these learners who have a tendency of being involved in church activities almost all the time as members of youth guild, choir members, taking part in church dramas, which consume the time that is supposed to be used for studying and writing homework.

4.3 SUMMARY OF THE OUTCOME OF THE LITERATURE STUDY AND EMPIRICAL RESEARCH.

The combination of literature study and empirical research findings can be summarized as follows:

That socio-economic factors affect and impact scholastic achievement. Findings from the literature study as well as the empirical study indicated that the child's home environment
determines the type of person the child will grow up to be, and also dictates the extent at which s/he will perform at school and the number of years that child will remain at school. A child who is raised in a poverty stricken environment finds a school environment strange as s/he has to learn and conform to strange norms and values which are not in line with what is taking place at home. On the other hand, a child who grew up in a well to do environment does not have a problem conforming to the school environment as what the school expects of him/her is what s/he has been taught to practice at home.

Both the literature and empirical studies site the family as the most important entity in any child’s life. It is therefore clear that any learner’s extent of coping in the classroom and the extent at which s/he attaches value to schooling is to some large extent dependent on the learner’s home background and the tone of the school he/she attends.

4.4 RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

- This study revealed the uncertainty that exists on the issue of who is accountable for educational performance. When learners fail, all the blame goes on the teachers and the school management. Nothing is said of the learners and the environment that forms their point of departure. It is about time that the gap that exists between the home and the school, especially amongst the disadvantaged
communities with children at public schools, should be closed. The parent should know what it takes to be in a classroom and a teacher should also be aware of what is taking place at the learner’s home.

- This calls for a need for intensified ABET programmes. Parents should not only be taught reading, writing and sewing skills in adult education classes. They should also be taught life skills like how to nurture a baby’s environment which could prepare him/her for the school environment.

- Children should be raised in environments full of love and support for each other.

- They should be taught from an early age to share and develop good relationships with those around them.

- They should be taught to accommodate each other in order to fit well in groups.

- They should be told stories and some read to them if possible.

- Parents should take accountability for their children’s education, and not only by paying for their school fees but by being involved in school activities, like attending parents’ meetings, seeing to it that their children go to school on time, have uniforms, checking their written work and helping them with their homework. Parents should serve as support mechanism by creating a link between the home and the school.

- Given the socio-economic state of the families from where most of the learners at the rural secondary schools come from, policy-makers should review the feeding scheme programme and extend it to even secondary schools.

- Education for most of the South Africans, from disadvantaged backgrounds, should take a turn and emphasize skills. Rural schools should be equipped with
the necessary resources to impart skills so that any child who passes matric could be able to earn a living. That is, the curriculum should be geared towards the World of Work -- rural communities are in dire need of skills.

- Poverty alleviation programmes should be intensified in the rural communities. People should be given grants to start their own small businesses. Agriculture should be subsidized and women in particular be trained in agricultural skills.

- Children from disadvantaged backgrounds carry adult responsibilities from an early age. Both the literature study and the empirical study conducted agreed that one of the factors of socio-economic nature that impacts negatively on performance is that learners fail tests and exams because they do not have time to study at home. Given the above scenario, it is likely that October and November can be suitable months for the end of year examinations. They are rainy months and boys have to plough the fields, which they do diligently every morning before they go into the exam room and after writing the afternoon paper. The same applies to girls who are expected to weed their home surroundings and carry cow-mud as Christmas would be close by.

- A study therefore needs to be conducted on the best suitable time for end-of-year examinations, especially in Grade 12.

- Another study needs to be conducted on the feasibility of African languages as media of instruction at secondary school level. Other ethnic groups study in their mother tongues and yet it is expected that a rural child who, for instance, has never heard the English language being spoken anywhere, other than in the classroom, should perform well, studying in English.
• It is also equally important that a study be conducted to investigate how accountable rural communities are to the education of the younger members of the community.

4.5 SUMMARY

In this study, variables that impact on scholastic performance at secondary schools were evaluated. It is hoped that through this study the general attitude and myth that loomed over in regard to performance for matric learners in particular has been cleared. There are many factors that cause a child to fail, the most crucial of which are outside the classroom and outside the schoolyard. It is therefore not fair to compare learners from disadvantaged backgrounds with those from advantaged backgrounds in terms of performance, especially at matric level.


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APPENDIXES
APPENDIX A

LEARNER INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE
LEARNER INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE

A. INSTRUCTIONS

1. Read each question carefully and choose the most correct answer.
2. Information provided will be treated as confidential.

B. GENERAL INFORMATION

3. Grade ...........................................
4. Age ..............................................
5. Gender .......................................... 

C. FAMILY BACKGROUND

6. 1 Do you have any brothers and sisters?  (Tick) 
    Yes  No

6.2 If yes, how many are they?
    Less than 2
    Between 2 & 3
    Between 4 & 5
    More than 5

7.1 Do you have both parents? (Tick) 
    Yes  No

7.2 If No, explain : ..............................................................
                             ..............................................................
                             ..............................................................

8.1 Are you satisfied with the way you are brought up? (Tick) 
    Yes  No

8.2 If No, explain : ..............................................................
                             ..............................................................
9.1 Do you share a room with anybody at home? (Tick)  
Yes  |  No

9.2 If Yes, explain:  

10.1 Do you walk to school? (Tick)  
Yes  |  No

10.2 If Yes, how far is it? (Tick)  
Less than a km  |  2km  |  3km  |  More than 4km

11.1 Did you ever repeat a standard? (Tick)  
Yes  |  No

11.2 If Yes, give the reasons:  

12. Parents' level of education. (Tick)  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Father</th>
<th>Mother</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Never been to school</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower than Grade 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical Qualifications</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13.1 Are your parents employed? (Tick)  
Yes  |  No

13.2 If Yes, explain:  

..........................................................................................................................
14.1 Who pays your school fees?  (Tick)

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grandmother</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grandfather</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (specify)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15. What do you normally do during lunch break?  (explain):

........................................................................................................

........................................................................................................

16.1 Do you school books?  (Tick)

Yes  No

16.2 If No, explain:

........................................................................................................

........................................................................................................

17.1 Do you do well at school?  (Tick)

Yes  No

17.2 If No, explain:

........................................................................................................

........................................................................................................

18.1 Have you sometimes ever thought of leaving school?  (Tick)

Yes  No

18.2 If Yes, explain:

........................................................................................................

........................................................................................................

19.1 Do your teachers give you homework?  (Tick)

Yes  No
19.2 If Yes, who helps you with your homework at home? (Tick)

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sisters</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brothers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PARENTS FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW

SECTION A: GENERAL INFORMATION

1. Age, please tick in the appropriate box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Less than 25</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between 26 and 30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 31 and 40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 years and above</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Academic qualifications. (Tick)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lower than Grade 7</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade 10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matric</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technikon/Technical</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Occupation. (Tick)

| Professional |  |
| Non-Professional |  |
| Unemployment |  |

4. Monthly Income. (Tick)

| Less than R500 |  |
| Between R500 & R1000 |  |
| Between R1000 & R1500 |  |
| Between R1500 & R2500 |  |
| Above R2500 |  |

SECTION B: PARENT INVOLVEMENT

5.1 Do you ever help your children with homework? (Tick)

| Yes | No |

5.2 If No, explain: .................................................................

........................................................................................................
........................................................................................................
6.1 Have you ever paid your child’s school fees on the first day of the school? (Tick)  
| Yes | No |
--- | ---|

6.2. If No, explain:........................................................................................................
........................................................................................................

7.1 Do you ever attend parents’ meetings, if invited? (Tick)  
| Yes | No |
--- | ---|

7.2 If No, explain:........................................................................................................
........................................................................................................

8.1 Do you feel that your family’s socio-economic status impact on your child’s learning?  
(Tick)  
| Yes | No |
--- | ---|

8.2 If Yes, explain:........................................................................................................
........................................................................................................

9 How do you feel about your child’s/children’s performance?  
Explain:........................................................................................................
........................................................................................................
APPENDIX C

EDUCATOR INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE
EDUCATOR INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Qualifications:
   1.1 ACADEMIC
   1.2 PROFESSIONAL

2. Grade: .................................................................

3. Subjects/Learning Areas: ........................................

4. Number of years in the profession
   ..............................................................................

5.1 How do you rate your learners' achievement? (Tick)
   Underachieving
   Good
   Excellent

6.1 Have you ever experienced any problems with your learners? (Tick)
   Yes  No

6.2 If Yes, explain: ..............................................................
   ..............................................................................
   ..............................................................................

7.1 How do you rate the level of participation in class? (Tick)
   Bad
   Fair
   Good
   Excellent

7.2 Explain: ..............................................................
   ..............................................................................
   ..............................................................................

8.1 Do you ever discuss learners' problems? (Tick)
   Yes  No
8.2 If yes, with whom? (Tick)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Other educators</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learners themselves</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.3 Explain:........................................................................................................................................................................................................

9.1 Do you feel that cultural norms and values impact on learning? (Tick)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

9.2 If Yes, explain:........................................................................................................................................................................................................

10. How do you relate the socio-economic factors to learners’ performance?

   Explain:........................................................................................................................................................................................................

11.1 Do you feel that there is a gap between the performance of boys and girls at secondary school? (Tick)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

11.2 Explain:........................................................................................................................................................................................................
APPENDIX D

LEARNERS'S OBSERVATION SCHEDULE
LEARNER OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

1. School’s Name  Letebele Marishane
2. Ref. Number  23/3700
3. School Category  Secondary School
4. Type of School  Public School

Learners shall be observed as follows and a record kept separately.

5. Outside the Classroom.
   5.1 Ability to mingle.
   5.2 Peer pressure.
   5.3 How they relate with other learners (younger and older).
   5.4 How they relate to the opposite gender.
   5.5 Types of friends.
   5.6 How they relate to their teachers.
   5.7 Display of emotions like anger, frustration, happiness, disappointments etc.
   5.8 Language used to express their feelings.

6. Inside the Classroom.
   6.1 Listen and Communication skills.
   6.2 Teamwork spirit.
   6.3 Performance in e.g. tests.
   6.4 Extent of their motivation.
   6.5 Ability to follow and carry out instructions.
   6.6 Written work, especially homework.
   6.7 Organizational skills.
   6.8 Leadership skills.

7. Involvement in extra-mural activities.
   7.1 Are they taken seriously.
   7.2 Morale
   7.3 Reaction to losing.
   7.4 Behaviour during practices and matches.
   7.5 Their participation in outmatches.

8. Other Comments.
   8.1 Uniform.
   8.2 Singing at the Assembly.
   8.3 Seriousness about schoolwork.
8.4 Time consciousness.
8.5 Signs of boredom and lack of interest.
8.6 Involvement in incidents of lying, fighting, bulling, rudeness, etc.
8.7 Respect for teachers.
8.8 Display of aggressive behaviour when being reprimanded or punished.
8.9 Extent of parent involvement.
The Use of Census Data to Develop a Lifestyle Segmentation System or Geo-Demographics for South Africa

ANNEXURE 2
SOUTH AFRICAN LIFESTYLE CATEGORY NAMES AND DESCRIPTIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY</th>
<th>CATEGORY NAME</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1        | Mpumalanga     | - Highest population density  
- Predominant number of households earn no income with many earning below R1 500 per annum  
- People living mainly in traditional dwellings with many homes fully paid off  
- Dominant household size is six  
- Highest number of people not working but many also unemployed  
- Predominance of females  
- African population  
- Average per capita income is between R1 000-R5 000  
- Very young population of ages below 24 years  
- Mainly North Sotho speakers with some Tsonga  
- Most of population without education  
- Educated people with Standard 3 or Standard 7  
- Rural area |
| 2        | Eastern Nkosi  | - High population density  
- Many households without income with those earning an income mainly between R3 000-R15 000  
- People living mostly in traditional dwellings  
- Dominant household size is six with above average number of households with 16-21 |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>African Ngani</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>people</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Mostly people not working but many also unemployed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• More females than males</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Mostly African population</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Average per capita income is between R1 000-R5 000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Young population of ages below 24 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Predominantly Zulu-speaking people</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Many people without education, those educated mainly with a Standard 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Rural area</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Populated</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Households earn income in the R7 000-R30 000 range</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Mostly western-style houses with many rented</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Household size 2-6 people</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Many not working with relatively few unemployed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• More females than males</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Mostly African population</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Average per capita income is between R2 000-R15 000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Predominantly Zulu-speaking with some North Sotho speakers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Education up to Standard 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Many with no education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Predominantly townships</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Populated</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Households earn income in the R2 000-R15 000 range</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Mostly western-style houses with few shacks</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Many dwellings rented</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Household size 2-6 people</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Average levels of unemployment and people not working</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• More females than males</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• African population</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Average per capita income is between R1 000-R15 000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Young population of ages below 24 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Predominantly Xhosa-speaking with some South Sotho speakers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Education levels up to Standard 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Many with no education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Rural area</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Populated</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Households earn income in the R2 000-R15 000 range</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Predominance of informal settlement dwellings</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Household size 2-6 people</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Many not working with relatively few unemployed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area</td>
<td>Characteristics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Farmlands | - More males than females  
- Mostly African population  
- Average per capita income is between R1 000-R15 000  
- Young population of ages below 24 years  
- Zulu and Xhosa speakers predominate with some Tswana and South Sotho speakers  
- Education levels up to Standard 3  
- Many with no education  
- Urban area |
| Miners Glory | - Very low population with relatively high population density  
- Households earn income in the R1 000-R5 000 range  
- Predominance of huts with some western-style houses and few shacks  
- Household size 2-6 people with a dominance of 6 people households  
- Many not working with relatively few unemployed  
- Equal number of males and females  
- Predominantly African population  
- Per capita income is between R100-R3 000  
- Very young population, mostly below 14 years of age  
- Dominant language is Afrikaans  
- Many uneducated people, those with an education mainly have Standard 3  
- Rural area |
| Yokels | - Large population  
- Households earn income in the R20 000-R70 000 range  
- Predominance of hostel-type dwellings  
- Predominant household size 6 people  
- Predominantly employees |
| No-Persons-Land | • No people living in these areas  
• Mainly industrial, commercial, conservation, parklands and open space |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Merino          | • Very low population  
• Household income in the R3 000-R15 000 range  
• Mainly western-style houses with very few townhouses and shacks  
• Most dwellings are free  
• Household size 1-6 people  
• Many not working with very few unemployed  
• Predominance of males  
• Predominance of Coloureds with some Whites and Africans  
• Per capita income R1 000-R5 000  
• Population is mainly below 34 years of age  
• Afrikaans speaking  
• Average education levels with Standard 3 dominating  
• Many with no education  
• Rural area |
| 10              |                                                                  |
| Periphery       | • Most populated and with a high population density  
• Household income in the R2 000-R15 000 range  
• Mostly western-style houses with highest number of townhouses  
• Dwellings mostly rented  
• Household size 2-6 people  
• High number of people not working and unemployed  
• Mostly female population  
• Predominance of Coloureds people with some Africans  
• Many people having no per capita income  
• Those with a per capita income between R2 000-R10 000  
• Population age below 39 years  
• Highest number of Afrikaans speakers with some English speakers  
• Education levels mainly up to Standard 7  
• Urban area |
| 11              |                                                                  |
| South Wester    | • Populated  
• Household income in the R7 000-R50 000 range |
<p>| 12              |                                                                  |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rainbow Crescent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Predominantly western-style houses with very few garden flats and townhouses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Many dwellings half paid off</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Household size 2-6 people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Many people not working and unemployed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mainly female population</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Predominance of Coloured people with some Africans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Many people having no per capita income</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Those with a per capita income between R2 000-R15 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Population age below 39 years of age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mostly Afrikaans speaking with some English speakers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Education levels mainly to Standard 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Mosaic</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>High population</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Household income in the R10 000-R70 000 range</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mostly western-style houses with many townhouses and highest number of garden flats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Many dwellings half paid off</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Household size 2-6 people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Household size 2-6 people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Average number of people not working or unemployed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Predominantly Coloured population with some Asians</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Per capita income is between R7 000-R30 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Population age below 39 years of age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mostly English speaking with many Afrikaans speakers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Education levels up to Standard 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Golden Ages</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Population fairly small with relatively low population density</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Household Income in the R7 000-R50 000 range</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Few dwellings but mainly hostel-type facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Household size dominance of singles with some two people households</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Predominantly employees</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

http://www.hsrc.ac.za/socdyn/odonovan/geo8.html
| No people unemployed with few not working | More females than males |
| Mostly Whites with some Africans | Per capita income is between R3 000-R15 000 |
| Age groups of 20 to 34 and 65 to 79 | Mainly English speaking with some Afrikaans speakers |
| Urban area | Education levels to Standard 10 |

| 16 | Skyscrapers |
| Very high population | Household income in the R10 000-R70 000 range |
| Predominance of flats with few houses | Mostly rented premises |
| Dominance of single and two bedroom dwellings with some three bedroom dwellings | Low unemployment and people not working |
| Mostly females | Predominance of Whites with some Africans |
| Per capita income is between R15 000-R50 000 | Population aged between 20 and 34 years |
| Mainly English speaking with some Afrikaans speakers | Mostly with Matriculation |
| Urban area | |

| 17 | Hostelry |
| Average population size | Household income in the R10 000-R30 000 range |
| Mainly hostel-type dwellings | Mostly females |
| Mainly singles with some 2-6 bedroom dwellings | Predominantly Whites |
| Per capita income is between R5 000-R30 000 | Population age between 15 and 29 years |
| Mainly Afrikaans speaking with some English speakers | Secondary education levels |
| Urban area | |

<p>| 18 | Holdings |
| Very low population | Household income in the R20 000-R100 000 range |
| Predominantly western-style houses with few flats | Houses mostly paid off with quite a high number of renters |
| Household size mostly couples but ranging between 1-6 household size | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>19</th>
<th>Jongens</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| - High number of employers  
- Low unemployment with quite a few not working  
- Mostly females  
- Predominance of Whites with some Africans  
- Per capita income is between R10 000-R50 000  
- Population predominantly below 39 years of age  
- Predominantly Afrikaans speakers with a few English speakers  
- Education level is Standard 10  
- Predominantly peri-urban/rural |
| - Population density quite high  
- Household income in the R30 000-R150 000 range  
- Area with highest number of western-style houses with some garden flats  
- Many houses either half or fully paid off  
- Household size between 2-6 with 4 person family dominating  
- High number of both employers and employees  
- Low unemployment with quite a few not working  
- Mostly females  
- Predominantly Whites with a few Africans  
- Per capita income is between R10 000-R15 000  
- Mainly in the 30 to 49 age group but ranging between 1-59 years of age  
- Predominantly Afrikaans speaking with many English speakers  
- Education level is Standard 10 with many people having a university degree  
- Urban area |
| 20 | Highbrow |
| - Population size quite low  
- Household income in the R30 000-R300 000 range  
- Predominantly western-style houses with a few townhouses  
- High number of fully paid off houses with many half paid off dwellings  
- Household size between 1-6 with 2/4 person family dominating  
- Highest number of employers  
- Quite low unemployment and people not working  
- Mostly females  
- Predominantly Whites with a few Africans  
- Per capita income is between R15 000-R300 000 with some earning R3 000-R5 000  
- Population age group between 15 and 49 years with quite a few people between 50 and 74 years  
- Predominantly English speakers with quite a few Afrikaans and other international languages  
- Highest education levels with most number of university graduates  
- Urban area |

**TBVC LIFESTYLE SEGMENTATION NAMES AND DESCRIPTIONS**

http://www.hsrc.ac.za/socdyn/odonovan/geo8.html

08/01/01
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY</th>
<th>AMPS LSM</th>
<th>CATEGORY NAME</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 21       | LSM 1    | Kei           | - Average population size  
- Somewhat declining population  
- Dominance of females and Africans  
- Young population with ages of 0-4 years dominating with many elderly  
- Rural area  
- Poor labour force  
- Predominantly Xhosa  
- Poor income area  
- Very poor education levels  
- Very poor contribution to GGP  
- Very few dwellings  
- No dominant employment sector  
- Unstable and mobile population  
- No dominant trades |
| 22       | LSM 1    | Elfin         | - Quite populated  
- Dominance of females  
- Predominance of Africans  
- Young population with ages of 0-4 years dominating many elderly females  
- Rural area  
- Poor labour force  
- Predominantly Tswana or Tsi/Venda speakers  
- Poor income area  
- Very poor education levels  
- Little contribution to GGP  
- Very few dwellings  
- No dominant employment sector  
- Unstable and mobile population  
- No dominant trades |
| 23       | LSM 1    | Northlands    | - Quite populated  
- Area of population growth  
- Predominance of females and Africans  
- Ages of 0-14 years dominate  
- Rural area  
- Poor labour force with low unemployment  
- Predominantly North Sotho or Shangaan with some Zulu or SiSwati speakers  
- Poor income area  
- Mainly primary education  
- Population growth from 1970 to 1991  
- Poor contribution to GGP  
- Dwellings dominantly traditional  
- No dominant employment sectors |