Teenage fathers as learners in a Butterworth secondary school: Implications for Sex Education

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By

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DECLARATION

I, Mluleki Njambatwa, declare that this dissertation is my own original work. It has never been submitted by me. It has not been submitted to any university. All the sources that have been used have been indicated and acknowledged by a complete list of references.

Signature............................................................

Date …January 2013.........................................................
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I thank God for providing me this opportunity to write this dissertation for the youth of our country who will be facing youth challenges like teenage pregnancy.

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ABSTRACT

Teenage pregnancy is one of the social and health problems in many communities of South Africa and is escalating (Richter, 2005). Teenage pregnancy is also a global health problem as it affects the whole world and has been a concern to health workers like medical doctors, nurses, community developers, educators and parents (Maholo, 2009). In addition, the risk of dropping out of school due to pregnancy is considerable to teenagers as it results in a lack of qualifications and future unemployment.

The purpose of this study was to determine the perceptions and experience of teenage fathers who are both learners and fathers and their views on the effects of teenage pregnancy. Furthermore, this investigation was undertaken to investigate the implications of teenage fathers’ experiences on sex education. This study followed qualitative research approach as it is based on male teenage pregnancy which is a real consequence of teenagers engaging in sexual activities (Silverman, 2006). In this study the data collected through in depth interviews and personal journals were analyzed.

This study revealed that all the teenage fathers interviewed were not happy that they were teenage fathers instead they were disappointed, shocked, and regretful and did not believe that they could become fathers at their respective ages. They also regretted themselves for becoming teenage fathers as it delays them in their studies. They have been taught about sex education at school in a learning area called life orientation so they do not blame school but themselves for their actions.
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<tr>
<td>AIDS</td>
<td>Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DNA</td>
<td>Deoxyribonucleic acid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DoE</td>
<td>Department of Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>HIV</td>
<td>Human Immuno Virus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L.O</td>
<td>Life Orientation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MRC</td>
<td>Medical Research Council</td>
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<td>R.S.A.</td>
<td>Republic of South Africa</td>
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CHAPTER ONE
BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION
Teenage pregnancy is a state of being pregnant by a female teenager between the ages of 13 and 19 years old (Richter, 2005). It is when teenagers are becoming sexually active with having children as young as thirteen years of age experimenting with sex (Mwaba, 2000). Teenage parents or students with children, as they are also referred to in the literature are parents between the ages of 13 and 19 years (Kost, Henshaw & Carlin, 2010). Often these students drop out of school because of the pressure they experience, including stigmatization associated with early parenting, isolation from peers and lack of needed support from family, friends, schools, social service agencies and other organizations (Kost et al., 2010). Current studies indicate that teenagers become sexually active in early puberty. During this time the teenager is faced with various challenges such as the onset menstruation in girls and wet dreams in boys (Richter, 2005).

Teenage pregnancy is one of the social and health problems in many communities of South Africa and is escalating (Richter, 2005). It is escalating because teenagers are becoming sexually active in early puberty. It is also escalating despite the strategies out in place to arrest its escalation. These strategies include sex education in schools in a learning area known as life orientation, use of contraceptives and condoms (Mwaba, 2000). Teenage pregnancy is also a global health problem as it affects the whole world and has been a concern to health workers like medical doctors, nurses, community developers, educators and parents (Maholo, 2009).
Teenage pregnancy is also a socio-economic challenge and an important public health problem in South Africa (Kanku & Mash, 2010). This means that both teenage father and teenage mother are affected by pregnancy socially in that they will lose friends who will not want to be associated with friends who have children and lose trust from parents who will be disappointed by their children for having children and economically depend on their parents in raising their children and social grant from government welfare for the child support (Kanku & Mash, 2010). Teenage pregnancy is reality, which might result in unfulfilled potential and perpetuate cycles of unemployment and poverty (Maholo, 2009). It is also a public health problem in that teenagers do not work so they have to use government health department to immune and heal their children when they are sick.

Teenage pregnancy is a reflection of inconsistent use of contraceptives (Kanku & Mash, 2010). This may mean that both male and female teenagers are not committed into using prevention measures like contraceptives and condoms. In addition, the risk of dropping out of school due to pregnancy is considerable to teenagers as it results in a lack of qualifications and future unemployment (Kanku & Mash, 2010). Ignorance and failed communication between teenagers and their parents remain important contributing factors to teenage pregnancies (Magengelele, 1993). Teenagers lack qualifications in that, the teenage mother has to drop out of school in order to raise the child and most teenage fathers drop out of school in order to look for work. As they drop out of school, they face the problem of unemployment because they do not get permanent jobs due to their lack of qualifications (Kanku & Mash, 2010).
Teenage pregnancy has been viewed as a social problem that has implications for the development and empowerment of women in South Africa (De Villiers, 2004). Teenage pregnancy is a menace to our society in that early pregnancy and childbearing is linked to a host of critical social issues (Kirby, 2002). According to Kirby, critical social issues on teenage pregnancy include, among others, public costs, poverty, babies’ well being and education. Talking about public costs, raising a child by a teenage parent costs tax payers a lot of money each year, including use of public health care facilities in that a child of a teenage parent has to be taken to a public hospital free of charge when the baby is sick, free of charge because parents are not working (Kirby, 2002).

Mwaba (2000) study sought to determine the attitudes, perceptions and beliefs of a group of South African adolescents regarding teenage pregnancy (Mwaba, 2000). The sample consisted of 221 adolescents (118 females, 103 males) aged between 13 and 19 years old. The results showed that both males and females held a negative attitude towards teenage pregnancy with 77% of the females and 85% of the males regarding teenage pregnancy as wrong (Ibid). Pressure from male teenagers to engage in sex and reluctance to use contraceptives and condoms by both sexes were perceived as the main causes of teenage pregnancy (Maholo, 2009). The participants believed that teenage pregnancy brought shame on one’s family and problems for the teenage mother (Mwaba, 2000). Gender norms encourage men to engage in risky sexual behavior and the subordinate female status entrenched in many African societies, contribute to the high rates of unplanned adolescent pregnancies (Gilbert & Walker, 2002).
Research on teenage pregnancy in South Africa has followed an international trend of conceptualizing teenage pregnancy as a social problem with negative consequences particularly on the girl child (Macleod, 1999). One of the major negative effects of teenage pregnancy is considered to be disruption of the teenage girl’s education that often accompanies pregnancy (Macleod, 1999). Several studies have found that many teenage girls who fall pregnant do not plan on returning to school (Mkize, 1995). This is despite the newly legislation on the main streaming of teenage girls at school. Adolescent parents and their children are both at critical points in their lives, when their life courses can be shaped toward healthy development, stability, productivity, lifelong poverty and dependency (Stephens, Wolf & Batten, 2003). Efforts to improve outcomes for these young families must take advantage of every opportunity to connect them with the services and support that will help them move toward positive growth (Stephens, et al., 2003).

Due to the stigma attached to teenage pregnancy and parenthood, teenage parents often choose to remain unknown that they have children (Mangino, 2008). School administrators and staff may be unaware that some of their students are indeed parents. This invisibility of teenage parents often produces negative results such as inappropriate interventions to address their unique developmental needs, lack of advocacy for teenage parents and insensitivity on the part of the educational system to help parenting teens balance their education and their responsibilities as parents. Both school related and personal support were found to be of importance to teenage mothers in their journey toward high school graduation (Mangino, 2008).

Most researchers have written a lot about teenage pregnancy from the perspective of teenage mothers. It is important, therefore, to seek an understanding of teenage
father’s perceptions on teenage pregnancy (Richer, 2005; Mwaba, 2000; Maholo, 2009)

1.2 TEENAGE FATHER’S ROLE ON TEENAGE PREGNANCY

Teenage fathers are often overlooked in the big picture of teenage pregnancy (Mueller, 2010). Research studies mainly focus on the mother and baby who need support and help but neglect to think about the impact of fatherhood. Teenage fathers are affected by parenthood, they need help, advice, encouragement to take responsibility both for the babies they have fathered and their own education and future (Mueller, 2010). Fatherhood can thus be a goal for people consciously working to improve society generally and gender relations (Morrel, 2005).

Young men involved in adolescent pregnancies were more psychologically distressed than those who did not have a pregnant girlfriend in adolescent stage (Buchanan & Robbins, 2005). These young teenage fathers are stressed by the consequences that they have to face and the responsibilities that they have to face when they finish the school like supporting the child until he/she gets older. This means that although both teenagers enjoy playing with sexual intercourse, the results affect them badly (Buchanan & Robbins, 2005). Majority of teenage fathers felt obliged to meet certain responsibilities for the baby and mother (Baret & Robinson, 1982).

Sonenstein (2000) indicates that the national survey of adolescent males that began in 1988 provides information about trends in young men’s attitudes and behaviors
that are useful for understanding the perspectives of men’s population. Male learners initiate sex earlier than female learners and they tend to accumulate more sexual partners over their life time. Programs to demonstrate approaches that can be used for addressing the male role in teenage pregnancy were selected, like sex education workshops on male learners. Schools are the most popular sites of intervention where sex education is taught. Most of the health focused programs are in fact based in schools (Ibid). In the absence of intervention programmes, a sizeable proportion of adolescent mothers will become pregnant again within one year of giving birth (De Villiers, 2004).

Manley (2009) indicates that the duties of fatherhood are rarely considered before initiating sexual activity. Perhaps the first set of duties actually lies with the parents of the teenage father to bring his attention to possibility of pregnancy. The rights and duties of a teenage father are a real consequence of teenage fathers engaging in sexual activities (Ibid). Fathers who are positively engaged in the lives of their children are less likely to be depressed, to commit suicide, to beat their wives. They are likely to be involved in community work, to be supportive of their partners, to be involved in school activities and everybody benefits (Morrel, 2005).

Manley (2009) states that teenage fathers face a special set of problems including understanding their rights and being responsible for their duties. First and foremost, a teenage father has a right to question if the child is actually his child, whether he goes by blood samples or up the effort to the expense of DNA matching, the question of legitimacy father needs to be established (Manley, 2009). Teenage fathers have a right to confirm if the pregnancy actually exists. Also as learners while it is an extremely sensitive issue during a very emotional turbulent time, teenage
fathers need to know the validity of pregnancy. How upsetting this may be for everyone involved, girls have been known to manipulate boys into sex and then claim pregnancy (Manley, 2009). Although rare, manipulation of teenage fathers by teenage girls does happen especially when girl’s family values are not clear in that there is no parent figure who states what is expected from teenagers (Ibid). Contacting teenage fathers through their pregnant girlfriends is not an altogether reliable approach. Responses could be biased in either a more positive or more negative direction as a result of tensions surrounding their relationships. However, the need for data on teenage father justifies these methods as initial research effort (Barret & Robinson, 1982). Secondly if there is lack of communication between parents and teenagers chances are that teenagers will do as they wish since there is no guidance from parents on sex education (Manley, 2009).

In addition to verifying the pregnancy and the paternity of the father, teenage fathers have the same rights as the teenage mother to the child after birth occurs, this includes visiting teenage mother’s home and talk to the parent’s mother about the role teenage father is expected to play (Manley, 2009). Young fathers whether they marry the mother or not, are financially responsible for the child’s costs from pregnancy, delivery and childhood just as the mother is, however, financial demands do not end at birth but will continue until the child is ready to work (Buchaman, 2005). Once facts are established, the teenage father should be prepared to assume his share of rights and responsibilities related to the child, regardless of the status of the relationship between the parents whether they are still in love or not (Manley, 2009). Another emerging interest is the father’s parents asserting grandparent visitation rights. Would be grandparents both maternal and paternal share the same rights in raising the grandchild. This means that the parents
of a teenage girl and the parents of a teenage father must work together responsibly in raising the grandchild of their teenagers (Ibid).

Fathers have traditionally played the role of provider in the lives of their children and when they are absent it places tremendous pressure on the teenage mother (De Villiers & Kekesi, 2004). Many of the negative life outcomes brought about by teenage pregnancy are better managed when the father has strong emotional ties to the child and provides support to both the mother and the child (Larson, 1996; &Wiemann, 2006). By far the majority of studies on early parenthood focus on young women, shedding little light on the men who have impregnated them and rendering them as ‘invisible or absent’ (Bunting & McCauley, 2004; Coleman, 1998). When information is available about teenage fathers, it is usually from the perspective of the teenage mother and often presents men as perpetrators (Madhavan, Townsend & Garey, 2008; Morrel, 2007; Pattman, 2007).

According to a study by the Human Science Research Council, many teen dads are aware of the magnitude of the responsibility, and would like to play a role in raising their child. Teenage Tata, Voices of Young Fathers in South Africa takes a close look at the attitude of fathers between the ages of 14 and 20. Among the trends the researchers found was that teen fathers feared the response of their families to the news that their girlfriends were pregnant. They felt that their parents would be disappointed in them, and were also very aware of the financial expectations brought about by a pregnancy. Teen fathers may find their role usurped by other family members, leaving them sidelined. ‘Just like young mothers, young fathers require support to improve their educational and economic circumstances in order to fulfill caregiver and provider roles,’ says a study on Teenage Pregnancy done by the
Human Science Research Council. ‘In the absence of institutional support, families play a critical role in cushioning the blow of early fatherhood by taking on care-giving roles (HSRC, 2000).

A glaring gap, however, is the lack of systematic information about how males could and should participate in teenage pregnancy prevention efforts (Sonenstein, 2000). Although consensus may have been reached about the importance of involving males in teen pregnancy prevention, little is generally known about how to reach them or how to influence their reproductive behavior. Knowledge needs to be developed on pregnancy prevention programs that involve males (Sonenstien, 2000). A number of programs including male sessions on sex only can be initiated in communities throughout the country to provide useful advice and counsel to new initiatives. These prevention programs can be spread out in different parts of the country and be sponsored by different government and non-governmental organizations (Sonenstein, 2000).

Another factor that is driving the high teenage pregnancy rate in some areas of Eastern Cape province is the attitude of nurses towards the use of contraceptives by both teenage fathers and teenage girls (MRC, 2009). According to a recent medical research council study, nurses’ attitudes were a major barrier to teenagers getting hold of contraceptions. The nurses were uncomfortable about providing teenagers with condoms and contraceptives as they felt teenagers should not be having sex. They responded to requests for contraception in a manner that was highly judgmental and unhelpful, which teenagers described it as harassment (MRC, 2009).
1.3 TEENAGE PARENT’S EXPERIENCES

Becoming a parent, at any age, can be a life-threatening experience, regardless of race, education, and socio-economic status, motherhood and fatherhood, uniformly places demands on one’s life that were non-existent prior to the birth of a child (Kost, Henshaw, & Carlin, 2010). Adolescent pregnancies imply adverse health, social and economic implications for the mothers, fathers and their children (Ehlers, 2003). Physical problems experienced by adolescent mothers younger than sixteen years of age in South Africa include pregnancy induced hypertension, premature labour and anaemia (Lesser & Loyd, 1999). When school-aged students become parents, the new responsibilities can be overwhelming. For teenage parents who lack support from their own parents, this experience can be even more daunting as they seek support in adult-oriented systems, which even older parents may find challenging (Kost et al., 2010).

Teenage parents or students with children, as they are also referred to in the literature are parents between the ages of 13 and 19 years old. Often these students drop out of school because of the pressures they experience, including stigmatization associated with early parenting; isolation from peers; and lack of needed support from family, friends, schools, social service agencies, and other organizations (Kost, Henshaw, & Carlin, 2010). Most teenagers perceived falling pregnant as a negative event with consequences such as unemployment, loss of partners, blame from friends and family members, feeling guilty, difficulty at school, complications during pregnancy or delivery, risk of HIV infection, infertility if abortion has done wrongly and not being prepared for parenthood (Kanku & Mash, 2010).
Teenage parents often cited school related reasons for dropping out of school (Mangino, 2008). One of the specific issues that were identified as hindering their educational attainment was rigidity by some school administrators concerning the school’s attendance policies. This included the inability to provide adequate leave for teen parents to complete their general child care responsibilities (Mangino, 2008). Another school related reason for teenage parents dropping out of school was the lack of transportation between their homes, daycare and the school for both of them and their children (Mangino, 2008). The gap between teenage mother’s aspirations and the support they receive suggests that educators are missing an opportunity to facilitate teenage mother’s school progress and their long term educational attainment (SmithBattle, 2007). Adolescent pregnancies often result in single parenthood (Buchanan & Robbins, 2005). This means that most of the time the relationship between teenage mother and teenage father no longer exit immediately they impregnate each other, the teenage mother of the child is left alone by the teenage father in raising the child (Buchanan & Robbins, 2005).

Medical Research Council study found that social pressures often prevented young teenagers from using contraception. The girls felt that they would only be accepted as women once they proved their fertility. Many mothers wanted their teenage daughters to become pregnant so they could have a grandchild at home in order to receive social grants from government (Medical Research Council, 2009).

Teenage parents have described how having a child reinforced their interest in education and was instrumental in helping them to see how education would help them provide a better future for their children, increase their employment
opportunities and help them avoid depending on public assistance (Zarchy, 2005). The decision to accept available support is characterized as the personal transformation stage of teenage parenting. The personal transformation stage begins when a teenage mother realizes that success and freedom for her and her child do not come without personal drive, unselfish dedication and a commitment to succeed. Some studies indicate that teenage parents have found that having a child critically changes their perspectives on both their schooling and their future (Zarchy, 2005).

The rate of teenage pregnancy has reached alarming proportions (Mwaba, 2000). According to statistics released by the Medical Research Council, one in three girls will be pregnant before the age of 20. More and more teenagers are becoming sexually active with children as young as 13 years experimenting with sex (Mwaba, 2000). Figures released by South African Department of Education indicate that teenage pregnancies have doubled despite a decade of spending on sex education (Harrison, 2007). The number of pregnant school girls jumped from 1.169 in 2005 to 2.336 in 2006 in Gauteng Province only. South Africa has a huge teen pregnancy problem (Harrison, 2007).

Research shows that teenagers become sexually active at an early stage without using any form of contraception and protection even though these are available (Richter, 2005). Much has been learned about the types of interventions that work and that do not work, however, glaring gap is the lack of systematic information about how males could and should participate in pregnancy prevention efforts (Sonenstein, 2000).
Regarding the escalation of teenage pregnancy (Mwaba, 2000) shows that, a number of contributory factors have been identified such as peer pressure to engage in sex, poor self-identity, low self-image, family disorganization and breakdown of cultural traditions. The study shows that the majority of the teenagers held a negative attitude towards teenage pregnancy with 77% of the female and 85% of the males regarding it as wrong (Mwaba, 2000).

The rising incident of teenage pregnancy has been a problem to all involved in promoting health like parents, educators, health workers, etc (Maholo, 2009). Studies in South Africa have sought to determine the attitudes, beliefs and consequences. Teenage pregnancy is the major health problem in the girls of South Africa. It can lead to depression, poor school performance and emotional instability. The teenage girl develops fear of the unknown with regard to abandonment by a boyfriend (Richter, 2005).

According to the South African Medical Research Council, the high level of teenage pregnancy has heightened that two to three girls under the age of 20 falls pregnant in a typical rural school with 1, 200 to 1, 400 pupils. It is also clear that there are hotspots where things are horribly wrong, the Gauteng figures showed 71 percent of pupils pregnant at one school in Soweto, a huge township on the outskirts of Johannesburg. Somehow there are schools where 60 to 70 percent of pupils are pregnant (Harrison, 2006). There is no doubt that this is associated with things like gang activity, coercion and substance abuse, Harrison said, adding that according to a 2006 survey, 30 percent of girls in South Africa said their first sexual experience was forced or under threat of force.
Stigma during or after pregnancy can lead to depression, social exclusion, low self esteem and poor academic performance affecting the prospects of employment in the future (Abe & Zane, 1990). The Children of teenage mothers are more likely to drop out of school, obtain lower grade point averages and report poorer school attendance records (Cassell, 2002; Kirby, 2007). Research from the National Study on Family Growth (2002) indicates that the characteristics of the adolescent mother have an impact on the timing of first birth of their children. For teenagers whose mother had an adolescent birth, 32% had given birth by the age of 20 compared to 11% of those whose mothers delayed child bearing beyond 20 years of age. In this way the intergenerational transmission of poverty is perpetuated between mothers and daughters (Botting et al., 1998; Cassell, 2002: Kiernan, 1995). For sons, teenage motherhood increases the risk of behaviour problems and, particularly, for imprisonment on young women, shedding little light on the men who have impregnated them and rendering them as ‘invisible (Hoffman, 2006).

Teenage pregnancy is also linked to poverty. 67 percent of families begun by a teen mother live in poverty and 52 percent of all mothers currently on welfare had their first child as a teenager. Perhaps this is because teen moms are less likely to complete high school, making it difficult for them to obtain higher paying jobs (Cassell, 2002).

Teenage pregnancy is also linked to health issues (Kirby, 2002). Health issues include, among others, morning sickness and vomiting. On babies well being, since teens often do not practice optimum prenatal care, babies born to teen moms are more likely to be born prematurely and low birth weight. They are also more likely to
suffer abuse and neglect than children born to moms older than 20, this entrenching poverty and crime (Kirby, 2002).

Brenner and Robin (2000) believe that the relationship teenagers have with school can influence their sexual behavior in that when teenagers feel a sense of attachment and connection to school, they are likely to fall pregnant (Brenner & Robin, 2000). School attachment, academic achievement and higher aspirations for education offer incentives for teenagers to avoid pregnancy. On the other hand, when the relationship with schooling is tenuous either through dislike of school, poor academic achievement, poor expectation of furthering education, teenagers are more likely to pregnant each other (Ibid).

1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT
The rising incident of teenage pregnancy has been a problem to all involved in promoting health such parents, teachers, health workers etc. Teenage pregnancy poses major social problems such as isolation by peers, lost of trust by parents, emotional and physical health risk to teenagers (Mwaba, 2000). Most research on teenage pregnancy focus mostly on girls as most teenagers become pregnant whilst still at school (Maholo, 2009). It, therefore, became necessary to determine the perceptions and experiences of teenage fathers as both learners and fathers.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS
1.5.1 Main research question
What are the teenage fathers’ experiences as learners and fathers?

1.5.2 Sub questions
- What are the teenage fathers’ views on the effects of teenage pregnancy?
• How do teenage fathers receive pregnancy prevention strategies?

1.6 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY
The purpose of this study is to ascertain the perceptions and experiences of teenage fathers towards teenage pregnancy and determine the experiences of male learners as teenage fathers.

1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY
The study intends to bring new experiences of teenage fathers on how they perceive the impact of teenage pregnancy, since most studies deal with teenage mothers. (Morrel, 2005) has found out that men and particular constructions of masculinity historically have been implicated in inequalities and injustices on teenage pregnancy. These can be found in historical and contemporary patterns in South Africa.

 ✓ High levels of violence against women like murder, rape and domestic violence.

 ✓ Domination of certain spheres of public life by men to the exclusion of women.

 ✓ It is not all men who threaten peace, democracy and harmony but rather particular constructions of masculinity that legitimate the use of violence, the undemocratic assertion of power and the rights of men over women and children.

1.8 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS
Perceptions: The ability to see, hear, or become aware of something through the senses (Mwaba, 2000).
Adolescent mother: An adolescent mother is any mother aged 19 or younger at the time of the birth of her baby irrespective of the pregnancy outcome and irrespective of her marital status (Mwaba, 2000).

A Teenage father: A teenage father is any father between the ages of 13 and nineteen who has pregnant a teenage girl while still at school without having used contraceptives (Sonestein, 2000).

Sexual Education: is a broad term used to describe education about human sexual anatomy, sexual reproduction, sexual intercourse, reproduction (Sonestein, 2000).

Masculinity: Masculinity means having qualities or appearance considered typical of or appropriate for men (Luyt, 2003).

1.9 THE STRUCTURE OF THE DISSERTATION

CHAPTER ONE
The chapter will cover the background to the study, problem statement, research questions, purpose of the study and significance of the study.

CHAPTER TWO
In this chapter, a review of the available literature on teenage pregnancy will be presented.

CHAPTER THREE
This chapter will deal with research methods and methodology.

CHAPTER FOUR
In this chapter, data will be presented and analyzed.

CHAPTER FIVE
This chapter will present the conclusions and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION
The literature review is a chapter that brings to view “previous research and theoretical writings, that ground your study in the ongoing conversation about the topic”. Such writings also establish the particular framework that guides understanding of the topic (Rossman, 2008). This chapter will share with the reader the results of previous studies that are related to this study. It will, “be clearly shown how these studies relate to one another and how the proposed research ties in with them” (Huysamen, 2005). Doing a literature review means not only tracking down all the relevant information, but also taking a critical position on the ideas contained therein (Walliman, 2009).

The literature review in this study will be differentiated into various themes comprising conceptualization of terms, theoretical framework as the literature review should not consist of a mere compilation of separate, isolated summaries of the individual studies of previous researchers (Walliman, 2009).

2.2 CONCEPTUALISATION OF TEENAGE PREGNANCY
Teenage pregnancy is a state of being pregnant by a female teenager between the ages of 13 and 19 years old (Richter, 2005). Teenage pregnancy is a major health problem in many communities of South Africa. It remains high amongst the
teenagers; therefore, it is important to seek an understanding of teenage father’s perceptions regarding this issue (Richter, 2005). It has been viewed as a social problem that has implications for the development and empowerment of women in South Africa. The rate of teenage pregnancy has reached alarming propositions (Mwaba, 2000). According to statistics released by the Medical Research Council, one in three girls will be pregnant before the age of 20. More and more teenagers are becoming sexually active with children as young as 13 years experimenting with sex (Mwaba 2000). Given the complexity of the problem of teenage pregnancy, health care professionals working with teenagers should develop a wide range of practical and interpersonal skills in order to reduce the high rate of teenage pregnancy (Richter, 2005).

2.2.1 Factors leading to teenage pregnancy

Regarding the factors leading to teenage pregnancy, the following number of contributory factors has been identified by (Mwaba, 2000):

Peer pressure to engage in sex, where both boys and girls engage in sexual activities not because they know about sexual intercourse but because of the influence from friends and peers.

Poor self-identity, which means that teenagers are not sure about what they want in life as a result they identify themselves with wrong people in search of identity.

Low self–image, refers to teenagers who lack confidence in themselves as a result they are easily influenced by their peers with high self-image to engage in sex.
**Family disorganization and break down of cultural traditions**, this refers to families where parents are not role models because of their actions like always fighting each other in front of children, divorce and separation of parents of the teenagers which often causes teenagers to look for role models outside their homes. One of the cultural traditions of our societies is to lead a life that is exemplary to children therefore if the society lacks cultural traditions, teenagers will follow their hearts and do what they think is right (Mwaba, 2000).

Mwaba (2000) showed that the majority of the teenagers held a negative attitude towards teenage pregnancy with 77% of the females and 85% of the males regarding it as wrong but the act continues as boys and older men impregnate girls (Mwaba, 2000). According to (Manley, 2009), the duties of teenage fathers are rarely considered before initiating sexual activity. This means that teenage fathers enjoy sexual intercourse and care less about the consequences of teenage pregnancy in terms of supporting and raising the child.

The problem of teen pregnancy continues to be prevalent regardless of efforts on the part of educational institutions, parents and social agencies. Teen fathers face a special set of problems including their rights and being responsible for their duties (Manley, 2009).

The arising incident of teenage pregnancy has been a problem to all involved in promoting health like parents, educators, health workers, etc. Studies in South Africa have sought to determine the attitudes, beliefs and perceptions of teenagers regarding teenage pregnancy in terms of cause and consequences (Richter, 2005).
Teenage pregnancy is a major health problem in the girls of South Africa. It can lead to depression, poor school performance and emotional instability. The teenage girl develops fear of the unknown with regard to abandonment by a boyfriend (Richter, 2005).

2.3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
This part of the review forms basis on various theories that relate to the study which have already been done by other scholars. The framework of this study will relate to two forms of theories. Firstly, a theory on masculinity will be discussed and followed by experiences of teenage fathers with regard to teenage pregnancy.

2.3.1 Masculinity
Masculinity means possessing qualities or characteristics considered typical of or appropriate for men (Luyt, 2003). The term can be used to describe any human, animal or object that has the quality of being masculine. When masculine is used to describe men, it can have degrees of comparison—more masculine, most masculine (Morrel, 2005). Masculinity is something that is associated with the biological male sex and having male genitalia, for instance, is regarded as a natural aspect of masculinity (Ingrid, 2008). Others have suggested that while masculinity may be influenced by biological factors, it is also culturally constructed. As such, masculinity is not restricted to men and can, in fact, be female as women frequently display behavior, traits and physical attributes that are considered "masculine" in a given historical and social context (Morrel, 2005).

It holds advantage in understanding male realities. It has found increasing favor not only in masculinity research but across traditional disciplinary divides. Men
experience their gender in complex and contradictory ways (Luyt, 2003). For the purpose of this discussion, it is useful to define the two broad approaches to understanding individual reality from which the material-discursive perspective emanates. These may be described as the material naturalistic (psychology) and discursive constructionist (sociological) outlook. Material-naturalistic approach reflects enlighten thought. It is claimed that all experience may be explained in terms of the observable physical world, including the body and the surrounding environment, these operating independently of each other (Luyt, 2003).

Men and particular constructions of masculinity historically have been implicated in inequalities and injustices (Morrel, 2005). These can be found in historical and contemporary patterns in South Africa.

- High levels of violence against woman like murder, rape and domestic violence.
- Domination of certain spheres of public life by men to the exclusion of women.
- It is not all men who threaten peace, democracy and harmony but rather particular constructions of masculinity that legitimate the use of violence, the undemocratic assertion of power and the rights of men over women and children (Morrel, 2005).

Men have been identified in this literature as new men who have seen gender hierarchies and rigid sexual divisions of labor to break down as men having taken more responsibility in the domestic realm (for child care and household work) and insisted less on public positions (Luyt, 2003). One effect of the new man model of
masculinity has been an increasing realization of the value of families for men and of men for families. Around the world there are organizations that are working for men to become more involved in the lives of their children, whether this be in the context of nuclear or extended families or whether the children are their own biological offspring or not (Luyt, 2003).

The concepts of father and fatherhood are often used interchangeably but it is important to distinguish between the idea of biological father and somebody who undertakes the fatherhood role. A biological connection with a child is not necessary for successful fathering. More important are love, reliability, availability, dependability and support (Morrel, 2005). Fatherhood can thus be a goal for people consciously working to improve society, generally and gender relations specifically (Luyt, 2003). When males, young and old, appreciate fathers and aspire to fill the fatherhood role, they benefit in many ways individually and society benefits as well. Fathers who are positively engaged in the lives of their children are less likely to be depressed, to commit suicide, to beat their wives. They are more likely to be involved in community work, to be supportive of their partners, to be involved in school activities, and everybody benefits (Morrel, 2005).

In every society, men and women are expected to conform to the accepted male or female behavior, characteristics and roles that have broad implications for a person’s access to resources and capacity for decision making (Lynch, 2008). Lynch’s article describes several norms related to gender and sexuality that make men and women differently vulnerable to pregnancy. It describes how in many cultures women are often expected to be monogamous (having one sexual partner) while men are
allowed to have a variety of sexual partners. Women are also expected to be ignorant about sex and passive in sexual interactions. This makes it difficult for women to be proactive in negotiating safer sex (Lynch, 2008).

Masculine identity as global and local question has been placed in the focal point. It therefore appears that men have lost something of the sense of what it means to be a man (Van der Watt, 2007). It is perceived and reflected by the media that many men for instance in South Africa especially those who are middle-class and heterosexually oriented are often uncertain about what is expected of them and what they can expect of themselves. There is a tendency that in certain areas of life, specifically with regards to intimacy and loving relationships men has lost direction and do not know exactly where to find meaningful guidance (Van der Watt, 2007).

Frizelle (2003) have focused on the way in which women are positioned in relation to men as ultimately having limited control over their bodies and sexual activity. This focus has tended to relegate women to sexual beings who are passive victims of male strength, while men are positioned as primarily aggressive and uncontrollable sexually. Frizelle also explores the way in which men operate in socially defined circumstances and institutions where they have historically been in a position of authority. It attempts to highlight the way in which these institutional locations open up the space where men can reflectively and reflexively act out their masculinity (Ibid).

Frizelle (2003) highlights the way in which constructions of masculinity may partially explain the racially skewed nature of HIV infection in South Africa. She demonstrates
the way in which young men treat and experience their sexual relationships as games or competitions. A successful masculinity is, in this context, partially constituted through sexual relationships with girls and deployed in struggles for position and status among male peers. Multiple partners and ability to control partners become important components in displaying a successful masculinity (Ibid).

South Africa has the most people living with HIV in the world. It has the highest per capital rate of reported rape in the world. Rape increases the chances of HIV infection when the perpetrator is infected himself. This highlights the urgency for social scientists to engage in research that aims to provide a more complex and nuanced picture of violence by focusing on micro level constellations for action and exposing the contradictory, multiplications and shifting ways in which people live their gender and class (Frizelle, 2003).

Masculinity is not a conscious process; it is perpetuated through social institutions and is enforced and policed through individual interactions (Connell, 2001). Connell introduced the idea of multiple masculinities rather than a single category that every man fits into. She recognizes that there are intersections and variations of masculinity based on race, location, culture, time period, age, ability, etc. and developed four classifications: hegemony, subordination, complicity, and marginalization (Ibid).

Hegemonic masculinity is the norm, something that men are expected to aspire to and that women are discouraged from associating with (Connell, 2001). According to Connell, hegemonic masculinity can be defined as the ‘configuration of gender
practice which embodies the currently accepted answer to the problem of the legitimacy of patriarchy, which guarantees the dominant position of men and the subordination of women. The military, top levels of businesses and government agencies provide leading examples of this facet of masculinity within society. It is an expectation of what a “real man” should act and look like, but in reality no one can successfully achieve hegemony (Ibid).

Connell's idea of hegemonic masculinity is not only seen in men but it is clear among young children in school as well. This concept invokes a leading way of doing gender relations that implements the gender order status quo by raising the general status of masculine qualities over feminine qualities (Connell, 2001). The idea of hegemonic masculinity in the context of young boys is used to re-create gender order in childhood play where the general ideas of men's dominance are learned and reinforced (Lynch, 2008).

According to Connell (2001), subordinate masculinity is the cultural authority of heterosexual men and subordination of homosexual men. “Gayness” is viewed as the polar opposite of what masculinity entitles a man to be; therefore it is associated with femininity and is politically, economically, and culturally attacked. Heterosexual men view gay men in the same light that they view women, meaning that there is an innate need for dominance. This leads to the subordination of men who present their masculinity in the “wrong” way and are seen as having a failed hegemonic masculinity (Ibid).
Complicit masculinity is the categorization of men who connect with hegemony but do not fully represent hegemonic masculinity (Connell, 2001). A great many men who draw the patriarchal dividend also respect their wives and mothers, are never violent towards women, do their accustomed share of the housework, bring home the family wage, and can easily convince themselves that feminists must be bra-burning extremists. Men that fall into this category do not receive the same benefits and privileges as those who are seen as purely hegemonic (Ibid).

Marginalized masculinity is the authorization of the hegemonic masculinity (Connell, 2001). Men who fall into this category benefit less from the hegemonic ideal because of traits other than their gender behavior. Race relations may also become integral part of the dynamic between masculinities. In a white-supremacist context, black masculinities play symbolic roles for white gender construction. In other words, the hegemonic masculinity among whites maintains the oppression against the masculinity among blacks. Though these concepts have been discussed in context to men, masculinity affects everyone. Both men and women can benefit from or be oppressed by the expectations of masculinity that are meant to be lived up to in society (Connell, 2001).

Traditional avenues for men to gain honor were that of providing adequately for their families and exercising leadership (Smith, 2009). The traditional family structure consisted of the father as the bread-winner and the mother as the homemaker. During World War II, women entered the workforce in the drive to replace the soldiers who were sent overseas. While some returned home to resume their positions as homemakers if their husbands survived the war, others remained in the
workplace (Smith, 2009). Over the decades since then, women have risen to high political and corporate positions. This shift has caused an increase in women becoming the primary income-earners and men the primary care-givers, a process author Jeremy Adam Smith calls "the daddy shift" in his 2009 book of that title. As of 2007, 159,000 dads were primary care-givers and this number is increasing. Dubbed stay-at-home dads, these men are performing duties in the home which are not being done by women. Regardless of age or nationality, men more frequently rank good health, harmonious family life and good relationships with their spouse or partner as important to their quality of life (Smith, 2009).

Bob Connell (2001), an Australian sociologist developed a theory of masculinity in 1995 which sought to take account of psychological insights and social forces, which attempted to blend the diverse intellectual influences of materialism, feminism and critical theory. He showed that while men oppressed women, some men also dominated and subordinated other men. In developing this thesis Connell showed that there is a masculinity that was hegemonic that is one that dominated other masculinities and which succeeded in creating prescriptions of masculinity which were binding and which created cultural images of what it meant to be a real man (Morrel, 2005).

Masculinities are fluid and should not be considered as belonging in a fixed way to any one group of men (Connell, 2001). They are socially and historically constructed in a process which involves contestation between rival understandings of what being a man should involve. Masculinity is a term that refers to a specific gender identity,
belonging to a specific male person (Lynch, 2008). While this gender identity is acquired in social contexts and circumstances, it is owned by an individual.

Masculinity is not inherited nor is it acquired in a one off way (Morrel, 2005). It is constructed in the context of class, race and other factors which are interpreted through the prism of age. Boys develop a masculine gender identity which is deficient relative to the adult masculinity of men (Connell, 2001). While masculinity is not automatically acquired, it is also true that boys and men are not entirely free to choose those images which please them. Their tastes and their bodies are influenced; some would say shaped, by discourses of gender which they encounter from birth (Morrell, 2001).

A number of theorists addressing the issue of power and specifically patriarchal power, have identified social locations where such power is produced and reproduced (Walby, 1990; Connell, 1987). They have theorized three levels of gender power-labour, power (identified as multiple actions which include force and decision by one male person over another female person and cathexis (the social structure of sexuality and emotions) (Morrel, 2001). Race and class are of major importance in determining how men understand their masculinity, how they deploy it and in what form the patriarchal dividend comes to them (Lynch, 2008).

Masculinity and violence have been yoked together in South African history (Frizelle, 2003). South Africa, until recently, was a man’s country. Power was exercised publicly and politically by men. In families both black and white, men made decisions, earned the money and held power. The law both customary and modern supported the presumption of male power and authority and discriminated against
women. The country’s history also produced brittle masculinities that is defensive and prone to violence (Ibid).

In conclusion, Frizelle (2003) highlights the complexity of masculinity in which it is contested, challenged or affirmed in differing social and historical contexts. It will be a valuable read for students in a variety of disciplines within the social sciences, and especially useful tool for those interested in the construction of identity (Frizelle, 2003).

2.3.2 Teenage fathers’ experiences on Teenage pregnancy
While extensive studies have been conducted on adolescent mothers, a paucity of information exists on adolescent fathers, most of which is impressionistic data (Barret & Robinson, 1982). The purpose of the study is to provide demographic data and information on the young father’s relations with teenage mothers.

An adolescent mother is any mother aged 19 or younger at the time of the birth of her baby irrespective of the pregnancy outcome and irrespective of her marital status (Barret & Robinson, 1982). Adolescent pregnancies imply adverse health, social and economic implications for the mothers and their children. Physical problems experienced by adolescent mothers, younger than 16 years of age in the Republic of South Africa (R.S.A) include pregnancy induced hypertension, premature labor and anaemia. These physical problems might remain undetected because they attend prenatal clinics very late during their pregnancies. Many adolescent mothers will need to discontinue their education, limiting their chances of finding jobs with salaries, which can sustain these mothers and their children (Ibid).
Financial hardships can aggravate the adolescent mother’s social adjustment problems, increasing the likelihood of resorting to prostitution to augment their incomes. Prostitution implies health risks, especially in the R.S.A with its high HIV/AIDS prevalence, indicated by a number of pregnant women found to be HIV positive during 1998 (Elhers, 2003). Adolescent mothers face failures in many aspects of their lives. This is sometimes referred to as “the syndrome of failure; failure to fulfill the functions of adolescence, failure to remain in the school, failure to limit family size, failure to establish a vocation and become self-supporting and failure to have children who reach their potential in life (Ibid).

Despite the extensive attention given to adolescent sexuality and teenage pregnancy in the past 30 years, many teenagers are still falling pregnant (De Villiers, 2004). According to De Villiers, for many teenagers, sex has become morally equivalent to other casual, free time activities that they enjoy together and until we confront this problem effectively, children will increasingly risk disease and early death. A teenager who becomes a parent is at a significant disadvantage in becoming a contributing adult both psychosocially and economically”. Premature sexual intercourse results in high rates of sexually transmitted diseases, adolescent pregnancy and abortions (Ibid).

Children of teenage mothers are at an increased risk of cognitive and psychological deficits (De Villiers, 2004). The combination of cognitive, emotional, academic and social problems amounts to massive school failure for these children of children. These problems are attributable to poor parenting, lower socioeconomic status and disadvantaged neighborhoods (Ibid).
Responsible sexual behavior is based on openness rather than repression and on teaching youngsters that saying no is more grown up than assuming that everybody does it (Elhers, 2003). Promoting abstinence for teenagers and at the same time advocating safer sex through the use of condoms is a mixed message, but it is necessary and realistic. In the absence of intervention programmes, a sizeable proportion of adolescent mothers will become pregnant again within one year of giving birth (De Villiers, 2004).

Current studies indicate that teenagers become sexually active in early puberty (Richter, 2005). During this time, the teenager is faced with various challenges such as the onset of menstruation in girls and wet dreams in boys. Compared to urban areas, the incidence of teenage pregnancy, abortion and childbirth is significantly higher in the rural areas. These teenagers become sexually active at an earlier stage and without using any form of contraception (Richter, 2005).

Teenage pregnancy can lead to depression, poor school performance and emotionally instability (Morrel, 2005). The teenager develops fear of the unknown with regards to abandonment by a boyfriend, deprivation or reduced family sanitation. Amongst girls, pregnancy reflects an attitude of passivity and not of caring about what happens in their lives. Some teenagers fall pregnant because they are not assertive (Ibid).

It is recommended that teaching should be based on empowering teenagers and should aim at developing responsible attitudes with regard to sexual behavior. This
will reduce casual sex and repeated pregnancy, ensures contraceptive compliance, continuation of education or empowerment. It is also recommended that sex education programmes should be offered at venues where teenagers congregate informally. Programmes that promote abstinence should be developed (Morrel, 2005).

Teenage pregnancy is a major health problem in many communities of South Africa. It remains high amongst the teenagers in South Africa; therefore, it is important to seek an understanding of teenagers’ perceptions regarding this issue. For many teenagers, sexual activities result in unplanned pregnancies, childbirth or abortion. Current studies indicate that teenagers become sexually active in early puberty. They are faced with challenges such as the onset of menstruation in girls and wet dreams in boys. They become sexually active at an earlier stage and without using any form of contraception (Richter, 2005).

Teenage pregnancy can lead to depression, poor school performance and emotional instability. The teenager develops fear of the unknown with regard to abandonment by a boyfriend, deprivation or family sanction. Teenage boys are not seen visiting clinics for family planning and are reluctant to use condoms as a form of contraception and a method of infection control. The teenage boys refuse to use condoms because they commented that sex with a condom was not enjoyable. Health professionals need to visit schools in order to convince these boys about the use of condoms and encourage teachers to teach more on sex education (Richter, 2005).
Teenage pregnancy is a global public health problem and has been a concern to health workers, community developers, educators and parents since early nineties. According to South Africa’s national campaign to prevent teenage pregnancies, in South Africa, one in three teenagers becomes pregnant before the ages of 18-19. Since 2004, school teachers in Soshanguve of the Gauteng Province, have reported high rates of teenage pregnancies to health care workers and have requested interventions as a matter of urgency.

The rising incidence of teenage pregnancy has been a concern to all involved in promoting health. Teenage pregnancy poses major social, emotional and physical health risk to teenagers. As most teenagers become pregnant whilst still at school, it became necessary to determine the pattern of relationship perceptions of school going teenager regarding their pregnancies, their lives and the role of their socio-cultural environments. Despite the freely available contraceptives at state health facilities the number of teenage pregnancies in South Africa including Soshanguve, remains high (Maholo, 2009).

According to Maholo (2009), most pregnant teenagers intended returning to school leaving their babies with their grandmothers. Some felt hopeless, discouraged and desperate. One of the pregnant teenagers stated that she would not go back to school because she had added another responsibility to her mom who is helpless. Another one saw a problem in coping with studies and caring for a baby at the same time. The reality of being pregnant and raising a child brought in new perspective to the teenagers as most felt the need to improve their lives by pursuing their studies.
Teenage pregnancy is a reality, which might result in unfulfilled potential and perpetuate cycles of unemployment and poverty. The evidence produced by the study suggests that ignorance and failed communication between teenagers and their parents remain important factors contributing to teenage pregnancies. Pregnant teenager’s socio-cultural environments also contributed to unplanned pregnancies.

Based on the results of the study Maholo (2009) and others recommended that interventions, based on evidence and developed with teenagers support are urgently required to enable teenagers to make informed decisions. Educational strategies must be used to educate teenagers, families and communities regarding sexuality issues. Evidence must be gathered to use as a starting point for interventions, informing teenagers, families and communities about teenage pregnancies. The recommended early age of ten at which education should commence needs to be considered so that interventions are timely to enable teenagers to make informed decisions (Maholo, 2009).

Magengelele (1993) was concerned with high rate of pregnancy among adolescent girls. Due to pregnancy problems some adolescents are forced to leave school and end up in labor market and some may even resort to abandoning their babies because they are unable to care for their babies financially (Magengelele, 1993). The aim of Magengelele’s study was to investigate the factors that contribute to adolescent pregnancies between ages thirteen and sixteen years old. The main findings of the study were that,
There is poor communication between adolescents and their parents and due to that there is lack of sufficient knowledge about their personality bodies.

It was discovered that there is lack of sufficient knowledge about contraceptive measures (family planning).

It was also found that sex education is not catered for in schools.

It was also discovered that educational level of pregnant teenagers was very low.

Magengelele (1993) recommended that since sex education is not included in school curriculum, non-formal classes of sex education and visits by people from the Department of health should be available.

- Contraceptives to be supplied to those who are sexually active and be taught the correct methods of using them.
- Parents should be taught skills of correct parenthood. Social workers, health educators could be exposed to a course on parent effectiveness training. This will enable them to impact the knowledge to the parents (Magengelele, 1993).

Richter (2005) recommended that teaching should be based on empowering teenagers and should aim at developing responsible attitudes with regard to sexual behavior. This will reduce casual sex and repeated pregnancy and ensures contraceptive compliance, continuation of education or empowerment (Richter, 2005).
Responsible sexual behavior is based on openness rather than repression and on teaching youngsters that saying no is more grown up than assuming that everybody does it (De Villiers, 2004).

The high incidence of teenage pregnancy is a problem that continues to face our society. The United States leads all other developed nations in the incidence of pregnancy among adolescents aged 15-19 (Wallis, 1985). Further, studies indicate an increase in sexual activity among the teen population with an estimated 50-58% being sexually active, suggesting that teen pregnancy will continue to be a major problem (Lundberg & Plotnik, 1990).

Research aimed at evaluating sex education as a means of preventing teen pregnancy has suggested that it will not be effective unless contraceptive services and community support are available (Hayes et al., 1987). Further, Hepfer (1988) recommends that programs should focus on increasing adolescents' self-esteem, since they are in the stage where developing a positive self-concept is a major task. This recommendation is supported by research which reveals a relation among poor self-concept, sexual activity, and pregnancy (Kissman, 1990). Others have asserted that teenage boys confirm their masculinity through sexual activity and fathering children (Friedman, 1990; Castiglia, 1990).

The time has arrived when there is now a confluence of interests supporting the crucial role of males for family and reproductive policy. It should therefore be no surprise that debates about adolescent pregnancy policy show an increasing interest in the role of males and the development of strategies that involve them in
pregnancy prevention efforts (Sonenstein et al, 2005). Health professionals need to visit schools in order to convince teenage fathers about the use of condoms and encourage teachers to teach more on sex education (Richter, 2005).

Why males were ever excluded from the way we think about pregnancy prevention is puzzling. Sexual behavior involves two partners, and decisions to have sex and to use contraception undoubtedly reflect both partners' perspectives, whether explicitly or implicitly. Yet fertility and family are traditionally ascribed to the world of females—a perspective that has kept us from acknowledging what should have been obvious—that males must be involved in any policy solution to unintended pregnancies among teenagers (Sonenstein et al, 2005).

It is well known, for instance, that adolescent boys initiate sex earlier than girls and that they tend to accumulate more sexual partners over their lifetimes. Even though males do not actually get pregnant, it does not make sense to segregate them from prevention efforts when they have sex earlier, more frequently, and with more partners than females of comparable ages (Ibid).

Contrary to stereotypes about males' disregard for contraception, there is overwhelming evidence that males have played an extremely important role in providing contraceptive protection to teenage females. Even before data were collected from the males, information provided by teenage females showed that male methods of contraception were the main forms of contraception used when they first initiated sex—either withdrawal or condoms (Sonenstein, 2000).
Among the questions, guiding investigation were:-

a) What is the current status of the fathers in relation to school achievement, employment and church attendance?

b) Is there a pattern in the family background of unwed teenage fathers?

c) Are there common elements in the sexual experience of unwed teenage fathers?

d) What is the relationship of the unwed father and mother and what kind of involvement will unwed fathers continue to have with their girlfriends and their babies? (Sonenstein, 2000)

Prior to answering these questions, a major methodological question had to be answered. Is it possible to elicit data from unwed teenage fathers themselves? The investigations discovered that teenage father populations, although difficult to reach, are accessible. Overcoming previous shortcomings involved an inordinate amount of time and expense in obtaining subjects and the extra step of going beyond and through the mother to reach the father a step which most researchers have not here to fore bothered to take (Ibid).

Failure to use effective birth control methods indicates the young father’s need for more information about sex. This is likely to especially be true for black youth because of their reported higher incidence of sexual intercourse and lower use of contraceptives (Barret & Robinson, 1982).

Concerning the young father’s relationship with his girlfriend, her family and his own parents, the profile emerging from this report is a rather position one. Most perceived
their girlfriend’s family in a favorable light. In fact, many had discussed financial support for mother and baby or the possibility of marriage with their girlfriend’s family. Moreover, the majority was highly motivated to participate in some way in the fathering experience either in naming the child, provide financial support or both (Smithbattle, 2007).

The relationship between the adolescent fathers and their girlfriends also seemed to be rather a positive one. As a rule, the unwed mothers informed their boyfriends directly about the pregnancy rather than concealing the fact or sharing it only with friends or family members. Most fathers said they continued to see or talk to the mother of their child daily or weekly. An overwhelming majority of teenage fathers also felt obliged to meet certain responsibilities for the mother and baby (Barret & Robinson, 1982).

Practically all the young men’s statement were falling –oriented –quite a contact to the uncaring, irresponsible stereotype society has perpetuated in the past .It has been noted that adolescent fathers are interested in the mother and baby and they are eager to talk and become involved in fathering experience. It has also been revealed that most unwed fathers will participate in counseling and are willing to accept responsible in the pregnancy (Ibid).

There are a few limitations to data gathering as was done in this study, which should be noted. Contacting adolescents’ father through their pregnant girlfriends’ is not altogether reliable approach. Responses could be biased in either more positive or more negative direction as a result of tensions surrounding their relationships.
However, the need for data on adolescent fathers justifies these methods as initial research effort. The research has been done on black male adolescents as the incidence of unwed adolescent parenthood is marked greater among black population and therefore any attempt to generalize these findings to other populations should not be attempted. It has been suggested that although unwed fathers are reluctant to publicly indentify themselves, more of them will step forward once researchers and agencies in the professions begin to respond to their needs, hoping that such positive findings as those presented herein will faster the movement in that directions (Barret & Robinson, 1982).

Teenage pregnancy is a socio economic challenge and an important public health problem for communities in South Africa. It is a reflection of inconsistent use of contraception. In addition, the risk of dropping out of school is considered which result in a lack of qualification and future unemployment (Kanku & Mash, 2010). Teenage pregnancy has been associated with frequent sex without reliable contraception, sexual coercion, poor sexual communication between partners, and the perception that most of your friends have been pregnant or that one has to prove one’s fertility, poverty and promiscuity (Ibid).

Literal attitudes towards casual sex, alcohol consumption, fear of hormonal contraceptives and poor school based sexual education have also been associated with teenage pregnancy. Reasons for not using contraception also include ignorance, fear of parents finding out, shyness in going to the clinic and disapproval from the boyfriend (Ehlers, 2003).
Teenage girls are sometimes put in a difficult position in the relationship because they feel that they have to please their boyfriends to maintain the relationship, which may imply having unprotected sex if requested to do so. Some teenagers are physically forced by their partners to have sex even if they are not ready or not prepared in terms of contraceptive precautions. Male partners may have different expectations in the relationship, especially if they are providing any kind of financial support and they might feel that it justifies coerced sexual activity (Richter, 2005).

Most teenagers perceived falling pregnant as a negative event with consequences such as unemployment, loss of boyfriend, blame from friends and family members, feeling guilty, difficulty at school, complications during pregnancy or delivering, risk of HIV, secondary infertility if abortion is done and not being prepared for motherhood. Peer education and use of appropriate role models have been highlighted as being useful strategies for empowering youth and changing behavior (Kanku & Mash, 2010).

Teenage pregnancy remains unacceptable high despite high levels of knowledge about modern methods of contraception. Large numbers of young people do not use contraceptives and many use them in consistently and incorrectly. Literature review and secondary analysis show that teenage fertility is the result of a complex set of varied and inter-related factors, largely associated with the social condition under which children grow up (Panday, 2009). Influencing factors including the following:

- When young people drop out at school, often due to economic barriers and poor school performance, the risk for early pregnancy is significantly higher.
• When they grow up in residential areas where poverty is entrenched (information and rural areas), they are at the risk of experiencing an early pregnancy.

• When stigma about adolescent sexuality abounds, few opportunities exist for open communication about sex with parent and adolescent, and access to judgment free health service is constrained. As a result, gaps in knowledge about and access to contraception is limited

• When young woman are involved in relationships where power is imbalanced, men generally decides the condition under which sex happens. This involves forced sex.

• When young woman struggle to meet immediate material needs, they make tradeoffs between health and economic security. Reciprocity of sex in exchange for material goods leads to young women remaining in dysfunction relationships, engaged in multiply sexually partnerships and involvement with older men. under such conditions, there is little opportunity to negotiate safe sex and the risk for pregnancy is increased.

• Instituting strategies to remain and retain girls in schools but addressing both financially and school performance aspect, as well as ensuring early return post pregnancy may be the most effective social protection that the education system can offer to prevent and mitigate the impact of early pregnancy. When learners do drop out school, concerted effort is required to enroll them in school in alternative system of education (Panday et al., 2009).
This depiction of teenage pregnancy as social problem relies on the assumption of adolescent as a separable stage of development. Utilizing a Derrindian framework Mache old analyses how the dominate construction of adolescent as a transitional stage act as an attempt to decide the undecidable that is the adolescent who is neither child nor adults but simultaneously both. This is an attempt which collapses in the face of teenage pregnancy.

The chief opposition utilized in the teenage pregnancy literature, however, is to the adult. In conceiving, the teenager displays adult functions and disrupts the transitional nature of adolescence. In order to restore the balance, in an effort to re-decide the undecidable, the adolescent’s lack of adult capacity is emphasized in the scientific literature in South Africa. Thus, adulthood occupies, defines and interpenetrates adolescence as an absent trace largely in this instance than does childhood (Panday, 2009).

Teenage partners are the forgotten partners (Stengel, 2005). It is obvious but often overlooked: for every teenage mother there is a father, usually a teenager who finds himself treated as an outsider, receiving none of the solicitous attention that occasionally attends the mother and child. These fathers are usually depicted as churlish scamps, irresponsible hit-and-run artists out to prove their sexual prowess without a thought for the consequences. Until recently, no one even seemed to factor the father into the situation. But with the surge of concern about teenage mothers, several groups and studies have taken a closer look at teenage fathers. Their findings have challenged many prevailing myths (Ibid).
Teen dads are often overlooked in the big picture of teen pregnancy (Mueller, 2010). We often focus on the mom and baby, who need support and help, but we neglect to think about the impact of fatherhood on a teenage boy. Teen fathers are affected by parenthood, too; they need help, advice, encouragement to take responsibility both for the babies they have fathered and for their own education and future (Mueller, 2010).

2.3.2.1 Factors affecting both teenage father and mother

- **Education**

Teen fathers are less likely to earn a high school diploma (Mueller, 2010). Both teen mothers and fathers are much less likely to graduate high school than their non-parent counterparts. The failure to graduate can be due to financial pressure resulting from having a baby to take care of; teen fathers and mothers may drop out of high school to get a job in order to earn money and take care of their child. They may also be unable to find adequate support and help with caring for the baby during school hours and feel there is no other choice than to drop out.

- **Age Difference**

Teen Shelter organization finds that teen fathers are nearly always older than the mother. It may be only by a few months, but often teen fathers are older by a year or more. In fact, in many cases, teen fathers could be charged with statutory rape due to the age difference.

- **Statistics**

One out of every fifteen males will father a child while in his teens, as stated by the Family Education website. That means one out of fifteen males is even more likely to
drop out of high school, be unprepared to enter the work force, and be unable to complete higher education.

- **Marriage**
  Only 20% of teen fathers marry the baby’s mother, according to Lifeline Family Center. Many teen mothers continue to live at home with their parents; teen fathers may continue a relationship with the baby’s mother, but it’s common for the relationship to end and when it does, many teen fathers don’t have much interaction with their children.

- **Pressure**
  High percentages of both teen girls (75%) and guys (over 50%) say that teen girls have sex because their boyfriends want to. Most teens and adults also think that teen guys themselves feel pressure to have sex in order to fit in, according to the Do Something website. The teenage stratosphere of Western culture puts a heavy emphasis on sexuality, and many teens feel like they can't fit in or maintain a relationship unless they begin to be sexually active (Mueller, 2010).

2.3.2.2 The experience of being a teenage father
A recent report from the UK (Reeves et al. 2009) suggested that we know relatively little about teenage fathers compared with young mothers. It reported that for babies born to teenage mothers, about a quarter of young fathers are aged under 20. It is apparent that, although a large volume of academic research dealt with teenage pregnancy, only a small proportion dealt with the fathers as a factor, and many studies did not mention the father at all, even though, as (Pitt 1986) put it “In light of the fact that most sexual activity is male initiated, and most sexual behavior is male
influenced, it becomes clear that there will be no resolution of the problem of teenage pregnancy without directing greater attention to the male.”

It is acknowledged in the literature that teenage fathers as a population are difficult to gain access to (Rhein et al. 1997; Reeves, 2006) and this has resulted in a lack of exploration into their direct experiences and the psychological effects of becoming a teenage father.

A. Psychological effects of becoming a father

Teenage pregnancy continues to grow in South Africa and it is an area that impacts greatly on the life course of the young people involved. It is postulated that if there is a discrepancy between the real and ideal self as a father then a man’s psychological well-being may be adversely affected (Kaufman & Uhlenberg, 2000). Identity theory (Kaufman & Uhlenberg, 2000) highlights the fact that becoming a father creates a new identity. The identity of teenage fatherhood and how it fits with the identities already held, these may include school/college pupil, son, boyfriend and friend, is an area that is relatively unexplored by previous research.

Leite’s (2007) work on the experiences of young and unmarried fathers between the ages of 18 and 21 years during the prenatal period used boundary ambiguity theory as a guide to investigating this transition time for young men. Nearly half of the participants used in (Leite’s, 2007) study was described as reflecting inconsistencies in their psychological and physical presence in the pregnancy, which results in boundary ambiguity. Boundary ambiguity is a risk factor for individual and relational wellbeing (Boss, 2004).
The role occupancy perspective (Knoester & Eggebeen, 2006) asserts that parenthood is a role or set of roles and men assume fathering roles according to the cultural and societal expectations of them. The role of economic provider is one that has been identified as an internal and external expectation of becoming a father. For teenage fathers, (Rhein et al., 1997) found that financial insecurity was a factor that was likely to lead to disinterest in the rearing of their child. If society's expectations of an adolescent father is to find a job and provide for their new family then, as (Sigle-Rushton, 2005) argues, early assumption of parental responsibility can interrupt career development and investment in job skills. There is little qualitative research linked to the exploration of the pressures faced by young men to leave college, school or training to get immediate financial security for their new family. Better understanding of these pressures and experiences faced by young men pre- and post- the birth of their child, by professionals who work with young people in a variety of settings, may lead to more informed advice and support (Sigle-Rushton, 2005).

B. Further stressors associated with fatherhood

As well as financial stressors there are other stressors associated with young fatherhood that have been identified by research conducted here and in the USA (Miller, 1997; Rhein et al. 1997; Speak et al., 1997; Bunting & McAuley, 2004). Amongst those identified in these studies by teenage fathers were:

- Lack of information about legal rights and child care;
- Difficulties accessing support services;
- Lack of involvement in decision making processes both during pregnancy and the birth;
- Conflict with the maternal grandparents.
These stressors can potentially lead to a lack of involvement despite research (Allen & Doherty, 1996; Speak et al. 1997) revealing a strong desire in many fathers to be involved in their child's upbringing. (Speak et al., 1997) also found that housing and housing policy could often make it more difficult for a father to visit his child or to become independent of his family and have his child visit him.

Caldwell and Antonucci's (Bunting & MaAuley, 2004) review of the literature with regard to the psychological wellbeing of adolescent fathers, discussed the variety of stressors that young fathers face. The authors found that these included:

- Inability to provide financially for their child;

- Problems in the relationships with the mother or her family;

- Difficulties seeing their child and worries about their health.

The implications of such stressors on young men are found by (Caldwell and Antonucci ,1997) to be lower self-esteem and higher rates of emotional distress. These dated findings are based on small convenience samples with inconsistency in the actual meaning of the term ‘adolescent fatherhood,’ as often the ages of the fathers involved exceeded the teenage years. The authors called for more research to be conducted in this area. Weinmann et al. (2005) found that although young fathers identified feelings of anger, sadness/depression, nervousness/tension, helplessness and aggression, few requested services to address these issues.
2.4 CONCLUSION

If teen mothers are labeled with a swathe of stereotypes (promiscuous, stupid, hopeless), teen fathers are too. The expectation is that a teen dad will head for the hills as fast as he can, providing little or no emotional or financial support to the pregnant girl (Derr, 2011). But according to a study by the HSRC, many teen dads are aware of the magnitude of the responsibility, and would like to play a role in raising their child. Teenage Tata, Voices of Young Fathers in South Africa takes a close look at the attitude of fathers between the ages of 14 and 20 (Ibid). (Manley, 2009) indicates that the duties of fatherhood are rarely considered before initiating sexual activity. Perhaps the first set of duties actually lie with the parents of the teenage father to bring his attention to possibility of teenage pregnancy and the responsibility that come with a pregnancy.

Among the trends the researchers found was that teen fathers feared the response of their families to the news that their girlfriends were pregnant. They felt that their parents would be disappointed in them, and were also very aware of the financial expectations brought about by a pregnancy. Teen fathers may find their role usurped by other family members, leaving them sidelined. Just like young mothers, young fathers require support to improve their educational and economic circumstances in order to fulfil caregiver and provider roles, says a study on Teenage Pregnancy done by the Human Sciences Research Council (Derr, 2011).

In the absence of institutional support, families play a critical role in cushioning the blow of early fatherhood by taking on care-giving roles. ‘But in some cases, cultural practices that govern family responses – while no doubt well intended, serve to
estrange young men from their children,’ A clue to the importance of enabling fathers to stay involved lies in this statistic from the Teenage Tata study: of the teen fathers studied, 63% themselves had absent fathers(Ibid).

As a society, we may tend to expect the worst from teen fathers, or treat them as minor players in the drama of teenage pregnancy. Would many of these stories play out differently if teen fathers were given the chance to give emotional support even if circumstances prevent them from giving financial support? By expecting the worst of teen fathers we may be doing them, their pregnant partners and the unborn child a huge disfavor (Derr, 2011). Fatherhood can thus be a goal for people consciously working to improve society generally and gender relations (Morrel2005).

After most teen births, the mother and less frequently both parents and the father alone raise the child. Fathers married to their children's mothers often can more readily exercise their parental rights than unmarried fathers. An unmarried father, especially one without custody, likely has rights and responsibilities concerning custody, visitation and child support. However, an unmarried father will need to take legal action to obtain these rights and carry out responsibilities (Derr, 2011).
CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to establish a map the readers of this research ‘will be relying on’ and on the methods used to come to the conclusions drawn on data that have been collected and how reliable they are (Hofstee, 2009). It aims at guiding the reader how the research was done dealing with this research topic. It also aims at expanding our knowledge in one’s field of study. It guided the researcher from problem selection to the successful completion of my research topic with practical suggestions and values. Research needs planning and design which has one end that is the ultimate discovery of truth. Its purpose is to learn what has never been known before, to ask a significant question for which no conclusive answer has previously been found and by collecting and interpreting relevant data to find an answer to that question (Leedy, 2005).

This chapter is structured as followed:

3.1 Introduction
3.2 Research Approach
3.3 Research paradigm
3.4 Research Design
3.5 Sampling
3.6 Data collection instruments
3.7 Ethical considerations
3.8 Negotiation of entry
3.9 Data analysis process
3.10 Limitations
3.11 Trustworthiness of the study

3.2 RESEARCH APPROACH: QUALITATIVE

This study followed qualitative research approach as it is based on male teenage pregnancy which is a real consequence of teenagers engaging in sexual activities (Silverman, 2006). The term qualitative research encompasses several approaches to research that are in some respects quite different from one another (Leedy, 2005). Qualitative approaches have two things in common. They focus on phenomena that occur in natural settings that is those phenomena in all their complexity. Secondly, they recognize that the issue they are studying has many dimensions and layers so they try portraying the issue in its multi faceted form (Leedy, 2005).

Qualitative research places emphasis on understanding through looking closely at people’s words, action and a situation as it constructed by the participants (Maykut, 2000). The qualitative researcher’s attempt is to capture what people say and do, that is, the products of how people interpret the world. The task for the qualitative researcher is to capture this process of interpretation (Maykut, 2000). My research topic is teenage father’s perceptions on teenage pregnancy and its implications for sexuality education. This topic is a phenomenon which focuses on natural settings. It occurs in a natural setting in that pregnancy is natural but in this case is done by people who are under age and is not supposed to be done at their age that is why I decided to talk about it. This topic has many dimensions and layers where you can talk about pregnancy on females, its good and bad results but I have decided to be
specific on the role of teenage fathers. In the very act of constructing data out of experience, the qualitative researcher singles out some things as worthy of note and relegates others to the background (Wolcot, 1994). As I have already indicated that my topic is based on teenage fathers as background. The reason is that there are few people talking about the role of teenage fathers on teenage pregnancy, many people talk about females on teenage pregnancy.

Qualitative research is an approach that stresses a phenomenological model in which multiple realities are rooted in the subject’s perception and a focus on understanding and its meaning is based on verbal narratives and observations rather than numbers (McMillan, 2008). This means that reality is understood by people in different ways, and we can only come to know their meaning and perceptions by listening to what they say through use of language. Furthermore, we can come to know their understanding by also observing their behaviors, in order for us to explain what they mean, which can be unpacked through use of words rather than numerals. This outlines that the behavior of a person or the gestures used by a person also gives out the understanding of a certain concept by that particular person (Ibid).

Leedy & Omrod (2005) supports McMillan when maintaining that the qualitative approaches have two things in common. First, they focus on phenomena that occur in natural settings – that is the ‘real world’ and secondly, they involve studying those phenomena in all their complexity narratives and observations rather than numbers. According to Williams (1998), qualitative approach is subjective, makes use of language and description rather than numerals and figure. In this approach, therefore, there
was an interaction between subjects as it was based on verbal narratives. This allowed the researcher more room to get as much meaning as can be found in order to explain a certain phenomena. The researcher, therefore, found it befitting to use this approach for this study (Williams, 1998).

In the interaction, narrations and observations between the researcher and participants in a qualitative research approach; (Leedy et... al 2005) advocates that researchers rarely try to simplify what they observe. Instead, they recognize that the issue they are studying has many dimensions and layers, and so they try to portray the issue in its multifaceted form. As such, in my opinion, the realities of situations, issues or any other phenomena studied in their natural form are what constitute the entrance and departure for a qualitative study and as much, were entities this study was entitled to follow (Ibid).

Qualitative research approach is further described by (Punch, 2005) as “... not a single entity, but an umbrella term which encompasses enormous variety”. (Punch, 2005) argues that three aspects of these diversity concern paradigms, approaches to data and methods for the analysis of data. Such diversity has further been analysed as distinctive characteristics testified by literature as the features of a qualitative research approach. Such characteristics establish that, it is based on a paradigm of interpretivism and constructivism, is less structured and flexible, has confirm ability, allows direct data collection, has rich narrative descriptions, with process orientation and emergent research design (Leedy et al, 2005; Silverman, 2001:258-259; Macmillan, 2008; Silverman 2001). In the paragraphs below, each principle is further analysed as encompassed within the context of the study.
Macmillan (2008) establishes that, the principle of being less structured and flexible in qualitative research, is where a more interactive mode of data gathering is emphasized and numerical data used only to provide simple descriptions. This allowed the study an interaction between researcher and participants through the use of semi structured interviews, with questions being probed deeper to get more meaningful data as it was drawn from what they say. Thus, therefore, allowed the researcher to flexibly probe further on the response that was given by respondents to get as much data as can be given.

Qualitative research maintains that its principle of confirm ability replaces objectivity (Macmillan, 2008). This principle entails that, the researcher’s objective opinions are put aside as it is the respondent’s opinions that are important. This means that the focus and importance was based solely on what the respondents say and not what the researcher thinks. As interviews and documents were used during the course of the study, this allowed the researcher in the study, to come to more in depth conclusions.

Nevertheless, qualitative researchers typically introduce their studies with an essentially descriptive account (Wolcot, 1994). They believe that such descriptive oriented accounts most closely approximate true science on lots of data heaped on readers thereby empowered to reach independent conclusions as to what is going on or how things come to have particular meaning in particular contexts (Wolcot, 1994). This means that the researcher on teenage pregnancy will have to reach an
independent conclusion as to what led to a teenage father to pregnant a female teenager and how he perceives what he has done to the female teenager (Ibid).

Qualitative researchers rely almost entirely on open-ended explorations of people's words, thoughts, actions and intentions (Judy, 1991). This means that the researcher interviews people so as to get information from their mouths on what they think about their actions and intentions. Teenage fathers will voice out on how they perceive teenage pregnancy, what do they think about their actions and now that they have fathered girls what do they intent to do? This will help to create a free and friendly atmosphere between the interviewer and interviewee.

Furthermore, some qualitative researchers believe that there is not necessarily a single, ultimate truth to be discovered (Leedy, 2005). Instead there may be multiple perspectives held by different individuals, with each of these perspectives having equal validity or truth. I got different answers from different situations. One goal of a quality study then, might be to reveal the nature of these multiple perspectives (Leedy, 2005). In the case of my study, the respondents' teenage fathers did not respond with same views on perceptions of teenage pregnancy which would require me to use different approaches when interviewing them. This meant that boy A would have different perception on teenage pregnancy from boy B as they would give me different answers on why did they pregnant girls?

A distinctive feature of qualitative work is its reliance on the words and voices of the people being studied (Judy, 1991). Instead of recording people's thoughts and feelings on scales or in categories, the researcher records their actual words, on
magnetic tape, paper, computer memory or any combination of these. These records vary in accuracy; tape recordings produce the most complete verbal transcripts but fail to capture facial expressions and actions (Judy, 1991). In the case of my research topic I recorded the respondent’s voices on paper and computer memory. The reason was that I would be able to capture information on paper and able to record their facial expressions on computer memory. I recorded as much detail as possible the boy’s voices, actions, intentions and appearances. I also omitted or changed their names when publishing data but their words remained in their original voices (Ibid).

3.2.1 Demerits of qualitative research
(Silverman, 2006) claims that as much as the qualitative approach has a great input in the research field of the naturalistic world but it is criticized in various contexts. These include:

- Qualitative research does not always show contextual sensitivity. The study responded to this limitation by taking field notes during interviews to note down any expression in any form that occurred during the session.

- Critics state that this approach has a problem of reliability and moreover is criticised of anecdotalism which questions validity of the research. The researcher in responding to this limitation did a triangulation of doing interviews (both individual and focus group) and document analysis to validate the study.

Furthermore, for the study, the researcher responded to these limitations by following the arguments for justification of other qualitative researchers saying,
concern for the reliability of observations arises only within the quantitative research paradigm which is ruled by the positivist position (Silverman, 2006). In addition, it is argued, once we treat social reality as always in a flux, then it makes no sense to worry about whether our research instruments measure accurately (Silverman, 2006).

3.3 RESEARCH PARADIGM: INTERPRETIVIST
A paradigm may be viewed as a set of *basic beliefs* … that deals with ultimate or first principles (Voce, 2004). (Guba & Lincoln 1994) advocates that in research studies, paradigms define for the researcher what it is they are about, and what falls within and outside the limits of legitimate research. The study adopted an interpretivist paradigm and being informed by the fact that the study falls in a case study design, with the case study research methodology being suited to the interpretivist paradigm, as interpretivism research methods include focus groups, interviews, research diaries, that is, particularly methods that allow for as many variables to be recorded as possible (Elliott & Lukes, 2008; Torrance & Lewin, 2005 as cited in Voce, 2004).

Interpretivist positions are founded on the theoretical belief that reality is socially constructed and fluid was developed as a critique of positivism in the social sciences (Robert Wood Johnson Foundation, 2008). In contemporary research practice, this means that there is an acknowledgement that facts and values cannot be separated and that understanding is inevitably prejudiced because it is situated in terms of the individual and the event (Cousin, 2005; Elliott & Lukes, 2008). In this paradigm, the researchers recognise that all participants involved, including the researcher, bring their own unique interpretations of the world or construction of the situation to the
research and the researcher needs to be open to the attitudes and values of the participants or, more actively, suspend prior cultural assumptions (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006 as cited in Voce, 2004). It promotes a transactional or subjectivist epistemology that assumes that we cannot separate ourselves from what we know. The investigator and the object of investigation are linked such that who we are and how we understand the world is a central part of how we understand ourselves, others and the world (Robert Wood Johnson Foundation, 2008).

3.4 RESEARCH DESIGN: PHENOMENOLOGICAL STUDY

The research design is the plan according to which data are to be collected to investigate the research hypothesis or question in the most economical manner, (Huysamen, 1998). It deals with the proposed operationalisation of variables and the involvement of research participants (Huysamen, 1998). I used a research design to collect information from my respondents as teenage father in a manner that would not bore them. I did this by asking simple straight forward questions that were of interest to them. For example before I asked them about impregnating girls, I would ask them about how they felt about being loved? Then I proceeded to questions relevant to my topic. The task of the qualitative researcher is to find patterns within those words and actions and to present those patterns for others to inspect while at the same time staying as close to the construction of the world as the participants originally experienced it (Maykut, 2000). This is relevant to my topic as my emphasis is on teenage father’s actions on impregnating teenage girls. The goal of qualitative research is to discover patterns which emerge after close observation, careful documentation, and thoughtful analysis of the research topic. What can be discovered by qualitative research are contextual findings (Ibid).
There are five common research designs, that is, case study, ethnography, phenomenological study, grounded theory study and content analysis (Leedy, 2005). The research design that is relevant for my study is phenomenological study. The term phenomenology refers to a person’s perception of the meaning of an event, as it exists external to the person (Leedy, 2005). A phenomenological study is a study that attempts to understand people’s perceptions, and understandings of a particular situation. In other words, a phenomenological study tries to answer the question. What is it like to experience such and such? For instance, a researcher might study the experiences of people caring for dying relative, living in an abusive relationship or home schooling a child (Leedy, 2005). This study is relevant to my study as I was studying perceptions of teenage fathers on teenage pregnancy.

Phenomenological research method depends entirely on lengthy interviews with a carefully sample of participants, who have had direct experience with the phenomenon being studied (Leedy, 2005). The actual implementation of a phenomenological study is as much in the hands of the participants as in the hands of the researcher. The interview is very structural in which the researcher and participants work together to arrive at the heart of the matter. The researcher listens closely as participants describe their everyday experiences related to the phenomenon and must be alert for subtle yet meaningful clues in participant’s expressions, questions and occasional sidetracks. A typical interview looks more like an informal conversation, with the participant doing most of the talking and the researcher doing most of the listening (Leedy, 2005). This is what transpired in this
study as I would ask the respondents questions informally about their perceptions on teenage pregnancy, they would be doing a lot of talking while I was listening to them.

Phenomenologists are concerned with understanding social and psychological phenomena from the perspectives of the persons involved. As a result, they attempt to experience these phenomena as these persons must have experienced it in their bones, in a manner of speaking (Huysamen, 1994). As I was be talking to these teenage fathers I tried to understand their experiences socially and psychologically by being understanding and empathetic so as to make them feel free to express themselves.

The task of the qualitative researcher is to pursue reality without giving up the sensuous surface, with no other guide than the immediate impression of nature without following contours, with no outline to enclose the colours, with no perspective or pictorial arrangement (Maykut, 2000). It is particularly the sensuous surfaces that the qualitative researcher explores. He or she does so by following the contours of the investigations as they emerge, that is, not as a pre-set research script to follow in detail. The task of the qualitative researcher is to capture what people say and do as indicators of how people interpret their world. The perspective of the qualitative researcher is therefore, open ended and not clearly focused in its initial stages. The key pieces of information change their meaning as new information comes into play and new perspectives are discovered (Maykut, 2000). This means that my research topic on teenage fathers would be changing as there would be new information in some instances and new perspectives were discovered.
To understand the data as it unfolds, that is to find patterns within the data; a qualitative researcher must have patience and accept tentative patterns (Maykut, 2000). Qualitative research must continue to be guided by the sensuous surface, must move toward letting the painting establish its own contours while constantly looking for the patterns as they emerge from the study. It is extremely difficult task to let the data speak for itself. It requires a tolerance for ambiguity. A qualitative researcher’s need is to find more precise information and tolerance is required in that process as the information may become more precise within the situation under observation to resolve a vague situation. A more important quality in a qualitative researcher is tolerance for ambiguity; the ability to hold two or more different interpretations of an event, activity or person in mind, while waiting to see which interpretation is merited by the data which you are in the process of collecting. As I interviewed two teenage fathers on teenage pregnancy, I would be expecting two different interpretations from different situations.

Research studies that are qualitative are designed to discover what can be learned about some phenomenon of interest, particularly social phenomena where people are participants (Maykut, 2000). Qualitative researchers develop a general focus of inquiry that helps to guide the discovery of what is to be known about some social phenomenon. Researchers are interested in investigating and responding to exploratory questions such as what are the teenage father’s perceptions on teenage pregnancy?

In qualitative research, decisions about design and strategy are on going and are grounded in the practice, process and context of the research itself. Qualitative
researchers should produce a research design at the start of the process. The purpose of producing a research design or proposal may be to gain support, to convince others of the value or intellectual credibility of the research, to demonstrate some form of external accountability or simple to describe the scope and purpose of the research to those involved (Maykut, 2000). The research design should be used as an ongoing process because it will help the researcher or team to track their own strategic thinking from a particular starting point to a contextual transformation. Its unique value is in encouraging from the start the process of strategic thinking and reflection which must continue throughout the whole research process. This is relevant to my topics as it involves teenage pregnancy which is a process of strategic thinking which involves fathers who will be shy to talk about their perceptions on teenage pregnancy and reflection which must continue throughout the whole research process (Ibid).

3.5 SAMPLING
Sampling is the process of selecting particular entities that is selected comprising samples (Leedy, 2005). Qualitative researchers draw their data from many sources not only from a variety of people, but perhaps also from objects, textual materials, audiovisual and electronic records (Leedy, 2005). How you identify your sample must depend on what research questions you want to answer. If you want to draw inferences about an entire population or body of objects, then you must choose a sample that can be presumed to represent that population. Ideally, this sample is chosen through a completely random selection process or one that reflects appropriate propositions of each subgroup within the overall group of people (Leedy,
In the case of my study, I chose teenage fathers who had impregnanted girls not just teenagers, my question was interested on their perceptions.

More often, qualitative researchers are intentionally non-random in their selection of data sources (Judy, 1991). Instead, their sampling is purposeful. They select those individuals or objects that will yield the most information about the topic under investigation (Leedy, 2005). In my study I used purposeful sampling where I selected individuals that would yield the most information about my topic on teenage pregnancy by teenage fathers.

Purposeful sampling is the most kind of non-probability sampling (Huysamen, 1994). Researchers rely on their experience, previous research findings to deliberately obtain participants in such a manner that the sample obtained may be regarded as representative of the relevant population (Huysamen, 1994). In the case of my study, I interviewed all the four boys that had impregnanted girls. The problem with this kind of sample is that different researchers may proceed in different ways to obtain information and that it may be impossible to evaluate the extent to which such samples are representative of the relevant population (Leedy, 2005). I did not expect similar answers from the sampled teenage fathers as they would answer with different experiences on teenage pregnancy.

The basic assumption behind purposeful sampling is that with good judgment and an appropriate strategy, we can handpick the cases to be included and thus develop samples that are satisfactory in relation to our needs (Judy, 1991). A common strategy of purposeful sampling is to pick cases that are judged to be typical of the
population in which we are interested, assuming that errors of judgement in the selection will tend to counterbalance one another (Leedy, 2005). In purposeful sampling, we use our best judgment to decide which elements are most representative of the population and include them in the samples (Judy, 1991). This type of sampling that is purposeful is very important in my topic as I chose teenage fathers, at Secondary level. It is very important in my topic as I chose boys that had done something that disturbs them in their future as some will have to drop out of school to work for their responsibilities and lose trust of their parents.

Qualitative researchers set out to build a sample that includes people selected with a different goal in mind, gaining deep understanding of some phenomenon experienced by a carefully selected group of people (Maykut, 2000). This approach to purposefully selecting people for a study acknowledges the complexity that characterized human and social phenomena and the limits of generalizability. The selection of a researcher’s judgement as to which approach would yield the clearest understanding of the phenomenon under study. I selected only two teenage fathers for my topic limit generalizability.

In qualitative research, participants are carefully selected for inclusion, based on the possibility that each participant will expand the variability of the sample (Mason, 2002). Purposeful sampling increases the likelihood that variability common in any social phenomenon will be represented in the data, in contrast to random sampling which tries to achieve variation through the use of random selection and large sample size. For example, if I want to know about the role of male teenagers in
teenage pregnancy I am supposed to choose male teenagers who have impregnanted girls and use them as my sample.

3.6 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

Qualitative researchers are interested in understanding people’s experience in context. The natural setting is the place where the researcher is most likely to discover or uncover, what is to be known about the phenomenon of interest (Maykut, 2000). This characteristic of qualitative research again reflects the philosophic underpinnings of the alternate paradigm. Personal meaning is tied to context. For example, to understand more about teenage fathers’ experience of teenage pregnancy, the researcher went to teenage fathers to interview them about their roles of being teenage fathers.

Qualitative researcher has a responsibility of being both the collector of relevant data that is data whose relevance changes as the study proceeds and the culler of meaning from that data, which most often is in the form of people’s words and actions (Maykut, 2000). The researcher had a responsibility of collecting data on teenage pregnancy on males who had just impregnanted girls. The data of qualitative inquiry is most often people’s words and actions and thus requires methods that allow the researcher to capture language and behavior. The most useful ways of gathering these forms of data are participant observation, in depth interviews, group interviews and the collection of relevant documents. In the case of teenage father’s perception on teenage pregnancy the researcher used in-depth interviews. Observation and in-depth interview data was collected by the researcher
in the form of field notes and audio-taped interviews which were later transcribed for use in data analysis.

Qualitative research is an ongoing research activity in contrast to end stage, when the design is emergent (Maykut, 2002). Analysis begins when one has accumulated a subset of the data, providing an opportunity for the salient aspects of the phenomenon under study to begin to emerge. The results of a qualitative research study are most effectively presented within a rich narrative, sometimes referred to as a case. A qualitative research report characterized by rich description should provide the reader with enough information to determine whether the findings of the study possibly apply to other people or settings (Maykut, 2000). My research topic should provide the reader with enough information on teenage father’s perception on teenage pregnancy in order to determine whether my study is relevant to other people’s experiences.

One of the key elements of data collection in a qualitative research method are interviews. Interviews are an interaction between the interviews and interviewees which yield a great deal of useful information (Leedy, 2005). The methods of maintaining and generating conversations with people on a specific topic or range of topics and the interpretations which social researchers make of the resultant data, constitute the fundamentals of interviews and interviewing (May, 2001). Interviews yield rich insights into people’s biographies, experiences, opinions, values, aspirations, attitudes and feelings. Researchers need to understand the dynamics of interviewing, sharpen their own use of the method and understand the different
methods of conducting interviews and analyzing the data, together with an awareness of their strengths and limitations (May, 2011).

Broadly speaking, there are four types of interviews used in social research (May, 2001). They are structured interview, the semi structured, unstructured and the group interview. In moving from the structured interview to the unstructured interview, researchers shift from a situation in which they attempt to control the interview through predetermining questions and thus teach the respondents to reply in accordance with the interview schedule to one in which the respondent is encouraged to answer a question in their own terms (Ibid).

In my research topic I used structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews. Structured interview is a method that relies upon the use of questionnaire as the data collection instrument (May, 2001). This means that to collect data from boys who are teenage fathers I will have to ask them questions. Each person is asked the same question in the same way so that any differences between answers are held to be real ones and not the result of the interview situation itself (Ibid).

Semi structured interviews allow the interviewer to use probes with a view to clearing up vague responses or to ask for incomplete answers be elaborated on. Such probes may vary from “why” to “elaborate” on this? (Huysamen,1994). Conducting interviews in a qualitative research is not as it might seem. Leedy (2005) provide the following guidelines for the beginner researcher that can make the task easier:

1. Identify some questions in advance. Novice researchers have better success when they prepare a few questions in advance and make sure that all are
addressed during the course of the interview. These questions should be related to the research questions and overall research problem. Interview questions should encourage people to talk about a topic without hinting that they give particular answers (Leedy, 2005). As a beginner researcher I had already set my questions for interviews which would encourage interviewees to talk. My main research question was, how do teenage fathers perceive teenage pregnancy?

2. Make sure your interviewees are representative of the group. You should choose people whom you expect to give you typical perceptions and perspectives (Leedy, 2005). I interviewed boys that I was teaching knowing very well their characters and what to expect from them. I would even interview boys who were at high school whom I had taught at junior level.

3. Find a suitable location. In theory, you can conduct an interview anywhere that people are willing to talk to you. But you will probably have a more successful interview if you find a quite place where you and your interviewee are unlikely to be distracted or interrupted (Leedy, 2005). I interviewed my boys after school at their homes having had permission from their parents.

4. Get written permission. Explain the nature of the study and your plans for using the results. Ask the participant to sign an informed consent form (Leedy, 2005). As I was using teenage boys in my interviews, I would ask parents of the boys to sign the consent form.

5. Establish and maintain rapport. Begin the conversation with small talk that can break the ice. Be courteous and respectful at all times. Show genuine interest in what the person has to say. Interviews in qualitative studies are typically quite informal to the point where they may appear similar to casual
conversation (Leedy, 2005). As my study dealt with teenage boys, I had to ask them about what interests them most like sport and music before I could go deep into teenage pregnancy so as to create a friendly atmosphere.

6. Focus on the actual rather than on the abstract. You are more likely to get revealing information if you ask what a person does or would do in a specific situation (Leedy, 2005). I had to ask the boys questions relevant to their age and experiences rather than asking difficult questions.

7. Do not put words in people’s mouth. Let people choose their own way of expressing their thoughts. A good interviewer is a good listener who lets people say what they want to say (Leedy, 2005). When asking questions to teenage boys, I gave them space to express their views without intimidating them.

8. Record responses verbatim (Leedy, 2005). Whether you use hand written notes, short hand, a tape recorder or laptop computer, capture everything the person says, especially if the interview is an unstructured one. I used hand written notes, laptop computer and ask my interviewee to repeat if I had not heard them well.

9. Keep your reactions to yourself. Although you won’t necessarily want to maintain a continual poker face, you are more likely to get accurate information if you do not show surprise or disapproval of what someone tells you (Leedy, 2005). As I used interviews, there were sensitive issues or interesting things that the interviewers were saying so I had to be calm so that I did not lose focus and the interviewee did not lose trust in me.

10. Remember that you are not necessarily getting the facts. As confident and convincing as some of your participants may be, you should always treat their
responses as perceptions rather than as facts (Leedy, 2005). All the information I got from teenage boys were perceptions as they expressed what they thought instead of factual points.

As I was doing my research in rural areas where there was no electricity, use of laptop computer was not easy as sometimes it would need some charging of a battery. My other option was a use of a journal. Journal is the daily record of notes collected and written while doing research (Silverman, 1997). While interviewing male teenagers I recorded through notes, writing what is relevant to my topic.

As Silverman (1997) notes, for interviewers in the interactionist tradition, interview subjects construct not just narratives, but social worlds. For researchers in this tradition, the primary issue is to generate data which give an authentic insight into people’s experiences. As my research topic is on male teenager’s perception concerning teenage pregnancy, it is real that my main concern is not only about their narratives but their experiences on pregnanting teenage girls.

Qualitative research provides access to the meanings people attribute to their experiences and social worlds. While the interview is itself a symbolic interaction, this does not discount the possibility that knowledge of the social world beyond the interaction can be obtained. It is through interviews that we are able to know the behaviours of our teenage fathers on teenage pregnancy. Qualitative researcher who aims to understand and document others understandings, choose qualitative interviewing because it provides us with means for exploring the points of view the culturally honoured status of reality (Silverman, 1997).
In addition, the issue of how interviewees respond to us based on who we are in their lives as well as the social categories to which we belong such as well as a theoretical one. As a result of social distances, interviewees may not trust us, they may not understand our questions, or they may purposely mislead us in their responses.

Studying adolescents like teenage fathers present unique concerns along lines. The meaning systems of adolescents are different from those of adults and adolescent researchers must exercise caution in assuming they have an understanding of adolescent cultures because they have been there. On the other hand, adolescents like teenage fathers are in a transitional period of life, becoming increasingly oriented to adult worlds, though with rough edges. As a result age begins to decrease in importance as a means of differentiating oneself and other dimensions of cultural differentiation such as gender and class become more crucial. These dimensions are thus of critical importance in establishing research relationships, trust and in evaluating both the information obtained and the interaction that occurs, within in-depth interviews.

The experience shows that much of what adolescents talk about in open ended interviews is precisely how their acts seem wayward, delinquent, and premature or otherwise not befitting proper youthful behaviour. Their discourse towards and with us is much about where and with us is much about where and who they are. It is about trying out social locations and identities. Narratives which emerge in interview contexts are situated in social worlds; they come out of worlds that exist outside of
the interview itself. They involve in depth, open ended interviews with young male teenagers. These interviews follow the completion of a survey interview administered by the same researcher. Survey interview gathers information about a wide range of topics including the individual, his school, friends, family, sexual history, etc. In depth interview is concerned exclusively with the roles and activities of young teenage fathers in impregnating young teenage girls.

The existence of social differences between the interviewer and interviewees does not mean that the interviews are devoid of information about social worlds. In fact, the interviews can be accomplished in ways that put these social differences to use in providing opportunities for individuals to articulate their feelings about their life experiences. One potential benefit of social distances in research is that the interviewee can recognise an interviewer as an expert on a topic of teenage pregnancy who is in a powerful position in terms of age and education. To find oneself placed in this position can be both empowering and illuminating because one can reflect on and speak about one's life in ways not often available. When individuals are members of groups that have been stereotyped and devalued by the larger culture and whose perspectives have been ignored as in the case of male teenagers who have impregnated female teenage girls, the promise of this approach is all the more apparent.

Knowledge of social worlds emerges from the achievement intersubjective depth and mutual understanding. For these to be present, these must be a level of trust between the interviewer and interviewee. Rapport building is a key to this process. Establishing trust and familiarity, showing genuine interest, assuring confidentiality
and not being judgmental are some important elements of building rapport. Not being judgmental is particularly important when interviewing adolescent teenage fathers. These young teenage fathers are members of a group frequently stigmatized by the social groups whose reality is known both by the interviewees and the interviewer.

Rapport involves more, however, than provisions of confidentiality, non judgmental responses and other offerings from the interviewer. It involves the interviewee feeling comfortable and competent enough in the interaction to talk back. When respondents talk back they provide insights into the narratives they use to describe the meanings of their social worlds and into their experience of the enough chance to express themselves freely on perceptions of impregnating teenage girls.

Interviewing provides a way of generating empirical data about the social world by asking people to talk about their lives. In this respect interviews are special forms of conversation. All interviews were interactional.

In several books about qualitative research methods, experienced researchers discuss their practice of writing notes to themselves as integral part of the research process (Mason, 2002). These notes are variously referred to as a diary, a journal or as memos and contain the researcher’s personal record of insights. Beginning understandings, working hunches, recurring words or phrases, ideas, questions, thoughts, concerns and decisions made during the research process. Beginning researchers are encouraged to maintain a research journal from the beginning to the end of their research project. A richly detailed research journal becomes a useful
part of the data collection and analysis process. I asked permission to interview the respondents from parents and educators at school. I did interviews at school during intervals and after school at their homes. Interviews took 30 minutes a day per respondent. I used both xhosa and English to interview the respondents because I wanted them to express themselves freely without a language as a barrier. First teenage fathers were shy to do interviews but as we continue, they became freely to express themselves.

3.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethics is concerned with the attempt to formulate codes and principles of moral behavior (May, 2001). Our focus here is with the capacity for ethical enquiry to inform reasons for action in the conduct of research. Researchers critically reflect upon their own views and consider the justification for their actions in comparison to others as they enter the realm of philosophical ethics (May, 2001). Ethics are important to consider in research studies as they tell us what is morally good and bad, right and wrong (Wysocki, 2004). Ethics are about an attempt to formulate codes and principles of behavior (May, 2001). As I interviewed teenager boys I expected them to use vulgar language so before we started, I made them aware that although they would be free to express themselves, and they should not use strong language as we will be discussing sex issues.

Ethical decisions in research arise when we try to decide between one course of action and another not in terms of expediency or efficiency but by reference to standard of what is morally right or wrong (May, 2001). Ethical decisions are not being defined in terms of what is advantageous to the researcher or the project upon
which they are working. They are concerned with what is right or just, in the interests of not only the project, its sponsors or workers, but others who are the participants in the research. Therefore, ethical decisions will depend upon the values of the researchers and their communities and will inform the negotiations which take place between the researchers, sponsors, research participants and those who control access to the information which the researcher seeks. The amount of control the researcher can exercise over the research process will also influence the exercise of ethical decisions themselves.

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Ethics are important to consider in research studies as they tell us what is morally good and bad and right and wrong (Wysocki, 2004). Ethics serve to protect participants from possible harm by the researchers (Birch, 2002). The researcher in
this study had to follow various sets of criteria or rules and standards, for her to be recognized as ethically considerate which have been discussed in the paragraphs that follow as indicated by literature.

In a research project participants have to cooperate or not to cooperate with the researcher and have to freely consent to the use of them and their property as a study site. Their involvement should be voluntary and not in any way forced on them (Birch et al., 2002; Wysocki, 2004). The researcher informed and explained the purpose of the study to the participants that were involved and made a request to obtain their permission to conduct the study. In support of this Clarke (1999, as cited in Sithole, 2008) acknowledges that, failing to reveal one’s identity as a researcher or concealing the true purpose of the study from informants constitutes unethical conduct.

Participants in a research study have protection over their rights, with one being the right to privacy and confidentiality (Wysocki, 2004). This refers to both the identity of an individual that must be kept a secret, as well as the information gathered from the individual. The results obtained should be in harmony with the informant’s right to dignity and privacy (Mouton 2001 as cited in Sithole, 2008; Mouton, 2001; Walsh, 2001; Wysocki, 2004). To follow and adhere to this ethical issue the researcher made use of pseudo names as one of the ways of confidentially using participants, as confidentiality is when the researcher knows who the respondents are, but their identities not revealed.
Participants have to be protected from any kind of harm which may be in any form such as physically or psychologically (Walsh 2001; Wysocki 2004). The researcher, as suggested by various writers, where a research study may have a negative impact on the physical or mental health of a participant, even to the extent of temporarily upsetting them, has to fully inform of the risk, and the researcher should take every possible step which will be dropping the study or changing the design and data gathering instruments to minimize any harm coming to them (Walsh, 2001; Wysocki, 2004). Such impact did not occur in the process of this study, however if such harm had arisen, the researcher would have followed the suggestions stated above by the specified literature writers.

Furthermore, the researcher had to maintain honesty and integrity throughout the study. This means data gathered carefully, findings reported honestly, and any problems, errors or distortions acknowledged. The researcher in the study made use of ultimate transparency and presented precise data as researchers must never falsify data. The researcher adhered to this ethical standard as it viewed as unethical to either lie about you or engage in research without the knowledge of the participants (Walsh 2001; Wysocki 2004). The transcripts of the interviews were sent back to the respondents to read and verify that what was transcribed was what they said.

A research must have a positive contribution to knowledge and human understanding (Walsh 2001; Wysocki 2004). As a student researcher it was important that my aim on the study also be to advance my own knowledge and understanding and avoid any kind of frivolous reason. Therefore the researcher was
obliged to report both positive and negative findings to add new knowledge to human understanding. Frivolous, illegal behaviour or unjustifiable suffering or no beneficial intention or purpose in a study is unethical (Walsh 2001, Wysocki 2004).

The researcher therefore considered it an obligation to present an ethically accepted study by following all the ethical norms such as informing all participants before hand of their involvement in the study and treating their participation with confidentiality. First and foremost a request and permission from the DOE and the school managers to use the schools as well as teachers which are their assets was forwarded.

3.8 NEGOTIATION OF ENTRY

My research was done on four teenage fathers who were from secondary school. Before I interviewed them I would first talk to their parents and explain to them why I was doing the interview so as to get permission.

The researcher negotiated entry into the field by filling in the Department of Education (DoE) form that asked for permission to conduct the study as specified in the proposal forwarded. A letter that was signed by the Superintendent General of the DoE came back once the permission had been granted (Appendix A). The letter was sent to the respondents, the school managers, and district officials who are the district director and circuit manager within which the school falls (see Appendix B, C and D). Prior to the permission letter from the DoE, the researcher personally visited the District Director, Circuit Manager, the School Managers and Respondents (teenage boys), explaining what the study was about, its significance, as well as the role they were to play in the study and therefore asked for their permission to conduct the study. The researcher also explained the ethical considerations the
study had to follow, such as anonymity. A letter written by the supervisor, Dr Duku, giving detailed information about the research topic was also handed to the school principal, the circuit manager and to the respondents.

Hoepfl (1997) advocates that the participants are the ones to grant someone access to their lives, their minds, and their emotions, therefore permission has to be sought. Responding to the suggestion of the above writer, the researcher wrote special letters to the respondents that was seeking consent for their participation in the study. With the District Director, Circuit Manager and School Manager, the researcher also wrote special letters to them asking for their permission to use the teenage boys and their schools as study sites for the research. After the negotiation was done and consent was granted by the respondents, appointments for interview dates were set through use of the cellphones. The interview times for individual and focus groups were done at different times.

3.9 DATA ANALYSIS PROCESS

Bogdan & Biklen (1998) addresses data analysis as “a process of systematically searching and gathering the interview transcripts, field notes and other materials that the researcher accumulates during data collection in order to increase his or her understanding of the phenomenon and ultimately to be able to present what have been discovered to others”. It is a way of creating order through interpretations of data collected and providing patterns and inferences that may emerge. Data analysis for a case study research is said to involve the steps highlighted below:

- Organizations of details about the case – The specific facts are arranged in a logical order.
- Categorisation of data – Categories are identified that can help cluster the data into meaningful groups.
- Interpretation of single instances – Specific documents, occurrences, and other bits of data are examined for the specific meanings they might have in relation to the case.
- Identification of patterns – The data and their interpretations are scrutinized for underlying themes and other patterns that characterize the case more broadly than a single piece of information can reveal.
- Synthesis and generalization – An overall portrait of the case is constructed. Conclusions are drawn that have implications beyond the specific case that has been studied (Leedy & Omrod, 2005).

In this study the data collected through interviews and journals was analyzed. The entire data was perused several times to get a sense of what it contains as a whole (Leedy & Omrod, 2005). The researcher used index cards to categorized data into patterns and general categories, themes and subthemes that emerged followed by a summary of data for the readers (Leedy & Omrod, 2005).

3.10 TRUSTWORTHINESS OF THE STUDY

According to Seale (1999), trustworthiness of a research report lies at the heart of issues conventionally discussed as validity and reliability. In addition, Golafshani (2003) also offers that reliability and validity are conceptualized as trustworthiness, rigor and quality in qualitative paradigm. Reliability is defined by Van der Aardweg (1993) as a statistical concept that relates to consistency and dependability while
validity is defined as 'the extent to which an account accurately represents the social phenomena to which it refers'.

To ensure that the study reflected trueness of what was investigated, the researcher used triangulation, which is typically a strategy (test) for improving the validity and reliability of research or evaluation of findings (Golafshani, 2003). Triangulation is also defined by Creswell & Miller (2000) to be “a validity procedure where researchers search for convergence among multiple and different sources of information to form themes or categories in a study”. Triangulation may involve the use of different methods, especially observation, focus groups and individual interviews, which form the major data collection strategies for much qualitative research (Shenton, 2004). The researcher used two kinds of instruments to collect the data, which were semi structured individual interviews and focus group interviews.
CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter four presents and analyses data collected for this study whose aim was to investigate teenage father’s experiences as learners in one Eastern Cape secondary school, its implications for sex education. The data was collected through in depth interviews that made use of four school teenage fathers. As discussed in chapter three in depth, unstructured interviews were used for each respondent to collect data. Furthermore, personal journals of the respondents were also used to study their experiences and feelings towards teenage fatherhood and teenage pregnancy in general. As part of research ethics the researcher assured the participating respondents of confidentiality and anonymity. As a result the participants were given pseudonyms to ensure this principle. This study was guided by the following research questions.

Main research question

- What are the teenage father’s experiences as learners and as fathers?

Sub question

- What are the teenage fathers’ views on the effects of teenage pregnancy?
  - How do teenage fathers receive pregnancy prevention strategies?

This chapter is structured according to the following themes:

4.1. Introduction
4.2 The respondent's profile and life stories

4.2.1 Biographical data of the participants

4.2.2 Respondent's life stories

4.3. Presentation and analysis of data

4.3.1 The respondents’ experiences of teenage pregnancy

4.3.2 The respondent’s first reaction upon learning of their partner’s pregnant status.

4.3.3 The respondent's views on the impact of teenage pregnancy prevention strategies

4.3.4. The teenage father’s views on the effects of teenage pregnancy

4.3.5 The implication of teenage father’s experiences on sexual education

4.3.6 The life of a teenage father who is a learner

4.2 THE RESPONDENTS’S PROFILES AND LIFE STORIES

The readers in this section will be presented with biographical data of the participants who participated in the study. Four respondents were identified by the researcher and they were teenage fathers. Pseudonyms have been used in order to protect them from being known and to give them a chance to express themselves freely without fear of being known. Life stories of the respondents are also presented for readers in order to know each respondent’s background.

4.2.1 Biographical data of the participants

In this section the profiles of the teenage fathers who participated in the study are presented. Table 4.1 describes biographical data of the teenage fathers that participated in this study. As indicated in chapter three pseudonyms were used for the sake of anonymity of the respondents.
Table 4.1 profile of teenage fathers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Age when they became teenage fathers</th>
<th>Grade they were doing when they became teenage fathers</th>
<th>Future ambitions of teenage fathers</th>
<th>Who raised teenage fathers</th>
<th>Hobbies of teenage fathers</th>
<th>Year when they became teenage fathers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Respondent 1</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Quantity Surveyor</td>
<td>Both parents</td>
<td>Activist in politics</td>
<td>2010</td>
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<td>Respondent 2</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Both parents</td>
<td>Music</td>
<td>2010</td>
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<tr>
<td>Respondent 3</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Medical doctor</td>
<td>Single parent mother</td>
<td>Table tennis</td>
<td>2009</td>
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<tr>
<td>Respondent 4</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Both parents</td>
<td>Athletics</td>
<td>2010</td>
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Table 4.1 indicated that four respondents participated in this research. The majority (75%) of teenage fathers stayed with both parents and only one teenage father (25%) had a single parent mother. That means that these respondents had male role models who were married, who were also playing their roles in raising the child. Even in the case of a teenage father who had a mother only, he had reportedly been raised in the presence of his uncle as a father figure. These teenage fathers did not differ much in terms of ages as they were between 15 & 18 years of age. All of them were at secondary level doing grade 8, 9, 10 and 11. All of them had future

Although all these teenage fathers had both parents, most of them had been raised by their mothers as their fathers were working far from their homes. This is in line with Duku (2006)'s observation that the majority of the children in the Eastern Cape tend to stay with their mothers because their fathers are workers in other provinces like Cape Town and Gauteng. Hoover – Dempsey & Sandler (1997) also substantiate the view that mothers often experience stronger role expectation than fathers for day to day involvement in children’s upbringing. The next section explores the individual life stories of the respondents.

4.2.2 Respondent’s life stories
Respondent 1 was born on 13 July 1992. During this research in 2011 he was nineteen years old. He was eighteen years in 2010 when he became a teenage father. He wanted to be a quality surveyor because he liked houses with different shapes.

Respondent 1 reported that when they engaged in sexual intercourse with his girlfriend, they thought that they were just playing. This was because they were still young, he thought that making a child was for adults only. Sexual intercourse was a play without the thought of having a child that was his belief, he further explained.
He found it hard to be a father and a learner at the same time as he had to think about his child and also about his books. It is hard in that he had to look for part time jobs on weekends while he was also expected to do his home works so he did not have time to relax, which made him regretful of what he did.

He was doing grade 12 at Senior Secondary School. His hobbies were writing short stories, playing rugby and an activist in politics. He was raised by both parents although the father worked in Cape Town. As a teenage father who was still a learner, his classmates avoided to talk to him as they were told by their teachers and parents that he might have bad influence on them in terms of changing their minds into having children, so he was lonely at school.

The mother of his child was born in 1994, and was 16 years of age when they had their baby. He had one child who was a boy born on 31 October 2010. He said he was not married because he was still young and was a learner. When he finished grade 12 he wanted to be a quantity surveyor. A quantity surveyor is a person who has skills in measuring houses to build and amount to be used when building a house. He has to prepare rules on how to build a house. Quantity surveyor finds work on construction companies and with the department of public works.

Even though Respondent 1 was reportedly fond of his child and would do all it took to take care of him, he feared that having a child will have an impact on his future ambitions as he will have to drop out of school to look for work in order to raise his child. His parents were disappointed when he impregnated his girlfriend because they thought he was still young to involve himself in sexual relationships.
Respondent 2 was born in 1993. During this research in 2011 he was eighteen years old. He impregnated his girlfriend at the beginning of 2010 when he was only seventeen years old. He wanted to be a teacher because he believes that a teacher is his role model and a community builder who is able to help when needed by the community. He promised not to run away from his child in that he will never let his girlfriend raise her child alone. He will be on her side no matter how circumstances become. The reason for him to feel this way was because he took responsibility of what had happened and he was ready with his girlfriend to raise their child knowing very well that they were still young.

He did not want his girlfriend and their child to feel neglected although he did not have finances to support them. He felt guilty because he was the cause of his girlfriend falling pregnant and to drop out of school. The matter of the child was between their parents as they were the ones who will support the child so he was not expected to visit his child as he was still taken as young both by his parents and the parents of his girlfriend.

Their child was born on the 1st of November 2010. They were not married as they were still young and learners. Respondent 2 wanted to be a teacher as he believed that a teacher knows everything. The teacher is able to tell the children into choosing between the right and wrong. In communities, parents trust the teacher and ask guidance from him where educated people are needed.

Respondent 2 did not want his girlfriend to feel neglected although he did not have finances to support them. In 2011 she had to drop out of school in order to raise their
child. Her friends were no longer around her as their parents were afraid that she would influence their children into falling pregnant. She was lonely without friends but Respondent 2 kept promising her that she must not lose hope everything will pass and life will be better.

Respondent 2 impregnated his girlfriend in 2010 when they were doing grade 9. In 2011 he was doing grade 10 and his girlfriend had dropped out of school to raise their child. Life had changed completely and this made him felt guilty by impregnating his girlfriend. Even his performance had dropped at school as he was always worried and thinking about the responsibilities he had created for himself and his girlfriend he has made to drop out of school.

His dreams of becoming a teacher were still on though he prayed that his parents allow him to finish his studies. He did not play any important role in raising his child as he was still at school and did not support the child financially. He felt guilty that he was a father and a learner at the same time because he was unable to support the child financially and was not allowed to visit the child as he liked because that will show disrespect towards his girlfriend’s parents. He explained that in his culture a boy who had impregnated a girl was not allowed to visit his child. Only their parents were allowed to discuss the issue of their pregnancy as they are still taken as young children.

Respondent 3 was fifteen years old in 2009 when his girlfriend became pregnant. He was born on 31 January 1994. He had a single parent mother who never got married. His uncle acted as father figure. He had a younger brother who was ten years old. His hobbies were Table Tennis and soft ball. He was doing grade 08
when his girl friend fell pregnant. He was raised by grandmother as his mother worked as a domestic worker in Cape Town. He had one child who was a boy. His child was born on 26 June 2010. The child’s mother was 15 years of age when she got pregnant. They were not married as they were still young and learners.

Now that **Respondent 3** was a teenage father, he was disappointed because he thought he knew a lot about teenage pregnancy in that he had been taught at school in Life Orientation about sex education so he never expected to pregnant a girl. They treated their child as a gift from God because they had tried their best to prevent him from coming on earth through preventive measures that have been mentioned above.

**Respondent 3’s** future ambition was to become a medical doctor. He had realized that there were no medical doctors in rural areas so he wanted to be a doctor coming and living in rural areas. He had realized that there were so many sick people who lived in rural areas where there are no clinics and hospitals. He had also realized that family planning was not done in rural areas and that is why there was a high rate of teenage pregnancies.

Before **Respondent 3** became a teenage father he perceived teenage pregnancy as a thing of children who did not listen to their parents. Children who usually do things that were not acceptable to their parents and the society at large. He usually associated teenage pregnancy with girls who were not disciplined enough to listen to their parents. He also associated teenage pregnancy with boys who were naughty and usually play around with girl’s emotions and care less about the results of their actions.
Now that Respondent 3 was a teenage father, he was disappointed because he thought he knew a lot about teenage pregnancy. He used to criticize teenagers who engage in sexual intercourse because he was still young and not involved in sex relations. When he turned 15 years old, he realized that he was interested in girls and wanted to fall in love with girls without involving in sexual relations. As he started to be deeply in love with his girlfriend, they started kissing each other and started sexual intercourse. He had realized that teenage pregnancy occurred out of love not caring too much about the results but concerned about their emotions and feelings at that time. He regretted himself for allowing emotions to control him because he thought that impregnating a girl would delay him in his dreams of becoming a health doctor.

When Respondent 3 learnt that he had impregnated his girlfriend, he began to hate himself for not listening to his mother when she told him not to come late at home. He began to regret himself for starting a relationship with his girlfriend fully aware that if they started sexual intercourse they will pregnant each other. He felt guilty because he knew about teenage pregnancy but he played carelessly thinking that nothing will happen in a minute round. He was also angry at his girlfriend for not using contraceptives because when they were doing conversation days before they started sexual intercourse she did tell him about contraceptives and their importance. They agreed that his girlfriend will start using contraceptives before they start sexual intercourse. When he asked she said she forgot to take the pills which he regarded as “a careless mistake”. His girlfriend felt guilty about having fallen pregnant because she was aware of the dangers of involving themselves in sexual intercourse without having eaten contraceptive pills. She even thought about committing suicide as she
did not want to be a disgrace as young as she was, but nurses tried their level best to convince her to continue with life.

**Respondent 3** felt that he should accept his girlfriend’s pregnancy as his responsibility because they were aware of the results of sexual intercourse but he played carelessly thinking that his girlfriend had taken her contraceptives. He did not regret his girlfriend for forgetting to take the pills because he believed that she cared about their relationship when she used contraceptives, it was just a mistake to forget. Respondent 3 still loves his girlfriend and their child as a gift from God. They treat him as a gift from God because they had tried their best to prevent the child from coming on earth through preventive measures that have been mentioned above.

**Respondent 4** was born on 10 October 1993. His parents are married and they are both still alive. He impregnated his girlfriend in 2010 when he was seventeen years old. Now that he was a teenage father he perceived teenage pregnancy as something that delays one in his / her career in that one had to drop out of school in order to raise the child. He felt sorry for his girlfriend for delaying her in school because she had to drop out of school and stayed at home in order to raise their child. Respondent 4 still had dreams of becoming a teacher as he had mentioned above that he wanted to be teacher.

His father worked in Gauteng as a mineworker. He stayed with his mother. He had three brothers and two sisters. He was a second born. His hobbies were athletics and soccer. He was doing grade 11 at Senior Secondary School. He was born in Butterworth. He had one child who was a girl, born on 23 March 2011. His girlfriend
was born on 28 January 1995. They were not married as they were still young and students.

**Respondent 4** wanted to be a teacher in order to work for his children. He believed that a teacher is a responsible person who looked after other people’s needs and made them his own. His parents had lots of expectations towards him as a result he was afraid of impregnating a girl while still at school because his parents told him on how that can delay him at school. They expected him to obey the rules of the house by coming home not later than 6 pm everyday when playing with friends.

Before **Respondent 4** became a teenage father, he perceived teenage pregnancy as something that belongs to teenagers who do not listen to their parents as he had parent’s expectations in his mind. Now that he was a teenage father he perceived teenage pregnancy as something that delays one in his / her career. It will delay him in that he had to find work in order to support his child.

He felt guilty that he had disappointed his parents on what they believed in him, more especially his mother who told him about the dangers of involving in sexual relations while still young. She encouraged him to put education first and the rest will follow. He still loved his child as he believed that his child never applied to be on earth. He felt sorry to his girlfriend for delaying her in school, in that she would have to drop out of school and raise her child.

**Respondent 4** teachers were also disappointed when they heard about the news of him impregnating a girl because they trusted him a lot as he was a disciplined child. He began to realize that he was no longer young. He had created himself a
responsibility in life which he would have to look after, immediately he started working. He knew everything that he was taught in life orientation about teenage pregnancy and sex education but he believed that they were still young with his girlfriend to make a child. Respondent 4 still had dreams of becoming a teacher as he had mentioned above the reasons for his choice including working closely with community like parents and other stake holders. Impregnating a girl and having a child had made him to be more focused in life as he had to bear the responsibilities of his actions. At that moment his child was supported by his parents and he was still at school doing grade 12.

4.3 PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

4.3.1 The respondent’s experiences of teenage pregnancy

All (100%) teenage fathers experienced teenage pregnancy as an unexpected shock in their lives which has not been planned by both teenage father and mother. They experienced teenage pregnancy the same way in that they were all unaware that they are teenage fathers. They were shocked and felt guilty thinking that they were still young. They also experienced teenage pregnancy as a costly game, careless mistake and ill disciplined activity. This is evidenced in the following statements:

Costly game, Careless mistake and ill discipline

Respondent 1

“Being a teenage father was a surprise to me and my girlfriend as we thought we were still young. We thought that we were just playing. I experienced teenage pregnancy as a careless mistake which has created us a life time responsibility. It is a costly game in that after finishing my
studies I have to pay all the expenses of raising a child to the family of my mother’s child. I was not used in sexual intercourse and I thought that making a child was for adults only. I took impregnating a girl learner as an ill disciplined activity because at our homes and at school we were told about safe sex. Even now I still cannot believe it as I feel that this will have a bad impact in my future ambitions of being a quantity surveyor as I will have to drop out of school and look for a job.”

**Respondent 2**

“First of all I never expected to be a teenage father. I always associated teenage pregnancy with older boys than me. I was always playing around with girlfriend not knowing that I will pregnant her because I thought I was still young. I experienced teenage pregnancy as my careless mistake because I knew very well about the use of condoms and my girlfriend was aware of the use of contraceptives but we thought we were young to be parents”. It is a costly game because my parents have a challenge of supporting my child while I am still a learner. It also shows ill discipline because we were all aware of the dangers of pregnancy as we were taught at school but we did not obey the rules thinking that we were still young.

**Respondent 3** experienced teenage pregnancy as a thing of children who do not listen to their parents. Children who usually do things that are not acceptable to their parents and the society at large. He usually associated teenage pregnancy with teenagers who are ill disciplined and who do not listen to their parents and who cared less about the results of their actions. He is disappointed that he has
impregnated a girl thinking that he knew a lot about teenage pregnancy. He regrets himself for allowing emotions to control him as this will delay him in his future ambitions of becoming a medical doctor. He also associated teenage fatherhood as a costly game because raising a child involves some expenses.

**Respondent 4** experienced teenage pregnancy as something that delays one in his career. It delays in that when he is at school he has to think about his child and the responsibilities that he has to bear in terms of costs involved. He regrets himself for starting sexual intercourse while at school because when he starts working he will have to take over the responsibilities of raising a child from his parents who have taught him discipline. He will have to look after himself as a beginner worker and also after the child because of their careless mistake. This means that he has created himself more responsibilities.

All the respondents (100%) reported that they were shocked to find that they were to become teenage fathers. They were not ready to raise their children as all of them are still learners. They were ready to bear the responsibilities but they would like to finish their studies. They all respected their parents and felt guilty that they have disappointed them. So they were not only shocked but also felt guilty.

An important element of Strauss & Goldberg (1999) research, with relation to this study’s focus on teenage fathers, is the concept of ‘possible selves’ that represent an individual’s idea of what they may become in the future and the fact that transition to parenthood is an impetus for change in self-concept. It could be argued that when an adolescent becomes a father the visions of his possible self may be abruptly altered. Strauss & Goldberg (1999) cited Cowan’s research (1991) that asserted that
developmental transitions in adulthood are long-term processes that result in a reorganization of one’s inner psychological sense of self. This may be more pronounced and more difficult for a male who becomes a father at such an early age, without intent. Developmental theory (Lee, 1994; cited in Johnson, 2001) supports this assertion as it suggests that fatherhood is best undertaken in adulthood when the developmental tasks of adolescence are completed.

4.3.2 The respondent’s first reaction upon learning of their partner’s pregnant status

All the respondents (100%) that I have interviewed were not happy that they were teenage fathers instead they were disappointed, shocked, and regretful and did not believe that they can be fathers at the age of impregnating their girlfriends.

4.3.2.1 Disappointed

Respondent 1 was disappointed when he heard the news of pregnancy from his girlfriend because he thought he was still young to make a child and his parents trusted him very much.

Respondent 2

“I was disappointed because I always associated teenage pregnancy with older boys than me. In Life Orientation at school we were taught about the use of contraceptives so I never expected that I can be the one who pregnant a girl”.

Respondent 3 was disappointed because he associated teenage pregnancy with children who do not listen to their parents. His parents trusted him and he listens to
their advice but he does not know how this pregnancy happened as he thought he was listening to his parents.

**Respondent 4**

“I am very disappointed that I have impregnated my girlfriend as this will affect me in my carrier ambitions as I will have to drop out of school and look for work in order to raise my child”.

### 4.3.2.2 Shock

**Respondent 1**

“Impregnating my girlfriend came as a shock to me as I thought that I was still young to make a child. It took me months to accept that really I am a father as I was still hoping that my girlfriend will come to me and say it was a mistake she is not pregnant”.

**Respondent 2** was shocked by the news of pregnancy as he associated teenage pregnancy with older boys than him. He could not understand himself when the parents of his girlfriend bring the news of pregnancy to his home.

**Respondent 3**

“I was shocked when I heard the news of pregnancy from my girlfriend as I associated teenage pregnancy with boys who do not listen to their parents and I was sure that I do listen to my parents so I cannot make mistake”.

**Respondent 4** reported that impregnating his girlfriend came as a shock to him as his mind was always in his career. He associated teenage pregnancy with learners who are not disciplined enough to listen to their parents.
**4.3.2.3 Regret**

**Respondent 1**

“I regret myself that I have started a relationship with my girlfriend while I am still young. This will affect me in my career ambitions as I wish to become a quantity surveyor. Now I will have to drop out of school and look for job in order to raise my child”.

Respondent 2 regret for having played with sexual intercourse thinking that impregnating a girl was for older boys. He thought that he was just playing with his girlfriend and could not make a child. He knew very well about the use of condoms as he had been taught about the use of contraceptives in Life Orientation at school.

**Respondent 3**

“I perceived teenage pregnancy as a thing of children who do not listen to their parents. I used to associate teenage pregnancy with who are not disciplines enough and who cared less about the results of their actions. I regret myself for allowing emotions to control me as this will delay me in my future ambitious of becoming a medical doctor. I am praying day and night that my though I have created myself a life time responsibility”.

**Respondent 4** regrets himself for starting sexual intercourse while at school because when he starts working he will have to take over the responsibilities of raising a child from his parents. He will have to look after himself as a beginner worker and also after the child. He regrets starting a relationship that will create himself a responsibility of raising a child for life.
4.3.2.4 Disbelief

Respondent 1

“I could not believe my ears when my girlfriend told me the news of her pregnancy. I thought I was still young to make a child. I was not used in sexual intercourse and I thought that making a child was for adults only. Even now I cannot believe it as I feel that this will have a bad impact in my future ambitions of being a quantity surveyor because I am not sure if my parents will allow me to further my studies.”

Respondent 2 never expected to be a teenage father as he associated teenage pregnancy with older boys than him. He did not believe that he can make a child as he thought he was still young. At school he has been taught about the use of condoms in a learning area called Life Orientation but he thought it only referred to older boys than him.

Respondent 3

“I associated teenage pregnancy with children who are not disciplined enough to listen to their parents. I did not believe my girlfriend when she told me the news of her pregnancy as I thought about the expectations of my parents from me. My parents expected me to concentrate on my studies and listen to their teachings carefully”.

Respondent 4 could not believe that at his age he has to look after a child that has been created by him on earth. He thought that he was going to have children when he gets married. At his age he never thought that he can make a child as he associated the use of contraceptives with girls only. He thought that his girlfriend
was using contraceptives and did not bother himself by asking if she was preventing that is why he could not believe the news of pregnancy.

All I can say as a researcher is that all my respondents did not expect the news that they have impregnated their girlfriends. Although their reactions are different in that some are afraid of their parents while others are afraid of dropping out of school, all of them accept the responsibilities of raising a child.

Doherty et al. (2006) cited research by May (1982) that found that expectant fathers’ perceived readiness for fatherhood was related to their view of whether they had accomplished their life goals in the childless period. Premature timing into fatherhood may certainly prevent this accomplishment and may have negative repercussions. Leite’s (2007) model concurs with many of the overarching themes identified in this present study; the role of others displayed as social factors and the psychological reactions and transformation of self is encompassed under cognitive and emotional factors.

4.3.3 The respondent's view on the impact of teenage pregnancy prevention strategies
All (100%) respondents were aware of the use of condoms and contraceptives as means of preventing teenage pregnancy. They reportedly took prevention strategies for granted as they believed that they were still young to make a child. For instance respondent 1 did not expect to make a child as he thought that he was still young to make a child and respondent 2 reported that the prevention strategies he learnt from Life Orientation as a learning area at school thought that all was referring to older
boys than him as a result he did not use condoms. Some respondents such as respondent 3 and respondent 4 seem to suggest that they took prevention strategies as the duty of teenage girls to prevent teenage pregnancy. With regards to the issue of prevention strategies as a researcher I believe that these boys should have been taught by their teachers and nurses on issues of prevention strategies because seemingly they lacked knowledge about teenage pregnancy. All their parents seem to have advised them but they needed more knowledge from teachers and nurses.

Respondent 1 viewed teenage pregnancy as a difficult matter as he did not expect, thinking that he was still young to make a child. He thought he was just playing with a person who is also a child so they cannot make a child. He was not used in sexual intercourse and thought that making a child was for adults only. At first he blamed his girlfriend, the mother of his child for not using contraceptives believing that she wanted the child in order to receive a grant from government but eventually he did not blame her because they were both there when the child was conceived and he should have used condoms. He did not use condoms because he thought he was still young to make a child and his girlfriend was still young to be pregnant, they were just playing adults’ play not expecting to be teenage fathers.

Respondent 1 believed that he should have prevented his girlfriend’s pregnancy by using condoms as this will have a negative impact in his future ambitions of becoming a quantity surveyor. He would have to drop out of school after finishing his grade 12 to go and look for work in order to pay all the damages he had done to the mother of his child and to support his child. The reason for dropping out of school was also that his girlfriend was from a poor family with grandmother only, where there was no father and mother who died long time ago, he would have to
look after his child in order to raise and support him in an expected manner. Respondent 1’s parents could also not afford to raise his child as they were unemployed and it was even difficult for them to raise their children including respondent 1.

**Respondent 2**

“I thought I was still young to make a child so all that I learnt from Life Orientation about prevention strategies like use of condoms and contraceptives by girls was referring to older boys and girls than me. He reportedly believed that Life Orientation was a good learning area because it was where we were taught about the dangers of engaging in sex while we were still young. My views on the impact of teenage pregnancy prevention strategies were clear, I should have used condoms but I thought I was still young to make a child. Even my girlfriend should have used contraceptives but because we thought we were just playing we played carelessly. My parents and my teachers at school have played a big role in advising me about the importance of pregnancy prevention but I played carelessly so I did not blame anybody but me for what happened”.

**Respondent 3**

“I was disappointed that I was a teenage father, thinking that I knew a lot about teenage pregnancy. I was criticizing other teenagers for engaging in sexual intercourse because I was still a child not involved in sex relations. Immediately I turned 15 years old I realized that I was interested in girls and I just wanted to fall in love with girls without involving in sexual intercourse. But as we became deeply in love with my girlfriend, we started kissing each other and be together until dark. It was then that we started sexual intercourse
without any use of condoms and other contraceptives as we thought we were young. I then understand teenage pregnancy as something that we do out of love not caring too much about the results but concerned about our emotions and feelings at that moment. I began to regret myself for allowing emotions to control me because I thought that becoming a teenage father will delay me in my dreams of becoming a medical doctor. I should have used condoms as pregnancy prevention strategy”.

Respondent 4 reported that he was afraid of becoming a teenage father while still at school because of his parent’s expectations from him. His parents were always teaching him about teenage pregnancy prevention strategies like use of condoms so as to avoid being delayed in his future ambitions of becoming a teacher. They expected him to obey their rules when they asked him to arrive at home before it is dark every day. He was doing everything they wanted to make sure that he did not involve himself with girls until he met Vuyolwethu, his girlfriend who changed his mind and he began to fall in love with her. They sparted dating each other and began their sexual intercourse until she got pregnant without having used any prevention strategies because they thought they were still young to make a child.

This study concurred with past findings of negative effects of fatherhood on men’s feelings of well-being (Knoester & Eggebeen, 2006). The results indicated that the arrival of a new child, either co-resident or non-resident is ‘associated with men’s feelings of depression’ (Knoester & Eggebeen, 2006). Strauss and Goldberg (1999) explored the notion of ‘selves and possible selves’ during and after the transition to fatherhood. They postulated that if there is a discrepancy between the real and ideal
self as a father then a man’s psychological wellbeing may be adversely affected. Feelings of failure or incompetence in the new role of parent can lead to a poor adjustment to fatherhood.

4.3.4 The teenage father’s views on the effects of teenage pregnancy
All teenage fathers (100%) viewed teenage pregnancy as something that had negative effects in their lives. It had a negative effect in that it delays them in their future ambitions. Some reported that their performance at school dropped immediately, when they heard the news of becoming teenage fathers in their lives, whilst a few reported that they even lost trust by their parents who had high expectations from them.

Respondent 1 & 3 reported that becoming a teenage father would affect their schooling as their performance at school had dropped and their future ambitions had been affected as they would have to drop out of school in order to pay for their damages.

Respondent 2 & 4 reported that they even lost trust by their parents who had high expectations from them. Even their friends were no longer with them as they felt that they might change their minds and influence them into having children.

Respondent 1
“I still could not believe that I have impregnated a girl as I felt that that would have a negative effect on my future ambitions, in that I would have to drop out of school after finishing my grade 12 to go and look for work and pay all the
damages to the mother of my child. I was planning to drop out of school because my girlfriend, the mother of my child was from a poor family she not did have father and mother. In order for my child to have a better future, I thought it would be better for me to drop out of school and looked for work so that I support and raise him better. I had lost friends and on weekends I had to find part time jobs in order to help my girlfriend’s grandmother with food for my child and my studies were also affected”.

**Respondent 2**

“I regret myself for becoming a teenage father as this has affected me negatively with my parents. I felt guilty because I have made my parents to lose trust on me. They trusted me before by allowing me to visit my friends after school and coming home late thinking that I was just moving around with my friends and busy with my studies. They no longer trusted me even if I go to the shop, they would ask my little brother to accompany me so that I come back home earlier”.

**Respondent 3** reported that he was disappointed that he had impregnated his girlfriend because he thought he knew everything about teenage pregnancy having learnt it from Life Orientation as a learning area at school. He regretted himself for allowing emotions to control him because he thought that becoming a teenage father would delay him in his future ambitions of becoming a medical doctor. He was also worried about his parents as they had high expectations towards him. They trusted him and loved him very much. This has affected his relationship with his parents negatively as they no longer interested in his future ambitions of becoming a medical
doctor. He was no longer close to his friends, they complained about his scarcity but he had explained to them that they have a child and are always together.

**Respondent 4**

“I was afraid of impregnating a girl while I was still a teenager because of my parent’s expectations from me. My parents expected me to obey their rules. They were always teaching me about teenage pregnancy delaying boys and girls from their future ambitions. Teenage pregnancy had affected me badly in my studies in that when I was at school, I had to think about my child and the responsibilities that I have to bear. The mother of my child was still in love with me though we had to think more about our child and less about our love. This had affected our relationship in that whenever we met we talked about our child not our love”.

All the respondents had been affected negatively by their actions of becoming teenage fathers. They are afraid that their future ambitions wouhd be affected as some of them would have to drop out of school in order to raise their children. Even those who would not drop out of school, their performance at school had been affected as they would be thinking about their responsibilities. They had disappointed their parents who had high hopes on them and some were even trusted by their parents.

As Sigle-Rushton (2005) explained, if the early assumption of parenthood interrupts career development and investment in job skills there could be long term economic implications. There is little qualitative research linked to the exploration of the pressures faced by young men to leave school to get immediate financial security for
their new family. Feelings of failure or incompetence in the new role of parent can lead to a poor adjustment to fatherhood (Strauss and Goldberg, 1999).

4.3.5 How the teenage fathers received teenage pregnancy prevention strategies?

All the respondents (100%) commented that they have been taught about sex education in a learning area called Life Orientation at school. They said they took it for granted because they thought that it was referring to older boys than them as they believed that they were still young to make a child.

All the respondents have been taught about sex education in Life Orientation at school. They believed before they impregnated their girlfriends that it was referring to older boys than them as they thought that they were still young to make children. After they have impregnated their girlfriends they began to ready to help their little brothers not to undermine teachings of Life Orientation.

**Respondent 1**

“My life has changed completely after I have impregnated my girlfriend. My dream of becoming a quantity surveyor is a bit changed because at home I was told that I will only be given a chance to complete grade 12 in 2011 and then after that I will have to look for a job in order to raise my child. The free time I get, I make it a point that I spend with my son which affects my hobbies. The relationship between me and my girlfriend is no longer hot as we always quarrel about our child when we meet which sometimes ended up with fight as I am unable to meet all her expectations like buying food and clothes for our child. I am no longer playing with my friends but spend time with my son. This has affected my
relationship with my friends as I am no longer available when they need me.

Schools do not support teenage fathers, their concentration is on teenage girls. Even visits at schools by nurses they only gather girls and talk to them about teenage pregnancy irrespective of their gender. When talking about contraceptives I expect responsible for the prevention of pregnancy. I have a positive attitude towards Life Orientation and sex education; I believe that its teachings will be heard one day. In future boys will play responsibly with girls. They will be able to use condoms and advise girls to use contraceptives”.

Respondent 2

“My performance has dropped at school. I am always worried and thinking about the responsibility I have created for my life while I am still young. Being a teenage father has affected my schooling activities very badly. I do not concentrate well on my child while I am always thinking about the future of my child while I am no longer active in music and sport as extra mural activities because after school I want to be with my child. I am hurt because this affects my whole future in class and outside classroom. Life Orientation is a good learning area because it is where we are taught about the dangers of engaging in sex while we are still young. I perceive Life Orientation as a good learning area which is there to guide us on what to do and what not to do but the problem is with us the youth, we do not practice what we learn from L.O. because we think we know everything about sex education”.

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Respondent 3

“My dreams of becoming a medical doctor are still alive because I am still young and schooling. I am still serious about my future more especially that I have brought a responsibility on earth. I want to be a doctor so that I am able to sit with my child and advise him about life as a whole. My hobbies are affected badly because I am no longer interested in playing table tennis and Softball. Every spare time I have, I make sure that I spend it with my girlfriend and my child”.

Respondent 4

“Being a teenage father has made me to realize that I am no longer young. I have created myself a responsibility for life which will make me know very well that immediately I start working I must look after my child whether I will still have a relationship with my girlfriend or not. Impregnating my girlfriend has also made me take life seriously by using condoms when doing sex. I am not interested into having other relationships as I am still facing my responsibilities with my girlfriend. Life Orientation is one of the learning areas I like at school because it teaches us about life generally. It teaches us on how to live life fully. It also teaches us about dangers of engaging in sex while still young and how to prevent sexual diseases and prevention of teenage pregnancy through the use of condoms and contraceptives”

Doherty et al. (2006,) cited research by May (1982) that found that expectant fathers’ perceived readiness for fatherhood was related to their view of whether they had accomplished their life goals in the childless period. Premature timing into fatherhood may certainly prevent this accomplishment and may have negative repercussions.
This study concurred with past findings of negative effects of fatherhood on men’s feelings of well-being (Knoester & Eggebeen, 2006). The results indicated that the arrival of a new child, either co-resident or non-resident is ‘associated with men’s feelings of depression’ (Knoester & Eggebeen, 2006).

4.3.6 The life of a teenage father who is a learner
All my respondents (100%) experience teenage pregnancy the same way. They regret themselves for impregnating girls as it delays them in their studies. They will have to think about their responsibilities rather than their studies. They are all unhappy as they have lost trust to their parents and are no longer playing with their friends. They feel isolated as their friends are no longer with them thinking that they might influence them into impregnating their girlfriends. They all feel that they have disappointed their parents as they have been trusted by them and the parents thought that their children only concentrated on their studies not relationships with girls which might lead to teenage pregnancy.

Responded 1
“I regret myself for impregnating my girlfriend as this has affected me on my studies. I do not have enough time for my studies as I have to do part time jobs after school and on weekends. I do not have time to relax and spend it with my friends. During the week I am at school and after school I visit my child almost every day as I believe that my child needs love, care and responsibility”.

Respondent 2
“Being a teenage father has affected my schooling activities very badly. I do not concentrate well on my studies as I am
no longer active in music and sport as extra ural activities because after school I am with my child. I am hurt because being a teenage father has affected my future in class and outside classroom. I feel guilty that I have made a child at my age while I am still at school. I also feel guilty that I have made my girlfriend to drop out of school”.

Respondent 3 feels guilty that he is a father and a learner at the same time. He finds it difficult to provide love to his girlfriend and his child as he has to look after his books at the same time. When the child is sick he needs to take care and be responsible while home works are needed at school. His performance has dropped at school as he is unable to concentrate well on his studies.

Respondent 4  
“Being a teenage father at my age was not my plan so it affects me badly because I feel guilty that I have made my girlfriend to be out of school. It affects my studies that I have to work harder than before because as I have a responsibility waiting for me to finish my studies and look after my child. As a result my performance at school has improved because I am thinking about finishing my studies earlier so that I can begin working earlier in order that I can begin working earlier so as to relieve my parents from the responsibilities that I have created by myself”.

These findings agree with what Knoester and Eggebeen (2006) asserted that parenthood is a role or set of roles. This perspective stated that men assume fathering roles according to the cultural and societal expectations of them. Knoester and Eggebeen (2006) highlighted that men are ‘expected to provide emotional and physical care for their children and to support them financially.’ This perspective
postulated that men begin to behave differently due to new internal and external expectations of how they should behave when they become fathers. Knoester and Eggebeen (2006) found support for the role occupancy perspective; men feel obliged to increase their financial support for their family after they have had children.

4.4 CONCLUSION
This chapter presented and analyzed data and the research findings were discussed according to the research questions. The ensuing chapter deals with the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

All (100%) teenage fathers experienced teenage pregnancy as an unexpected shock in their lives which has not been planned by both father and mother. They experienced teenage pregnancy the same way in that they were all unaware that they are teenage fathers. They were shocked and felt guilty thinking that they were still young. They also experienced teenage pregnancy as a costly game, careless mistake and ill disciplined activity.

All teenage fathers (100%) viewed teenage pregnancy as something that had negative effects in their lives. It had a negative effect in that it delays them in their future ambitions. Some reported that their performance at school dropped immediately, when they heard the news of becoming teenage fathers in their lives, whilst a few reported that they even lost trust by their parents who had high expectations from them.
CHAPTER FIVE
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION
The purpose of this study was to determine the perceptions of male teenagers as both learners and fathers and teenage fathers’ views on the effects of teenage pregnancy. Furthermore, this investigation was undertaken to investigate the implications of teenage fathers’ experiences on sex education.

The research questions that guided this study were as follow:

Main research question
- What are the teenage father’s experiences as learners and as fathers?

Sub questions
- What are the teenage fathers’ views on the effects of teenage pregnancy?
- How do teenage fathers receive pregnancy prevention strategies?

This chapter deals with the summary of the findings. Suggestions and recommendations for further studies are mentioned.

5.2 SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

5.2.1 The respondent’s experiences of teenage pregnancy
All (100%) teenage fathers experienced teenage pregnancy as an unexpected shock in their lives which has not been planned by both father and mother. They
experienced teenage pregnancy the same way in that they were all unaware that
they are teenage fathers. They were shocked and felt guilty thinking that they were
still young. They also experienced teenage pregnancy as a costly game, careless
mistake and ill disciplined activity.

5.2.2 The respondent’s first reaction upon learning of their
partner’s pregnant status
All the respondents (100%) that I have interviewed were not happy that they were
teenage fathers instead they were disappointed, shocked, and regretful and did not
believe that they can be fathers at the age of impregnating their girlfriends.

5.2.3 The respondent's view on the impact of teenage pregnancy
prevention strategies
All (100%) respondents were aware of the use of condoms and contraceptives as
means of preventing teenage pregnancy. They reportedly took prevention strategies
for granted as they believed that they were still young to make a child. For instance
respondent 1 did not expect to make a child as he thought that he was still young to
make a child and respondent 2 reported that the prevention strategies he learnt from
Life Orientation as a learning area at school thought that all was referring to older
boys than him as a result he did not use condoms.

Some respondents such as respondent 3 and respondent 4 seem to suggest that
they took prevention strategies as the duty of teenage girls to prevent teenage
pregnancy. With regards to the issue of prevention strategies as a researcher I
believe that these boys should have been taught by their teachers and nurses on
issues of prevention strategies because seemingly they lacked knowledge about
teenage pregnancy. All their parents seem to have advised them but they needed more knowledge from teachers and nurses.

5.2.4 The implications of teenage father’s experiences on sex education
All the respondents (100%) commented that they have been taught about sex education in a learning area called Life Orientation at school. They took it for granted because they thought that it was referring to older boys than them as they believed that they were still young to make a child.

All the respondents have been taught about sex education in Life Orientation at school. They believed before they impregnated their girlfriends that it was referring to older boys than them as they thought that they were still young to make children. After they have impregnated their girlfriends they began to ready to help their little brothers not to undermine teachings of Life Orientation.

5.2.5 The life of a teenage father who is a learner
All my respondents (100%) experience teenage pregnancy the same way. They regret themselves for impregnating girls as it delays them in their studies. They will have to think about their responsibilities rather than their studies. They are all unhappy as they have lost trust to their parents and are no longer playing with their friends. They feel isolated as their friends are no longer with them thinking that they might influence them into impregnating their girlfriends. They all feel that they have disappointed their parents as they have been trusted by them and the parents
thought that their children only concentrated on their studies not relationships with girls which might lead to teenage pregnancy.

5.3 RECOMMENDATION FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

- A large-scale can be conducted throughout the province of the Eastern Cape. Alternatively small-scale studies similar to the current one can be carried out in different locations. The results can be pooled together to get a global picture of the experiences of teenage fathers with regard to teenage pregnancy. This will provide the necessary data that can be used to improve/refine the current programme on sex education.

- A summative evaluation of the sex education programme to establish whether the goals of the programme are being met.

- Compilation of statistics on teenage pregnancy on an annual basis. These figures can be compared region wise and year to year enabling problem areas to be identified and subsequently assisted.

5.4 CONCLUSION

Teenage pregnancy is one of the social and health problems in many communities of South Africa and is escalating (Richter, 2005). Teenage pregnancy is also a global health problem as it affects the whole world and has been a concern to health workers like medical doctors, nurses, community developers, educators and parents (Maholo, 2009). Teenage pregnancy is a reflection of inconsistent use of contraceptives (Kanku & Mash, 2010). This means that both male and female teenagers are not committed into using prevention measures like contraceptives and
condoms. In addition, the risk of dropping out of school due to pregnancy is considerable to teenagers as it results in a lack of qualifications and future unemployment.

This study revealed that all the teenage fathers interviewed were not happy that they were teenage fathers instead they were disappointed, shocked, and regretful and did not believe that they can be fathers at the age of impregnating their girlfriends. They also regretted themselves for impregnating girls as it delays them in their studies. Some reported that their performance at school dropped immediately, when they heard the news of becoming teenage fathers in their lives, whilst a few reported that they even lost trust by their parents who had high expectations from them.

There is a need to do a summative evaluation of the sex education programme to establish whether the goals of the programme are being met. Furthermore, a compilation of statistics on teenage pregnancy on an annual basis will be of great assistance to the teenage fathers and policy makers. These figures can be compared region wise and year to year enabling problem areas to be identified and subsequently assisted.
6. REFERENCES


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7. APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: LETTER TO THE SUPERINTENDENT GENERAL
OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Dear Sir

Subject: REQUEST FOR YOUR CONSENT TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH IN
YOUR SCHOOL WHICH IS UNDER BUTTERWORTH DISTRICT

I, Mr Mluleki Njambatwa, (201013907) an M.E.D. student at the University of Fort
Hare seek permission to conduct a research in your school. The topic of my study is
“Teenage Father’s perceptions on teenage pregnancy and its impact on Education”.
The interview will be done on two teenage boys

Your positive response will be highly appreciated

Yours Sincerely

Mr Mluleki Njambatwa
Cell No: 0834832184
APPENDIX B: LETTER OF RESPONSE FROM THE SUPERINTENDENT GENERAL OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION ACCESS TO RESEARCH SITES

28 September 2011

PO BOX 6066
Msobomvu
BUTTERWORTH
4961

Dear Mr Njambatwa

PERMISSION TO UNDERTAKE MASTERS’ THESIS: TEENAGE FATHERS PERCEPTIONS ON TEENAGE PREGNANCY-ITS IMPLICATIONS FOR SEXUALITY EDUCATION

1. Thank you for your application to conduct research.
2. Your application to conduct the above mentioned research in two(2) Secondary Schools, that is , Busila Junior Secondary and Nondwe Senior Secondary School in the Eastern Cape under the jurisdiction of the Butterworth District is hereby approved on condition that:
   a. There will be no financial implications for the Department:
   b. Institutions and respondents must not be identifiable in any way from the results of the investigation;
   c. You present a copy of the written approval letter of the Eastern Cape Department of Education (ECDoE) to the District Directors before any research is undertaken at any institutions within that particular district;
   d. You will make all the arrangements concerning your research;
   e. The research may not be conducted during official contact time, as educators’ programmes should not be interrupted;
   f. Should you wish to extend the period of research after approval has been granted, an application to do this must be directed to the Director : Strategic Planning Policy Research and Secretarial Services;
   g. The research may not be conducted during the fourth school term, except in cases where a special well motivated request is received;
   h. your research will be limited to those schools or institutions for which approval has been granted;
   i. you present the Department with a copy of your Final paper/report/dissertation/thesis free of charge in hard copy and electronic format. This must be accompanied by a separate synopsis (maximum 2-3 typed pages)of the most important findings and recommendations if it does not already contain a synopsis. This must also be in an electronic format.
j. You are requested to provide the above to the Director: The Strategic Planning Policy Research in the ECDE document duly completed by you.

k. You comply to all the requirements as complete d in the Terms and Conditions to conduct Research in the ECDE document duly completed by you.

l. You comply with your ethical undertaking (commitment form).

m. You submit on a six monthly basis, from the date of permission of the research, concise reports to the Director: Strategic Planning Policy Research and Secretariat Services.

3. The Department wishes you well in your undertaking. You can contact the Director, Dr Anneita Heckroodt on 0437027428 or mobile number 0832710715 and email :annetia.heckroodt@edu.ecprov.gov.za should you need any assistance.

Dr AS HECKROODT
DIRECTOR: STRATEGIC PLANNING POLICY RESEARCH AND SECRETARIAT SERVICES
APPENDIX C: LETTER TO THE PRINCIPAL

Mr S Dokoda
Busila J.S.S
Butterworth
4960

Dear Sir

Subject: REQUEST FOR YOUR CONSENT TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH IN YOUR SCHOOL WHICH IS UNDER BUTTERWORTH DISTRICT

I, Mr Mluleki Njambatwa, (201013907) an M.E.D. student at the University of Fort Hare seek permission to conduct a research in your school. The topic of my study is “Teenage Father’s perceptions on teenage pregnancy and its impact on Education”. The interview will be done on two teenage boys. All conditions enumerated on the Provincial letter in response towards my research shall be observed.

N.B with this letter find permission granted by and Province, District Director and Circuit Managers to conduct the research.

Your positive response will be highly appreciated

Yours Sincerely

Mr Mluleki Njambatwa
Cell No: 0834832184
APPENDIX D: LETTER OF RESPONSE FROM TO THE PRINCIPAL

27 October 2011

PO BOX 6066
Msobomvu
BUTTERWORTH
4961

Dear Mr Njambatwa

I am pleased to inform you that permission is hereby granted to you to undertake Masters' thesis research as stipulated in all the documents you submitted.

Yours Faithfully

Principal (Nondwe S.S.S)
APPENDIX E: LETTER TO THE DISTRICT DIRECTOR

Mr M.A Jack  
The district director  
P/B X 3019  
Butterworth, 4960

Dear Sir

SUBJECT: REQUEST TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH IN THE SCHOOLS OF BUTTERWORTH EDUCATION DISTRICT

I, Mr Mluleki Njambatwa, (201013907) an M.E.D. student at the University of Fort Hare seek permission to conduct a research in some of the collected schools within Butterworth district. My research topic of my study is “Teenage Father’s perceptions on teenage pregnancy”.

I will use male learners from Senior and Junior Secondary Schools as research participants.

N.B with this letter find permission granted by and Province to conduct the research.

Yours Sincerely

Mr. Mluleki Njambatwa
Cell No : 083 483 2184
APPENDIX F: LETTER OF RESPONSE FROM THE DISTRICT DIRECTOR

From: The District Director: Butterworth
To: Mluleki Njambatwa

SUBJECT: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH PROJECT IN SCHOOLS

Permission is hereby granted for you to visit schools in the Butterworth District in line with Head of Department’s approval as well as the attendant conditions. You will also be required to make the necessary logistical arrangements including making the school managers aware.
Schools that you will be visiting are the following:
  1. Busila Junior Secondary School
  2. Nondwe Senior Secondary School

The Department wishes you well in your research studies.
Thanking you in anticipation

Yours in service

M.A. JACK-DISTRICT DIRECTOR
APPENDIX G: LETTER TO THE CIRCUIT MANAGER

The Circuit Manager
Mr K.G Maliwa
P/B X 3019
Butterworth, 4960

Dear Sir

SUBJECT: REQUEST TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH IN THE SCHOOLS OF BUTTERWORTH EDUCATION DISTRICT

I, Mr Mluleki Njambatwa, (201013907) an M.E.D. student at the University of Fort Hare seek permission to conduct a research in some of the collected schools within Butterworth district. My research topic of my study is “Teenage Father's perceptions on teenage pregnancy and its impact on Education”.

I will use male learners from Senior and Junior Secondary Schools as research participants.

N.B with this letter find permission granted by and Province to conduct the research. All conditions enumerated on the Provincial letter in response towards my research shall be observed.

NAME OF THE SCHOOLS:

1. NONDWE SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL
2. BUSILA JUNIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL

Your positive response will be highly appreciated

Yours Sincerely
Mr. Mluleki Njambatwa
Cell No: 0834832184
APPENDIX G: LETTER OF RESPONSE FROM THE CIRCUIT MANAGER

Busila JSS
Butterworth Education District
4960

I, the circuit manager responsible for Nondwe Senior Secondary School and Busila Junior Secondary School, endorse the approval given to Mr Njambatwa M. by the provincial department to conduct research at the aforementioned schools.

Yours Faithfully

Mr K.G Maliwa (circuit manager)