

AN ANALYSIS OF THE EDUCATIONAL ROLE OF SINGLE PARENTS

BY

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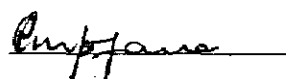
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P.G. MPOFANA

ESIKHAWINI

JANUARY 1999

DECLARATION

An Analysis of the Educational Role of Single Parents.

M.Ed. 1999.

I, Phumzile Gladys Mpfana, do hereby declare that this dissertation which is submitted to the University of Zululand for the degree of Master of Education has not been submitted by me at any other university, that it represents my own work in conception and in execution and that all sources I have used and quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete reference.

Signed by me. *Mpfana*..... on the *15th*..... day of *Jan*..... 1999

(v)

DEDICATION

This work is humbly dedicated to my late husband, Hansford, and my children Nontokozo, Nokwanda, Sifiso, Sicelo and Sanelisiwe.

QUOTATION

A single parent's ability to provide a positive home environment and to become actively involved in his or her child's school work greatly influences the child's school performance (Hargreaves, 1991:65).

SUMMARY

The study on “an analysis of the educational role of single parents” was aimed at:

- * investigating the role of single parenthood in education.
- * investigating the educational role of single parents in and out of school.
- * establishing problems encountered by single parents in performing their educational role.
- * establishing the effects of single parenthood on the academic performance of children.
- * determining the extent to which single parents can be helped to improve their parenting skills.

The above are some of the aims of this study which are stated in Chapter one. The method of investigation was described and major concepts were clarified in Chapter one. Chapter two discussed the family in relation to socialization and education. It also discussed the functions of the family and the family relationships. Chapter three dealt with the impact that living in a single parent family had on the academic performance of children. Chapter four dealt with single parents' involvement in education. Chapter five dealt with the research technique, analysis, evaluation and interpretation of data gathered by means of questionnaires. Chapter six focused on the further statement of the programme of study, findings and conclusions, suggestions and recommendations.

This study has revealed that single parents are unable to adequately participate in their children's education mainly due to time and resource constraints. Issues related to child upbringing for lone parenting were a matter of concern. A plethora of pressures and challenges caused conflict and stress for single parents.

Some of the recommendations are that schools should help single parents and their children by:-

- * encouraging single parents to organise their own single parents' groups at school through which parents can create their own support network, receive practical single parenting advice and share child care duties.

- * educating the public on the importance of accepting single parents.
- * organising single parents' family support and children's support groups on school's premises and linking these support groups with community agencies that help single parent families in crises.
- * organising parenting education courses through Parent Teacher Association (PTA's) which offer child care, car pools or other transportation assistance, and a sliding fee or scholarship and fund for low-income single parents.
- * frequently reviewing children's progress with single parents through the telephone or in-person conferences.
- * providing single parents with the school's year plan so that parents can make prior arrangements with employers to attend some of the school's important activities/events.
- * opening therapy and counseling centres for single parents.
- * updating those single parents who are unable to attend parents meetings by making minutes for meetings available for them.
- * educating single parents on strategies of coping with stress and resolving conflict.

The researcher hopes that future research suggested in chapter six will help reveal some of the important issues on single parenthood.

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CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Growing numbers of men and women now live outside conventional marriages. To the groups of men and women who never marry or are widowed has been added the increasing numbers of those who become separated or divorced, or who choose to cohabit. From the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English the term conventional marriage refers to the relationship between a man and woman who have made a legal agreement to live together following accepted practices, customs and standards. Married persons, especially, attach a lot of negatives to singlehood.

Adams (1980:407) says singles are likely to be accused of the following:

...as being hostile toward marriage or toward persons of opposite sex; as being homosexual; as unattractive; or as having physical or financial obstacles to finding a mate; as unwilling to assume responsibility; or afraid of involvement; as unable to dwell in the dating/mating game; or having unrealistic criteria for finding a mate; as perceiving marriage as a threat to a career or as being in geographical, educational, or occupational isolation.

The above quotation indicates that the possibility that some people might actually choose to be single because they want to be, because they feel it would contribute to their growth and well being to remain so, is simply not believed to be possible.

Stein as cited by Adams (1980:155) lists the following strong pulls for remaining single:

freedom; enjoyment, opportunities to meet people and develop friendships, economic independence, more and better sexual experiences, and personal development.

It is obvious, as one looks at the above quotation that the desire to become single is sometimes enforced by the needs to satisfy the self in a number of ways. However, there are some drawbacks to remaining single. Adams (1980:158) contends that the major problem confronting the single

is the fear of loneliness. The fear that one's associates will sooner or later go their separate ways leaving a single person without close ties. George (1983:66) says there is an "attitude that one's family will provide support while friends could prove fickle and undependable in crises". Fearful as they might be, most singles are parents and have a total responsibility of raising their children.

Despite a plethora of fears and concerns, the current researcher wants to point out that single parents now occupy a major aspect of parenthood and education and, this role necessitates a study of this nature. This study examines single-parents' sources of economic and social support as well as how they manage and organise their household routines. It explores the domestic power and familial relationships and questions the extent to which single men and women can forge identities outside marriage. It also examines the common problems that single parents face in educating their children.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The problem of this study is based on this primary question: What is the educational role of single parents? Other secondary questions around the problem are: are the roles of single parents similar to those of other families? What social, educational, spiritual or economic pressures do single parents face? This study will try to answer these questions and also others that may be directly or indirectly related to them.

Single parent homes result from death, divorce, unmarried mothers, children born through insemination or single men and single women adopting children. The number of single parent families increases with an increase in the number of divorces. Adams (1980:407) contends that about one in every four children, nationwide, is being raised by a single parent.

Lone parenting is seen as a deficit and single-parenting is seen as a poor substitute for proper parenting (Chandler, 1991:144). Others are keen to argue that lone parents can do just as good a job as couples. Berner (1992:55) supports this argument when he says:

...authoritative custodian parenting typically produces children with higher levels of competent behaviour and positive social competence.

The above quotation indicates that even a single parent can do well in raising children, but should have authority. To compensate for single parenthood, single parents obviously tend to be strict and stern. This sternness sometimes is met with confrontation from children of single parents who have passed adolescence. The circumstances of lone parents are often given gendered interpretation, which emphasises the weakness of lone mothers and a problem of controlling adolescent boys (Chandler, 1991:146). Many women themselves see the problem of gender rather than the situation itself. They believe that it is because they are women that they cannot act authoritatively. Berner (1992:59) argues that gender has nothing to do with 'proper' parenting. He says:

The sex of the parent does not matter. One obvious reason for this is modelling. They view the authoritarian person as in control and can reap security from that feeling.

Galinsky (1987:223) has this to say in connection with gender issue in lone parenting:

...the fathers clearly were just as involved with their babies as the mothers. Looking and smiling at them, holding and kissing.

Irrespective of the arguments on gender and single parenting, it is abundantly clear that single parents have a role to fulfil. Throughout this dissertation, the current researcher will try to reveal this role.

Galinsky (1987:225) feels that mothers and fathers are affected by divorce the same way. He writes:

Mothers and fathers encountered marked stresses in practical problems of living, self-concept and emotional adjustment, and interpersonal relations following divorce. Low self-esteem, loneliness, depression, and feelings of helplessness were characteristic of the divorced couple.

Consequently, the question of single parenting may be a problem if not a burden for a divorcee.

This may be compounded by pressures of stress, self-blame, etc.

The absence of a parental 'echelon' permits the child-parent relationship to be modified. Weiss as cited by Chandler (1991:150) argues that it is only the "most self-reliant mothers and rigid single-parent families that do not change". However, the changes are not without their problems. Galinsky (1987:228) says:

Divorced parents tended to show less affection and have less control over children's behaviour. And notably, the children were more disruptive and disobedient than the children in intact families; that is, the divorce engulfed both the parents and the children, causing reaction in both and their relationship.

Presumably, parents who have turned single a result of divorce may need some form of counselling or a therapy/programme in order that they face new challenges of parenthood, or take them seriously, accept them or else become honest with them. Since focus of this study is the role single parents have to play in the education of their children, divorcees, therefore need to be assisted in order that they face the pressures of single parenthood rather than abdicating their tasks/responsibilities.

Van Den Aardweg and Van Den Aardweg (1988:221) enumerate the following problems as some of the problems which will present themselves to the single-parent family:

- * the parent has to work and so places the child(ren) in another's care;
- * personality problems may develop
- * too early independence is encouraged or too little independence is allowed, so the child is unused to confront and deal with challenges;
- * the mother usually bears the total responsibility for children which culminates in a responsibility overload;
- * there is also a task overload with numerable jobs, household and parental demands and many activities the father used to undertake;
- * an emotional overload - the parent is often isolated and has no one with whom to share and loneliness may result;
- * boys are affected more negatively than girls;
- * there is a domestic disorganization with bedtimes and mealtimes erratic, children are more

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- * the mother usually bears the total responsibility for children which culminates in a responsibility overload;
- * there is also a task overload with numerable jobs, household and parental demands and many activities the father used to undertake;
- * an emotional overload - the parent is often isolated and has no one with whom to share and loneliness may result;
- * boys are affected more negatively than girls;
- * there is a domestic disorganization with bedtimes and mealtimes erratic, children are more

likely to arrive late for school.

- * sons are often in conflict with their mothers;
- * discipline is often inconsistent
- * the mother feels inadequate, incompetent, struggles with her self-esteem and is psychologically fragile.
- * there is little time for social relationships,
- * and adjustment problems at school occur, demonstrated by restless, obstinate, disruptive and impulsive behaviour.

The above problems necessitate that a study on the educational role of single parents be undertaken. Since conflict is one of the side effects of most homes with single parents; it is therefore important that the role of single parents be looked into thoroughly and, the question of conflict in particular has to be attended to.

In the case of a conflict-ridden home Van Den Aardweg and van Den Aardweg (1988:222) enumerate the following benefits:

- * there is reduction in tension, hostility and discord;
- * children take on responsibilities
- * flexible planning result in quality time;
- * co-operation in daily living and problem solving occurs;
- * children experience new life-styles
- * they become involved in the single parent community
- * there is gaining of independence and experience;
- * there is a feeling of being wanted and valued as a member of the household.

Despite all the problems encountered by single parents, there are those who succeed in educating their children. One example is Paul Phume. He thanks his single-mother for educating him and his brothers and sisters (Tribute, February, 1995:28). This study examines problems encountered by single parents in performing their educational role.

1.3 CLARIFICATION OF MAJOR CONCEPTS

1.3.1 SINGLE

The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English defines “single” as being the “only one”. In this study singlehood in parents refers to a person who is without a spouse but has a child or children. This singlehood may either refer to a female or a male parent who faces the responsibility of performing the educative functions of a couple or both parents.

1.3.2 PARENTHOOD

The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English defines “parenthood” as the state of being a ‘parent’. The Oxford English Dictionary defines ‘parent’ as a mother or father. The World Book encyclopaedia Vol 45 (1994) distinguishes two types of parents, namely, biological parents and social parents.

A child’s biological parents are the man and woman who physically produce the baby. The child’s social parents are the ones who raise the child and these may not be the same as biological parents. When parenthood is used in this study it is associated with a single parent together with his or her educational role(s). However, there could be instances where parenthood will be used in a broad sense to refer to all parents even couples.

1.3.3 ROLE

The Oxford English Dictionary defines role as a part to be played, assumed or undertaken. George (1983:238) sees role as implying a:

Collection of patterns of behaviour which are thought to constitute a meaningful unit deemed appropriate to a person occupying a particular status in society; occupying an informally defined position in interpersonal relations, or identified with a particular value in society.

Obviously a role may signify a single task or a collection of tasks that an individual has to

perform. For the purpose of this study the word 'role' is used to refer to the multifaced nature of educational roles that single parents have.

Role focuses upon the social bargains which underlie co-operation. Social relationships like that of a parent and a child consist of pairs of roles where either party is bound by certain obligations to each other (Banton, 1965:2). According to Mlondo (1987:10) roles are allocated to persons according to age, sex, kinship and common residence. The parents major role is that of educating children. This study focuses on the role of single parents in executing their educational role.

1.3.4 EDUCATION

du Plooy and Kilian (1984:73) wrote the following about education:

In Afrikaans *voed in opvoed* means 'to mould spiritually', to lead to a higher place (level) and therefore to 'raise', 'to improve', 'to ennoble'. Latin *educere* means 'to lead out' (*educer-* 'to take out what is there'). *Opvoed*, educate (bringing up), *erziehen* (German) and *educare* (Latin) imply an intervention of an adult in the life of a child in view of what the child should become. The up, leading higher up and accompany - all imply that the child is not where he should be, but he is on his way to adulthood.

This description of education implies that the child has to be led by someone from one point or level to another. This leading or "agein" activity needs a person who will exercise authority over the one who is led.

Gunter (1974:12) describes education as follows:

The original and literal meaning of the Dutch and Afrikaans word '*opvoeding*' is feeding a child until he has grown up, that is, fully grown. In its extended, spiritual meaning it should be understood as a nourishment for higher things, that is, a leading upwards, to bring up someone who is still growing up, to lead him upwards to adulthood by means of good, spiritual nourishment... Education is essentially the accompaniment or rather, the leading upwards of a child by adults in his own ascent to adulthood, as the formal and ultimate total aim of education.

Consequently the fact that a child is born not a tabula rasa does not mean that he/she should be given to nature to guide him as Rosseau suggested. This humanistic approach to leading the child cannot be accepted “holus bolus” or “entoto”. The child needs an adult to guide him in a pathetic and sympathetic way.

Education is a universal phenomena which is limited to human beings. It is a process in which the practice of education is involved where a responsible adult leads, helps, supports and accompanies a child to self-actualisation and ultimately to adulthood. Education is a purposeful, conscious intervention by an adult in the life of a non-adult with the specific purpose of bringing the non-adult successfully to adulthood (Van Den Aardweg and Van Den Aardweg, 1988:76).

According to du Plooy, Griessel and Oberholzer (1982:22) the term ‘education’ is derived from “educio (Latin) meaning, amongst others, to draw out, lead out”. This implies that an educand is led from one situation to another. In this study the term education is used in accordance with the multidimensional educative role that single parents have to perform.

1.3.5 CHILD

For the purpose of this study a child refers to a ‘not-yet adult’ who still needs accompaniment, guidance and leading by an adult or parent who knows the demands of adulthood. In most instances the term ‘child’ will be used to refer to a ‘not yet adult’ born from a single parent.

1.4 AIMS OF THE STUDY

The following are the aims of this study:

- to investigate the role of single parenthood in education
- to investigate the educational role of single parents in and out of school
- to establish problems encountered by single parents in performing their educational role
- to establish the effects of single parenthood to the academic performance of children
- to determine the extent to which single parents can be helped to improve their parenting skills
- to establish if there is anything that can be done at school to help improve the academic performance of children from single parent families.

In this study the role of a single parent may either be educational, spiritual, psychological, social, political or economical. However, all these roles are combined under one umbrella of 'educational role'.

1.5 DEMARCATION OF STUDY

This study includes single parents only. Although figures of males and females are given separately, the study does not compare males and females.

1.6 LIMITATION OF THE FIELD OF STUDY

The study will be limited to only single parents. A sample will be drawn from those single parents in Mthunzini district in KwaZulu-Natal. Another limitation of the study is that it involves only black single parents.

1.7 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study will be conducted with the help of the following:

1.7.1 LITERATURE REVIEW

An in-depth literature study will be done focussing primarily on single parenthood and its role in education.

1.7.2 QUESTIONNAIRES

This study will be exploratory. Structured questionnaires will be constructed and distributed to single parent homes, schools and churches. Respondents will be single parents. Both open and close-ended questionnaires will be completed by single parents.

1.8 COMPOSITION OF CHAPTERS

CHAPTER ONE

This is a general introduction. It states the problem, aims of the study and the proposed method

of research. It also clarifies major concepts and briefly describes ensuing chapters.

CHAPTER TWO

This chapter considers single parent families in relation to socialization and education. It describes single parent families and their types. It also looks at the different functions of the family.

CHAPTER THREE

This chapter examines the impacts that living in a single-parent family has on children and on their academic development.

CHAPTER FOUR

This chapter discusses the role of parents in children's development and the involvement of single parents in school education.

CHAPTER FIVE

This chapter describes the research technique used. Data collected is analysed and evaluated. Relevant interpretation of data is also done in this chapter.

CHAPTER SIX

This chapter presents conclusions, findings and recommendations.

1.9 CONCLUSION

The family and especially the parents, are responsible for transferring the child from an amoral state, to where he/she becomes an acceptable social participant who knows and follows acceptable social roles of his culture. He/she is also taught to accept people's of other cultures within a multi-cultural context.

The parents exert direct control, through discipline and example; internalized control, where the child's conscience directs his/her actions because of knowledge of right or wrong and indirect control where the child acts because he/she respects and loves his/her parents and cares about

their expectations and does not hurt them.

This chapter has given an overview of the whole study. The next chapter discusses single-parent families in relation to socialization and education. It describes single parent families and their types. It also looks at the different functions of the family. The focus of this study is on the role played by single-parents in the education of their children. Education has its roots in the family, so a closer look at single parent families and functions of families is relevant. School education is shaped by some forces and factors from families.

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CHAPTER TWO

SINGLE PARENT FAMILIES IN RELATION TO SOCIALIZATION AND EDUCATION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter has given an overview of the whole study. This chapter considers single-parent families in relation to socialization and education. It describes single parent families and their types. It also looks at the different functions of the family.

2.2 SINGLE-PARENT FAMILIES

The single-parent family is one of the many family forms and is characterized by a great deal of within-group variation (Kissman and Allen, 1993:vii). Like two-parent families, each single-parent family is unique and has its own strengths and weaknesses. These families live everywhere: in large cities; in suburbs; in small towns, and in rural areas. They are also found among all ethnic groups, religions, backgrounds, and income levels. These families share many emotional, social, financial and practical challenges as one parent takes over both roles as provider and nurturer - duties traditionally shared by two parents. Yet there are some important distinctions among different types of single-parent families: families led by never married mothers; separated mothers, divorced mothers; widowed mothers and single fathers.

2.2.1 NEVER-MARRIED MOTHERS

Never-married mothers include women who adopt, give birth to, or have a ward, one or more children. They span the social spectrum from young teenage mothers to older professional women who choose to start families on their own.

Hargreaves (1991:18) contends that never-married mothers are by far the poorest group of single parents. Their average income is one-sixth of the average income of two-parent households. Zill and Rogers (1988:153) describe never-married mothers as the youngest single-parent group, with the least education, least likely to be in the labor force, and most likely to be dependent on

government assistance. Fewer than half of unmarried mothers have finished high school, though some of them may still be in high school or are of high school age. The never-married mothers tend to spend more time at home with their children than other single parents, though this may have more to do with their personal backgrounds, present joblessness and lack of social and career opportunities than with their never-married status.

2.2.2 SEPARATED MOTHERS

Marital separation marks the beginning of a divorce process. For most families, separation means that the father sets up a separate residence and the mother becomes the head of the household. With the beginning of unfamiliar roles, separated parents often feel a mixture of relief, hurt, resentment, and also a sense of loss over absent family routines (Hargreaves, 1991:20). Most separated parents take over a year to resolve their emotional storms and over two years to adjust fully to their new situation (Knight, 1980:15).

There are many changes within the family during this period of separation especially for a woman who had stayed at home during the marriage to take care of children. At separation these mothers often go back to school, enter the work force, change jobs, or increase their working hours in order to take on the responsibility of financially providing for their children. Economically, this can be an especially stressful time for mothers who must maintain their households and support their children before the divorce court awards them any child support or alimony payments.

2.2.3 DIVORCED MOTHERS

Hargreaves (1991:20) contends that divorced mothers share somewhat better circumstances than separated mothers because many of these mothers have successfully passed through the initial crisis stage of marital dissolution or because women of low socioeconomic status do not obtain formal divorces as often as others. Within two years of the divorce many women have made significant adjustments by reorganising their lives, accepting the divorce, and re-orienting their identities as single parents. More divorced mothers are in labour force, have finished college and work full time than any other single parent group except for single fathers (Weitzman, 1985:8).

Most divorced women have to face a situation familiar to many separated mothers: the other parent as a physical and emotional reality in their lives and the lives of their children. Although joint custody arrangements have become common in some states, most divorced women still have sole custody of their children. In families where sole custody is granted, unfortunately children usually have little contact with their non-custodial parent, and parents rarely communicate about the raising of their children (Zill and Rogers, 1988:158).

2.2.4 WIDOWED MOTHERS

The loss of one's spouse through death or divorce is probably one of life's most stressful events and requires the greatest readjustment. Although death and divorce are often considered comparable crisis involving the loss of an important family member, an important distinction remains. In the case of a parent's death, the departure of the parent is final. In the case of a divorce, the absent parent still lives and plays some role in the family.

A widow must come to terms with the death of her husband, while adapting to life as a single parent. Depression is a normal response to a spouse's death. Her grief and guilt may or may not be mixed with feelings of relief, resentment, anger, and separation anxiety that are common to other single parents. A woman with young children may also feel shameful about her widowhood at the 'wrong' age. Although after divorce many women experience euphoria, greater independence, self-esteem, and some disappointment over a 'failed' marriage, widows generally experience an unwanted, irreparable, and uncontrollable feeling of loss (Amato, 1987:329).

The sympathy and support that widows receive is often short-lived, after which widowed mothers may share many of the same challenges faced by other single parents (Amato, 1987:330). But these women are often less financially disadvantaged than divorced mothers for several reasons:- they do not have to split the marital assets, many are entitled to life insurance payments and survivor's social security benefits, and many retain their family homes.

2.2.5 SINGLE FATHERS

The number of single parent-families headed by single fathers has been growing in recent years as more fathers find it acceptable and even desirable to care for their children on their own. More men are now willing to accept custody or to fight for it (Hargreaves, 1991:22). Fathers with custody face pressures similar to all single parents:- maintaining a household, caring for children, and holding a job. However, single fathers get more assistance from friends, neighbours, their children, and paid househelpers, and are more accustomed than custodial mothers to outside employment (Hetherington, Camara and Featherman, 1983:97) and (Weiss, 1979:110). Single fathers tend to be more secure economically than single mothers, in part because the fathers tend to have had more education and are more likely to be in the labor force (Norton and Glick, 1986:13).

Single-parent families, like intact families, fulfil many important functions in society. A few functions of the family will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

2.3 FUNCTIONS OF THE FAMILY

2.3.1 CHILD BEARING

Child bearing involves a biological process whereby a female parent becomes pregnant and then after nine months gives birth to a child. In some societies there is a high social value placed upon this function of the family. Acuff, Allen and Taylor (1973:51) contend that in most cases if a wife does not bear a son, the stability of the family is destroyed. In some instances it is assumed that the wife is at fault and may be divorced for not fulfilling her function of giving birth to a child, particularly to a son. This is common in most African societies where it is a shame for a woman not to bear children. Barrenness is associated with a curse or misfortune. However, in Western culture, barrenness, though seriously taken, is associated with certain physical abnormalities. *Child bearing function is possible only if there are two parents i.e. a male and a female. This implies that parents become single after bearing children.*

2.3.2 CHILD REARING

Child rearing involves all the help or services rendered to the child to help him/her grow. This might be looked upon as a social reproduction. Acuff, Allen and Taylor (1973:59) contend that:

The biological process of bearing a child is momentary for the male and takes less than a year for the female. The social process of taking the newborn child and forming him/her into a mature, responsible member of the society is a prolonged, arduous task.

From the foregoing extract it is evident that child rearing is a social function. It takes a long time and it is not an easy task. Biological parents of the child perform child bearing which is just for a while. Child rearing commences at child birth and continues until adulthood. To say it is a social process accommodates adopted children who are not brought up by their biological parents but by their adoptive parents. Their adoptive parents are their social parents. Some single parents are adoptive parents. Child rearing is concerned with four specific tasks, namely: maintenance, socialization, status ascription, and provision of emotional nurture.

2.3.2.1 MAINTENANCE

The infant is very dependent. He/she demands care. Slowly he/she develops a degree of independence that will enable him/her to live by his/her own strength and skill. During this time of maintenance the family provides love, warmth, security and acceptance for the child's physical survival. Single parents often have hard times satisfying their dual roles as wage earners and caregivers. In most cases single parents ascribe the caregiving role to their helpers. Male single parents, in particular, do not have the skill to look after infants, so they are helped by other people.

2.3.2.2 STATUS ASCRIPTION

The child takes into himself/herself, the status position of his/her family. The family's income limits what can be bought for the child in the way of food, clothing, toys, medical services and education. The child quickly learns how his/her parent's status is regarded by his/her peers. Hence, children from low-income families usually regard themselves as of lower status as compared to children from high-income families. In most cases children from single-parent families ascribe low status to themselves which is in accordance with their families' low income.

2.3.2.3 PROVIDING EMOTIONAL NURTURE

The growing child needs not only food and shelter but also a climate of acceptance and emotional support. When educating a child to become emotionally or affectively adult, love plays a very important role (du Plooy, Griessel and Oberholzer, 1982:147). The emotional life at its best flourishes in an atmosphere of love which brings of necessity with it, a feeling of security and of being accepted. This can best be effected in the family atmosphere. The child needs a loving, devoted mother or father to make him/her grow emotionally.

At home the child experiences that he/she is being safeguarded every moment of his/her life. This safeguard provides confidence which is a basic condition for the origin and course of the educative act. The courage to dare and conquer the unknown arises from a feeling of trust and safety as being safe guarded. According to du Plooy, Griessel, and Oberholzer (1982:148) children who lack the necessary mother-love and the concomitant feeling of being safeguarded will suffer spiritually as well as physically. For example, they refuse to walk, to play, to talk, to laugh and cry as normal children do. Lack of emotional peace may give rise to all kinds of learning disabilities and behavioural idiosyncrasies. Most single parents are unable to meet their children's emotional needs because they also are under considerable financial and emotional stress as they attempt to cope with full-time work and solo parenting responsibilities. Some parents have family trauma to cope with as well (Hargreaves, 1991:83).

2.3.2.4 SOCIALIZATION

Socialization is the learning process related to the growth of social relationships and social behaviours which encourages the acceptable assimilation of the individual into society. Rules, customs, attitudes and other details of culture are learned. Such learning is continuous. Children learn to act socially like children, adults like adults, parents like parents, the elderly like those who are old - just as the specific culture requires and expects. The forming of healthy relationships with others, siblings, peers and adults is basic to socialization.

As a process, socialization entails a continuing interaction between the individual and those who seek to influence him, an interaction that undergoes many phases and changes. For Elkin (1960:4) socialization is "the process by which someone learns the ways of a given society or social group

well enough so that he can function within it”.

For Child (1954:655) socialization is:

the whole process by which an individual born with behavioural potentialities of enormously wide range, is led and assisted to develop actual behaviour which is confined within a much narrower range- the range of what is customary and acceptable for him according to the standards of his group.

Both Elkin (1960:4) and Child(1954:655) put the stress on learning by the individual. Aberle (1961:387), however, puts the stress on the social apparatus which influences the individual's learning and defines for him the range of what is acceptable, as follows:-

Socialization consists of those patterns of action or aspects of action which inculcate in individuals the skills (including knowledge), motives and attitudes necessary for the performance of present or anticipated roles.

The group into which an individual is socialized must therefore have acceptable standards, norms and values that are in line with the demands of propriety. Socialization has both a conservative and progressive role. It aims at maintaining present norms and values as they are perceived to be worthwhile. It is a dynamic continuous process directed at educating the child in values and norms that will hold true even in future. Consequently, socialization is static, dynamic and future oriented.

Socialization implies that the individual is induced, to a certain degree, to conform to the ways of his/her society or of a particular group to which he belongs. The process of socialization includes the pattern of social learning transmitted through child care and training, the acquisition of language and selfhood, the learning of social roles and of moral norms. To a large degree, childhood socialization is the social orientation of the child and his/her enculturation, first within the small social world of family and neighbourhood and then in relation to the larger society and culture.

According to Clausen (1968:5) socialization must encompass such diverse influences as parental guidance and control aimed at teaching the child to modulate his/her natural impulses, the

interactions through which language is learned and selfhood achieved, the effects of an older sibling as a role model, the mutual give and take of courtship and marriage as preparation for parenthood, the induction of the individual into his/her occupational role, and a host of other kinds of preparation and social participation. Socialization entails all those influences that prepare the individual to fulfil normal and acceptable adult roles in his/her society.

Family members play an important role in the socialization of the child. The child receives his/her language and basic speech patterns from the family. His/her attitudes toward others, his early outlook on life, his definition of success all have their origin deep in the child-rearing practices of his parents. He learns ways of coping with the world. Much of the child's socialization begins with the intensive mother-child dyad. The end product of this family educational process is a balanced and socially viable personality. The evidence that it has been successful is the ability and skill of the child to enter into extra-family group relations and to perceive, learn and enact new social roles demanded by his involvement in groups outside the family circle. This enactment or construction of new roles is typical of reconstructionism and pragmatism.

2.3.3 THE ECONOMIC FUNCTIONS OF THE FAMILY

Members of the family share the work responsibilities and fruits of their mutual labours. Often there are sex differentiated tasks that keep males and females working in specific ways. Acuff, Allen and Taylor (1973:83) further note that:

The family as a productive unit is best seen in hunting, gathering and agriculture societies. Through the careful division of labour, the necessities of food, clothing, shelter and protection are provided within the context of the family.

In the larger technological society, the division of labour is less rigorous. It is not unusual for both parents to work productively outside the homes. As the resources are pooled and the members of the home share in consuming the products and services purchased by the members of the household, the economic function of family is apparent. The quality of life of the family frequently depends much upon this economic skill in the market place as it does upon the inflow of income.

The basic functions of the family may be found in all cultures. A given culture may emphasize one function more than the others. Evidences of their presence may be found in the legal provision made by the dissolution of the family if one of these should be deficient. The common biological limitation of man, his basic drives and his social needs have led him to find satisfaction in a *functioning family unit*. *The forms of the family are many and varied*, but the functions fulfilled by the family remain constant. They have been found to be essential for the presentation of human race, and more especially for the preservation of culture and cultural achievements.

Family relationships have a great influence on the education and socialization of children. Some family relationships will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

2.4 FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS AND THEIR SIGNIFICANCE IN EDUCATION AND SOCIALIZATION

According to Hinde, Perret-Clermont and Stevenson-Hinde (1985:157) relationships serve three functions in social and cognitive development, that is:

- They are the contexts in which basic competences emerge.
- Relationships are resources.
- Relationships are forerunners or precursors of other relationships.

The basic competencies which emerge from relationships include language, impulse regulation, the self-esteem, a repertoire for co-ordinating one's actions with those of others, and knowledge about relationships themselves. Processes of learning, remembering, and understanding are also undergone in the relationship structure.

Relationships are resources. These constitute both emotional and cognitive resources that furnish the individual with the security and skill that he/she takes to strike out into new territory, meet new people, and tackle new problems. Relationships are resources that protect the individual from stress; they are also instruments for problem-solving.

Relationships are precursors or forerunners of other relationships. Relationships always reflect

one's partners- their motives, skills and expectations. New relationships are constructed from old ones.

2.4.1 PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIP

A balanced parent-child relationship is necessary from infancy. Van Den Aardweg and Van Den Aardweg (1983:213) contend that parent-child relationship affects physical growth, personality and intellectual development. The way the child develops her/his sense of competence and self-worth is related to the way she/he is treated and evaluated in the home. The knowledge of love and being loved is important.

The child too has a part in this relationship and shapes her parents' attitudes toward him/her - his/her crying, reactions, sex, appearance all shape his/her parents' behaviour toward him/her. There is a positive relationship between a mother's love and happiness, calm and the positive behaviour of the child. Children who experience love, security and acceptance are said to be daring and venturesome.

Both parents are important to adolescent/child relationship (Jones, Gallagher and McFalls, 1995:71). If the father neglects his task as conveyor of support, warmth and acceptance, his son could find adolescence a time of difficulty. If the mother does not fulfil her task, the daughters' identification and acceptance of her female role may be deficient. In single parent families adolescents have hard times trying to find an adult to substitute the absent parent. Most adolescents end up landing in troubles. Interpersonal relationships within the family serve as the field from which the adolescent/child emancipates herself/himself.

2.4.2 FATHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIP

The child is the product of his/her parents and both parents are important in his/her well-being. Recently there has been a trend toward more equalizing roles of men and women in child care with the father no longer being a shadowy figure in infant rearing. The father's role in child development has been minimal or indirect. It is the intention of the researcher that single fathers,

in particular at least indulge themselves in some minimal tasks of the parenting.

The physical, emotional and economic support the father supplies for the mother has a direct impact on the child's development. Van Den Aardweg and Van Den Aardweg (1988:214) contend that the birth of a child has a profound impact on most fathers and they hold positive attitudes to the infant. Today there are fathers who are even present at the birth to comfort the mothers and to welcome their children into the world - fathers who take an active, intimate interest in their children. The prejudice against fathers becoming involved is losing ground.

For many men the birth of a son is ego-boosting and fathers tend to pay more attention to their sons. Boys model themselves on their fathers and view the father as the more powerful and capable parent who rewards and punishes. The father is usually the disciplinarian in the family and where the father is absent disciplinary problems often occur.

Meth and Pasick (1990:201) maintain that father participation is strongly determined by cultural tradition and the degree and manner in which he participates in child rearing is largely dependent upon this factor. In traditional families there are roles which are classified as male roles or as female roles. Most men are not socialized to develop the nurturing, interdependent side of themselves in relationships. Most of them do not think of themselves as the parents primarily responsible for childcare prior to their becoming primary custodial parents. Many men are brought up in traditional families in which the father provided material support and discipline but kept his emotional distance (Meth and Pasick, 1990:203). This model can fail them when unexpectedly, life turns them into parents who must provide nurturing and emotional closeness to their children.

The single father's belief system is a significant factor in how he approaches the dual roles of *nurturer and disciplinarian*. According to Kissman and Allen (1993:72) his desire for a closer emotional relationship with his son is often thwarted by his thinking of himself as needing to guard his effectiveness as disciplinarian and moral teacher. His belief in hierarchy is deeply ingrained.

Certainly not all fathers need help in learning how to nurture their children. Many men are

comfortable and competent in this role, just as many women are not. When fathers are experiencing problems in nurturing their children, socialization is often a factor (Kissman and Allen, 1993:73). Those men who feel a great deal of anxiety about being nurturant may harbour fears of being viewed as feminine or as failures (Feldman, 1990:245). If they were taught that child care is “feminine”, it may be extremely difficult for them to show a ‘softer’ side through display of affection.

Men are also socialized to fear failure in all endeavours, and the risk of failing in the child care inhibits many men in their attempts to be more active nurturers. This fear is reinforced in many ways by society and through media. It is little wonder that many single fathers are reluctant to risk exposing the untried nurturing parts of themselves if the price is possible humiliation. One possible outcome of a man’s feeling that he cannot succeed in providing a satisfactory emotional climate or that it is inappropriate for a man to do so is that he will cast about for a woman to marry. He may feel he can best fulfil his responsibility to his children by providing another mother.

Feldman(1990:246) maintains that the most deeply rooted intrapsychic barriers to father involvement in nurturant child care are derived from men’s experience in their families of origin. Identification with their fathers is developmentally important for males, and they are likely to identify with the model of parenting presented by their fathers. Even though a man may vow “never to be like my father”, parental styles and distancing patterns are often repeated.

2.4.3 MOTHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIP

A pre-requisite for normal development is a healthy relationship between mother and infant. At infancy the critical requirement is that the baby should experience his/her world as secure, reliable and caring. After the warmth, protection and uninterrupted satisfaction of his physiological needs in the mother’s womb, the newborn child is launched into a world where he can no longer take the satisfaction of his needs completely for granted. Ideally, the family structure and society are geared to protecting and nurturing the infant.

The mother offers her baby a sense of physical care and loving physical nurturance. When he/she is hungry, thirsty or uncomfortable, he/she cries and the mother comes to attend to his/her need. This happens each time until eventually child can rely on her to heed his/her appeal. Thus the baby learns to trust his/her mother.

This trust can easily be transferred to others as well. A devoted, caring mother lays a foundation for a trusting positive attitude in her child toward other people as well. The basic sense of trust and security enables the child to explore further, willingly embark on new experiences. Janov and Holden (1977:135) contend that a warm, loving, accessible mother gives a baby a sense of enjoyment from interpersonal contact, as a result of which he/she will later turn to people and seek out their company. By contrast, a cold, aggressive or rejecting mother will have a very different effect on the child. If the child cries and she does not come, is hungry and she does not feed him/her, even if he/she only senses her antagonism- what the child senses is that people let him down and hurt him emotionally. As a result he will turn away from people and begin to satisfy his yearnings in spheres other than interpersonal interaction. This can lead to poor social orientation especially in early childhood. Thus, the quality of mothering a child receives will largely determine his attitude towards other people and experiences.

The mother in turn, needs the support of her husband, family and society at large to function adequately in her role as nurturer (Maier, 1968:99). This implies that the quality of maternal care depends to a large degree upon the support that the mother receives from other adults in the household usually the husband - the family in which the child is born, the society's recognition of the family as one of its basic institutions, and the culture's guarantee for the continuation of fundamental societal mores and values.

Single mothers lack this necessary support of husbands in their nurturing role. Also in nuclear families there are no other adult members to give the support that the single mother needs in carrying out her nurturing duties. In extended families the grandparents are usually of great help when one of the child's parents die or in the event of a divorce or separation.

2.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter has discussed single parent families in relation to socialization and education. It has described single parent families, functions of the family, family relationships and their significance in education and socialization. The next chapter will review the impacts that the special circumstances of single-parent families have on children and on their academic performance.

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CHAPTER 3**THE IMPACTS OF SPECIAL CIRCUMSTANCES OF SINGLE-PARENT FAMILIES
ON CHILDREN AND THEIR ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT**

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CHAPTER THREE
THE IMPACTS OF SPECIAL CIRCUMSTANCES
OF SINGLE-PARENT FAMILIES ON CHILDREN
AND THEIR ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter two discussed different types of single-parent families. In all types of single-parent families discussed, one parent typically takes on the entire daily responsibility of raising children and preparing them for adulthood. This chapter examines the impacts that living in a single-parent family has on children and on their academic development. How well do children in single-parent families develop socially and intellectually? Do these children face any special psychological and intellectual risks because of their family status? This chapter will review what researchers have discovered about these questions and issues.

3.2 THE SPECIAL CIRCUMSTANCES OF SINGLE-PARENT FAMILIES

The impact of living in a single-parent family on children depend not only on the absence of a second parent, but hinge on many additional factors including:-

- Reason for the parental separation (death, divorce or desertion)
- Age of the child at the time of parental separation
- Personal relationship in one-parent household.(Hetherington, Camara and Featherman, 1984:4; Stedman, 1987:15).

3.2.1 REASONS FOR SINGLE-PARENTHOOD

Almost every family has problems as a normal part of living together. Many problems can be solved but some problems are difficult to solve. Unsolved problems may result in unhappiness and lead to a breakdown of the family. The following causes of the family breakdown will be

discussed: separation, divorce, death, desertion, occupational limitation and rejection of the parental role.

3.2.1.1 SEPARATION

According to the Pocket Oxford Dictionary the term separation refers to the legal arrangement by which a couple remains married but live apart. During their stay apart, the husband and wife try to resolve the problem that resulted in separation. They may reconcile and come back to stay together. Separation may end up in a divorce if there is no reconciliation. Research has proved that separation impacts negatively on parenting, especially single parenting.

3.2.1.2 DIVORCE

Divorce is also a major cause for single parenthood. When marriage is based on conditions other than love, divorce is bound to occur.

As marriage began to be seen more as a personal relationship designed to fulfil needs and ensure happiness and less as an institution necessary for survival, divorce has come to be viewed as a solution to an unhappy relationship that is not meeting at least one partner's needs. Acuff, Allen and Taylor (1973:144) argue that this has become the case as women enter the market place and earn enough to survive outside marriage. South and Spitze (1986:584) contend that the more hours a wife works and presumably the more money she makes, the more she is likely to divorce. The writers quoted in this paragraph see the becoming self-sufficient of women as a common cause of divorce, but this is not entirely true, - men are also causes of divorce. Glick(1984:206) sees divorce as the most common cause of single-parent households.

3.2.1.2.1 CHILDREN'S ADAPTATION TO DIVORCE

Divorce is the most common way for children to enter single-parent families (Hargreaves 1991:30). How well a child handles life in a single-parent family is considered the key to a child's functioning in other areas, such as school. When a child is under stress at home, his/her reactions

often spill over into school activities (Hargreaves 1991:31). A child's ability to cope with divorce depends in part on his/her age, past experience and range of development. Hargreaves (1991:31) suggests that a child's adjustment to changes in his/her family's structure may be easier when the following conditions exist:

- both parents continue to maintain a close relationship with the child,
- there is little conflict between the two parents
- the parents cooperate in consistent child rearing
- and support for each other is consistently available to the family. For instance, there could be less conflict when a man still fulfils some of his financial obligations.

Lowery and Settle (1985:267) support Hargreaves(1991:31) when they say that cooperative relationships between estranged parents enhance the adjustment of the children after divorce. Shared parental responsibilities contribute to the success of the binuclear family, where children are parented by separated spouses rather than by a single-parent.

The common knowledge is that divorce is extremely stressful and quite harmful to children's development. But this is not always the case. Demo and Acock (1988:643) cautioned that:

...it is simplistic and inaccurate to think of divorce as having uniform consequences for children... characteristic of families, on the other hand, are critical to youthful well-being.

From the above quotation it is evident that not all children are adversely affected by divorce. Divorce can actually help children from two-parent families where there was high marital conflict prior to the divorce by ending or reducing the family's hostilities and uncertainties. Peterson & Zill (1986:297) contend that high levels of marital conflict in intact families appeared to be as harmful as marital disruption itself. Children function better in one-parent or step-parent families than in conflict-ridden nuclear families. However, even when divorce is the best solution to a destructive family relationship, almost all children experience great pain during the divorce transition period.

Wilkinson (1977:207) explains the children of divorce as normal, healthy children who are confronted with an extremely stressful situation. Although marital conflict and instability cause a variety of behaviour problems and a need for psychological help in some children, most children of divorce do not need and do not get counseling, nor do they show especially high levels of behaviour problems (Hargreaves 1991:31). Wilkinson(1977:208) argues that it is when children are exposed to parental conflict, reduced economic resources, changes in parental availability and parenting style, and chaotic household routines that the adverse effects of divorce are multiplied. In general, most children and parents can cope with and adapt to the short-term crisis of divorce within a two to three year period if their situation is not compounded by continued or additional adversity.

Children can exhibit problems at different times either just before the marital separation or immediately following a parent's departure. Some children experience delayed stress reactions occurring years after divorce, especially in adolescence. Many children show a remarkable ability to cope with the transition and in the long term may actually be enhanced by their handling of change, while others suffer sustained developmental disruptions (Hargreaves 1991:32).

Most children manifest some problem behaviours and emotional upheaval immediately following their parents' divorce. Children commonly feel angry, resentful, anxious, depressed, and even guilty. Some children react by withdrawing from the crisis, and become restless, quite, or moody. Others react to the parental conflict by becoming disobedient, and by acting aggressively towards peers and adults (Wallerstein and Kelly, 1980:215). These and other reasons, have necessitated that a study on single parenthood be conducted.

Children's adaptation to divorce also depends on their personal characteristics, age, gender, available resources, subsequent life experiences, and personal relationships (Hargreaves, 1991:34). Some researchers argue that the ultimate outcome of divorce depends most on the nature and quality of a child's post-divorce living arrangements and on the complexity and duration of the changes that a child must go through during the divorce transition.

3.2.1.3 DEATH

Death is the severing of relationships and is an absolute finality. Until about two years of age (sensori motor stage) children lack any understanding of death and although the deceased is missed, this state is only temporary. During the years two to seven (pre-operational stage) the child forms a concept of death such as being reversible, sleeplike. At the end of this stage, death becomes personified and even frightening. At age seven to eleven (concept operational stage) death becomes a reality and the child is known to express anxiety at times at the possible death of a parent or close relative. It is only during adolescence that the concept of morality is grasped and death becomes real and a very real possibility (Van Den Aardweg and Van Den Aardweg, 1988:61).

Some cultures allow their children contact with death from a very early age. Other cultures feel young children are emotionally and cognitively too immature to be so exposed. The mutual reaction to death follows a five stage process namely denial and isolation, anger, bargaining, depression and finally acceptance (Van Den Aardweg and Van Den Aardweg , 1988:61).

In our violent world children from the youngest age may have many personal experiences with death from which they learn. The TV depicts death as almost a way of life. Access to newspapers, films and having the exciting ability of being able to read, brings the reality of death into the home. Sometimes death overtakes a peer, a member of the family or a child in another class or in the neighbourhood. Today the sight of a dead person is no longer so strange to many a child.

Van Den Aardweg and Van Den Aardweg (1988:61) contend that parents and teachers can help the child in such circumstances by:

- speaking about the inevitability of death.
- disclosing their belief (based on authority and not just an opinion or what one would like to believe) about death and the life hereafter.
- being responsive to the child and openly frank with questions

- helping the child cope with a funeral according to custom
- talking openly about the deceased.

Children do better when they are allowed to discuss the death openly and to express their emotions concerning the death. Adams (1980:129) contends that children's adaptation depends on the mother's ability to cope with the loss. It is, therefore, very important that the mother should be strong and face the loss of a spouse with confidence.

Children who experience the death of a parent tend to react by withdrawing and by showing heightened shyness and timidity (Burns, 1982:111). Very often a child whose parent has died does not know anyone else in the same situation and feels particularly isolated and "special" in a distressing way.

The problems that a parent encounters adjusting to single-parent life can greatly influence the adjustment of his/her children. Most of the differences observed in children from single-parent homes can be attributed to the increased social, emotional and financial stresses experienced by the custodial parents. According to "family restructuring" theory, the three most important factors which influence the adjustment of parents to life in a one-parent household are (Ihinger-Tallman, 1986:216):-

- parent's financial stability and security
- parent's capacity to learn new coping skills
- community resources and social support available to the family

3.2.1.4 DESERTION

Desertion is an informal means of ending a marriage. It involves the sudden withdrawal of one spouse from the family without the agreement of the other spouse and with no provision for financial support (Price-Bonham and Balswick, 1980:960). Legally, the marriage is still intact although desertion constitutes grounds for divorce in almost all states. The parent who remains with children assumes all the child care responsibilities.

3.2.1.5 OCCUPATIONAL LIMITATION

A home may be disrupted by occupational limitation. If the male figure is out of the home for prolonged periods of time because of his work, his influence as a model of male behaviour becomes minimal (Acuff, Allen and Taylor, 1973:101). This deprives children of a figure who depicts some social values. Military service, for instance, may require extended periods of separation from the home. Current occupations often require that the male be gone from home for extended periods of time. Some job descriptions specify that the male job holder is expected to be on the road for the company twenty days or more each month.

If the family lives in the suburbs or an urban area and the father commutes to work, he may leave early and return late. Thus, the mother continues to be the dominant influence in the lives of her school-age children. It is the mother who disciplines them, takes them to school, and to their social functions. The children do not see the father in his job situation and may have little comprehension of his function as a father or his importance as a producing agent in society. Suburban neo-matriarchy is the term often given to this extended influence of the mother in modern society (Acuff, Allen and Taylor, 1973:103). Whatever the cause, the marriage may break down because of the absence of the father.

3.2.1.6 REJECTION OF THE PARENTAL ROLE

A home may be broken if one or both parents refuse to play the role of the parent. The parent may be physically present but may be a neutral or negative model for the child. The alcoholic parent whose overwhelming concern is his ability to supply his drinking habit is an example. This parent spends a considerable amount of the family income on himself, does not accept the responsibility of child rearing or care, may often be abusive and consciously withdraws himself from meaningful interaction (Brubaker, 1993:130). By being present but not playing the appropriate role he becomes virtually a non-person to the child who is in search of a model for a parent. The parent role is virtually destroyed by the immersion of the parent in the drug culture. Family life and roles are virtually non-existent though one or both parents may be present with their children.

The parent might not play an active role due to laziness, mental illness, mental retardation, or invalidism (Acuff, Allen and Taylor, 1973:105). Any instance of not playing the parental role contributes to the disintegration of the family and thus results in a broken home.

3.3 CUSTODIAL PARENT/CHILD RELATIONSHIP

The capacity of the custodial parent to cope plays an important role in children's adjustment to divorce (Burns and Brassard, 1982:489). Some researchers have concluded that a parent's economic resources may be the most important adjustment factor (Hargreaves 1991:37). Gladow and Ray (1986:114) emphasize that a single parent's emotional health and ability to handle stress depend on the adequacy of his or her support networks. The fact is, the adequate availability of both economic resources and support networks helps a single parent to handle stress. The children of depressed, anxious, or dissatisfied parents are more likely to feel rejected and unhappy.

Children tend to have fewer behaviour problems after divorce when their custodial parent is able to provide a consistent, stable environment. Without daily love, discipline and guidance, children are ill-prepared to cope with such major life changes as divorce. Children perform better at home and at school when they have set routines, regular meals and an organized home life (Appel, 1985:238).

3.4 EDUCATIONAL ACHIEVEMENT OF SINGLE-PARENT CHILDREN

According to Burns and Brassard(1982:490) children raised in one-parent families have an increased risk of poor academic achievement. Life in a single parent family seems to affect a child's school performance adversely as well as their total educational attainment. Stedman (1987:19) contends that relatively little of the harm is directly caused by the absence of one parent. Instead, much more of the problem is associated with the family's lack of income and related stresses that typically accompany a parent's absence.

Life with a single parent means lower income level and this lowers a child's academic achievement to a relatively small though real extent. Blechman (1982: 185) argues that the low income level of single-parent families accounts for nearly all the total harm associated with one-parent status. On the other hand, Henderson (1986:406) contends that family member attitudes towards education and the ways in which family members relate to each other in a single parent household have great influence on child's achievement than do family background characteristics. Both the low income level and family member attitudes towards education have a great influence on child's achievement.

Hargreaves (1991:42) contends that children from single-parent families complete fewer years of school on average than children from two-parent families, even when family background factors such as family income, ethnicity, and parent's education are taken into account. Males from two-parent families are twice as likely to finish college education as males from one-parent families (Krein, 1986:163). This failure noticed in single-parent children may be caused in part by the fact that they have more difficulty adapting their behaviour to teacher expectations than two-parent children (Hargreaves, 1991:43).

Children from single-parent families have more household chores than two-parent families' children (Amato 1987:335). These additional duties may reduce the time these children have for homework and studies. Some children in low-income single-parent families sometimes work after school and during weekends to supplement their family income. These part-time jobs necessarily leave less time for homework. Many single-parent children may also quit high school early in order to earn money for their families. The behaviour described above contribute to the low school performance of children from single-parent families.

3.5 PROBLEMS ASSOCIATED WITH SINGLE-PARENTHOOD

The following are some of the problems that beset single-parent households:-

Children who live apart from one or both parents are more likely to drop out of high school, marry and reproduce in their teens, and form single-parent families themselves through marital disruption or non-marital births. Such outcomes increase the risk of long-term poverty and economic dependence (McLanahan, 1991:201).

The parent has to work and so places the children in another person's care. Thus the parent-child relationship diminishes since the working parent spends most of the time away from children. Personality problems may develop.

Too early independence is encouraged or too little independence is allowed, so the child is unused to confront and deal with challenges. Wallerstein and Kelly (1980:220) contend that those children in the six to eight age group seem to have the hardest time, as they see what is happening but lack the adequate skills to deal with the disruption. They frequently feel a sense of responsibility, experience tremendous grief, and have a pervasive sadness and yearning for the departed parent.

The mother usually bears the total responsibility for children which culminates in a responsibility overload. There is a task overload with innumerable jobs, household and parental demands and many activities the father used to undertake. This tremendous task overload experienced by the single mother diminishes her ability to adjust in all areas (Ahrons, 1981:419; Hetherington, Cox and Cox, 1978:257). As the single-parent fails to adjust in all areas, the child's school performance is affected.

There is an emotional overload. The parent is often isolated and has no one with whom to share and loneliness may result. Everett (1989:96) writes:

Loneliness is a big problem, as the spouses may feel unable to seek new friendships because of their fear and humiliation.

From the above citation it is evident that single-parents are often lonely. Friends of a single-parent before being single often fade away. People who are, for instance, not widows are afraid to

make friends with widows. As a result of becoming a single parent, one has to seek new friends. Therefore a single parent is often without anyone to share his/her problems while still trying to make new friends. There is also little time for social friendship as a result of task overload.

There is domestic disorganization with bedtimes and mealtimes erratic, children are more likely to arrive late for school. Adjustment problems at school occur, demonstrated by restless, obstinate, disruptive and impulsive behaviour. Everett (1989:91) confirms this when she writes:

In the turmoil of parental divorce, they may regress developmentally in a number of ways including separation anxiety, sleep disturbances, bed wetting, clinginess, fear of any leave-taking, and aggressive fantasies.

The above quotation enumerates the disturbances caused by the divorce of parents to their children. If these reactions are not attended to immediately they can interfere with the child's healthy development and hence their school performance. This can also interfere with the healthy development of the child's sexual identity as well. When this occurs, the child may become vulnerable to sexual acting-out behaviour in adolescence.

Discipline is often inconsistent. Managing teenagers is difficult, even when a marriage is intact. Hetherington (1982:3) contends that handling adolescents without the support of the other spouse compounds difficulty, especially for mothers with sons, who may accept the myth that boys can only be controlled by 'men', or the psychoanalytic myth that the mother-son relationship is prone to becoming eroticized without the husband/father around. The mother feels inadequate, incompetent, struggles with her self-esteem and is psychologically fragile. The following paragraphs will discuss measures that can be adopted by schools to enhance the academic performance of children from single parent families.

3.6 EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

As societal changes are experienced, schools must now anticipate having more learners from

single-parent, low-income families. Consideration for individual needs of these children, and their families as well must be given priority as continued focus is placed upon education reform. Through this alignment, a greater number of children and their parents can be facilitated in an effective manner toward the end goals and enhanced adjustment processes and subsequent and continued well-being. Parents and children who have achieved these goals are more likely to contribute to and experience academic and personal successes that will be of benefit to society at large.

Drake and Shallenberger (1981:60) suggest that educators should have special training to deal effectively with the problems of children from divorced or single-parent families. What Drake and Shallenberger (1981:60) suggest would help educators have a better understanding of children from single-parent families. It would enable educators to easily detect children with problems and know exactly how to help them.

Teachers should know their students and there should be a healthy teacher-student relationship (Van Den Aardweg and Van Den Aardweg, 1988:61). Teachers should thus be approachable and be easily appealed to for help and guidance. The teacher should be sensitive to the peculiar needs of the child from a single-parent family. A teacher's attention, empathy, tolerance, patience and consistency are valuable.

Direct services can be provided through individual and group counseling. Individual counseling provided by school guidance personnel or by referral as appropriate, may be child focused or systematically oriented. Williams (1984:27) contends that a mediation approach, with focus upon obtaining parental co-operation in helping the child, is effective. This emphasises the fact that educator-parent co-operation in helping the child enhances the child's academic performance.

Counseling groups, in and out of school environment, may facilitate the adjustment of children as well. When difficulties are noted by school personnel, children may be referred to groups focusing upon coping during the crises period, stress, management, facing and dealing with losses,

facilitating self-disclosure, and communication skills.

Parental involvement and referral to appropriate service providers may also indirectly enhance the well-being of children in the school environment.

3.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter has examined the impacts that living in a single-parent family has on children on their academic development. It has looked at the special circumstances of single-parent families, the relationship between the child and the custodial parent, educational achievement of single-parent children, problems associated with single-parenthood and educational implications. The next chapter will concentrate on the role of single-parents in the education of their children.

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CHAPTER FOUR

THE ROLE OF SINGLE-PARENTS IN THE EDUCATION OF THEIR CHILDREN

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter sketched the impacts that living in a single parent family has on children and on their academic development. This chapter discusses the role of single parents in children's development and their involvement in school education.

4.2 THE ROLE OF PARENTS IN CHILD DEVELOPMENT

Parents play an important role in their children's development. One of their chief concerns is to help their children develop normally. Galinsky (1987:78) asserts that the word normal has two meanings as applied to child development. One meaning concerns the absence of physical and mental disorders that are considered abnormal in most societies. These disorders include epilepsy, schizophrenia and spastic paralysis.

The second meaning of normal concerns the degree to which a child possesses certain skills or traits that the child's particular society values. Galinsky (1987:79) maintains that children are regarded as normal in the sense of the word if they compare favourably with the majority of children in developing a valued trait or skill. In every society, normal development includes learning to communicate, to get along with other people, and act intelligently and responsibly (Maier, 1968:32). These skills and traits are essential to group living, and so all parents are expected to help their children develop them.

Other skills and traits are valued only by particular societies. In industrialised countries, for example, children are expected to learn how to read and write. A child who fails to acquire these skills may be considered as abnormal. In developing countries on the other hand, many children never attend school. Instead, they may be assigned farm or household chores. These children are regarded as normal if they acquire the necessary farm or household skills. They are not considered

abnormal if they cannot read and write. In some societies, particularly those in the West, such personality traits as competitiveness and independence are encouraged. In other societies these traits are considered abnormal and so are discouraged.

The role of parents varies according to the skills and personality traits that children are expected to develop. The role of parents also varies according to the needs of children at different stages of their development and according to the different needs of individual children.

4.3 HOW PARENTS CAN BEST PROMOTE THEIR CHILDREN'S DEVELOPMENT

Most parents use rewards and punishment to teach their children standards of behaviour. They reward children for desired action and punish them for undesired ones. A word of praise or a hug is usually a sufficient reward. Punishment usually consists of a strong no or a light lap. Gradually a child learns that some actions are good and some are bad. In most cases, however, it is the parent who must decide the goodness or badness of an action.

Elkin (1960:58) contends that mothers and fathers can best promote the development of their children in three major ways. They can do so by:

1. Understanding the child's basic needs;
2. Motivating the child's behaviour;
3. Serving as models of appropriate behaviour.

4.3.1 UNDERSTANDING A CHILD'S BASIC NEEDS

All children have certain basic physical and psychological needs. Both sets of needs must be met if the child is to develop normally. Poor physical health may harm a child's psychological development and psychological problems may affect a child physically.

4.3.1.1 Basic Physical Needs

Children need regular nourishing meals, proper clothing, and a clean comfortable home. They also require a reasonable amount of play and exercise and enough space to play in. Also, children who learn good health habits and standard safety practices reduce the risk of diseases and accidents.

4.3.1.2 Basic Psychological Needs

Basic psychological needs are determined by the skills and personality traits that a child is expected to develop. Some skills and traits are encouraged in every society. All children therefore have certain basic psychological needs. Toddlers, for example, need to develop self-confidence, and so they must feel loved, wanted, and respected. Toddlers should also have enough variety in their routine to help them develop language skills (Maier, 1968:81). Preschoolers especially need close contact with adults they like and admire (Blau, 1981:102). Such contacts help promote normal emotional development.

4.3.2 MOTIVATING THE CHILD'S BEHAVIOUR

Parents motivate a child when they encourage the child to adopt a certain type of behaviour. Persistent misbehaviour should be punished. But punishment should be just. Children will understandably be upset if they are punished for behaviour that they continually see in their parents. Parents should try to motivate children without making them think they are being manipulated (Elkin, 1960:17). Instead, children should be made feel that they were personally responsible for improvements in their behaviour.

Rewards and punishments work in cases that are not complicated by other factors. Children whose parents regularly encourage schoolwork are more likely to succeed in school than children who lack such encouragement. A child who is taught to control aggression is less likely to become bully than a child who is not taught such a control. Motivation is not always effective however, because other factors also influence a child's behaviour. For example, children cannot be motivated to learn to read if they believe they lack the ability. Parents may also be unable to

motivate a child who feels resentful or hostile toward them.

4.3.3 SERVING AS MODEL OF APPROPRIATE BEHAVIOUR

Children model themselves largely on their parents. They do so mainly through identification (Blau, 1981:104). Children identify with a parent when they believe they have the qualities and feelings that are characteristic of that parent. The things parents do and say, and the way they do and say them therefore strongly influence a child's behaviour. However, parents must consistently behave like the type of person they want their child to become.

A parent's action also affects the self-image that children form through identification. Children who see mainly positive qualities in their parents will probably learn to see themselves in a positive way. Children who observe chiefly negative qualities in their parents will have difficulty seeing positive qualities in themselves. Children may modify their self-image, however, as they become increasingly influenced by peer group standards during pre-teenage years.

Isolated events, even dramatic ones, do not necessarily have a permanent effect on a child's behaviour. According to Clausen (1968:49) children interpret such event according to their established attitudes and previous training. For example, children who know they are loved can accept the divorce of their parents or a parent's early death. But if children feel unloved, they may interpret such events as a sign of rejection or punishment.

In the same way, not all children are influenced alike by toys and games, reading matter, and television programmes. As in the case of a dramatic change in family relations, the effect of an activity or experience depends on how the child interprets it. Each child's interpretation, in return, depends on the child's standard of behaviour (Hetherington, Cox and Cox, 1978:42). For instance, violent behaviour on television may heighten the aggressive tendencies of a child who considers such behaviour permissible. Children are less likely to be influenced by television violence if they have learned that violent behaviour is wrong. In the end, the day-to-day behaviour of parents themselves has a powerful influence on their children than isolated events and experiences. However, in the case of single-parent families children have to identify with one

gender, male or female. It becomes a problem to have boys, for instance, identifying with a female parent.

4.4 SINGLE-PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT IN SCHOOL EDUCATION

Parents and schools work together to enhance education of children. Schools and parents need to communicate regarding children's performance at school. Parents consider their children's education important. They want to be kept informed of their children's progress in school and to be involved in their children's education. The following paragraph explains ways of communication between schools and parents.

4.4.1 HOW SCHOOLS COMMUNICATE WITH PARENTS

School educators use different means of communication with parents. Some of the ways of communication used are the report cards, notices, parent-educator conferences and news letters. Parents also meet educators at school activities and during the school governing body meetings. In some cases verbal messages are sent through learners to parents.

4.4.2 PERSONAL CONTACT BETWEEN PARENTS AND EDUCATORS

Normally personal contact between parents and educators occurs during school hours. This is usually inconvenient for a working single-parent since he/she has to stay away from his/her work place in order to visit the school. Parent's meetings in some schools are held during day time. This day time meeting is convenient for those parents who are not working but inconvenient for working parents, many of whom are single-parents. The absence of electricity in some schools makes it difficult for the school officials to arrange evening activities and parents' meeting to accommodate working parents. Personal contact between working single-parents and educators remains a problem in many schools.

Hargreaves (1991:74) is of the opinion that parents are involved in schools in three different ways: volunteering for school parents; assisting their children's learning at home; and serving in parent-

educator organisations and parent advisory councils. This does not, however, apply to all parents in all communities. In Black schools, especially those in rural areas, parents still do not understand their involvement in their children's education. As a result parents are paid for any kind of services done for the school. It is very rare to find parents volunteering to help in rural schools. Most parents hardly check on their children's school work and they do not even worry about encouraging their children to do homework.

4.4.3 PARENTS AS VOLUNTEERS FOR SCHOOL PROJECTS

It is very important that parents and educators be in close contact and co-operation. This enhances child's school performance. Parents can get acquainted with teachers by helping with extramural activities, sport, fundraising, transport and being involved in the school maintenance programme. This is not always possible for single parents. Even if they are willing, they cannot afford time to visit schools. The reason is that most of them are working to maintain their households.

4.4.4 PARENTS AS TUTORS

Parental involvement appears to be beneficial to children's performance and adjustment to school. According to Hargreaves (1991:75) for preschool and elementary school children, parental involvement most enhances school achievement when parents directly tutor their children and monitor their homework. In elementary and middle school grades and beyond, an effective parent role is that of supplementing the child's school work with cultural and recreational experience.

For many parents it is still not clear why it is necessary for them to get involved in their children's school education. For these parents school education is the work for educators who are trained for this work. Thus, educators have a tremendous task to encourage parents to help their children with school work at home. In some cases parents cannot read and write, so learners get no parental help in their homework assignments. Thus educators have yet another task to suggest an alternative if every learner has to get parental help in his/her homework.

4.4.5 PARENT ADVOCACY

Another aspect of parental involvement is parent participation in school policy issues, again an area where single-parents have time and resource constraints. In some districts, the school governing body and parents meet at an inconvenient time. Even when meetings are held during the evening, child care is rarely provided. Some single parents do not have any extra time or energy to follow school politics, and so are at a disadvantage - should they wish to speak out on certain topics.

4.4.6 THE POSSIBILITIES FOR PARENTS TO BECOME DIRECTLY OR INDIRECTLY INVOLVED IN SCHOOL

Berger (1987:96) is of the opinion that parents can play an important part as :

- * Spectators who merely observe what the school as the authority figure does with their children.
- * Accessory volunteers (or audience) who provide treats and create parties with involvement geared only to a specific time and task after which they withdraw from educational environment to await the next assignment.
- * Resources (workers in the classroom) in the schools' instructional programme, developing resource materials and curriculum ideas or occasionally sharing their expertise.
- * Policy makers (participators) whose decisions directly affect the schools their own children attend.
- * Teachers of and the one continuous force in the education of their children from birth to adulthood. Some schools use parents as teacher aids, depending on their qualifications and availability. Qualified adults and former teachers frequently

substitute for teachers while they attend professional meetings and conferences or when they are out sick. Parents frequently assist in the lunch room at noon time and help with playground and classroom activities.

Time and resources constraints seem to be the major things that hamper the involvement of single parents in education of their children. Some single parents may be willing to be involved in education in the manner suggested by Berger (1987:95-96) in the paragraphs above, but cannot afford time. Many parents, especially in Black communities, are illiterate. These parent, even if time permits, are not fully involved in their children's education.

4.5 PARENT-EDUCATOR CONFLICTS

Single parents may find it difficult to meet educators' expectations. On the other hand some educators do not understand single-parent family situations. Failure to understand the single-parent family situations results to conflicts between parents and educators. Hargreaves (1991:78) says:

“Single parents find it difficult to participate in their children's education, while schools have not been sensitive to their time and resource”.

From the above extract it is evident that the situation of single-parent families is not always taken into consideration by schools when planning their activities. Single parents do not always afford to meet teachers' expectations. They are also not always able to provide what is needed by the school due to their scarce resources. For example, some single parents do not always have time to check and assist their children with homework.

Working single parents may also not be able to take time off work to attend day time educators conferences. Epstein (1984:52) asserts that single parents recognise that they do not always have time and energy to do everything teachers expect of them. This implies that single-parents are aware of their insufficiency in as far as involvement in school education is concerned. But this does not reduce conflict between them and educators since some educators do not understand single parent family situations. For example, when educators see undone homework assignment

and non-attendance at parent/teacher conferences they attribute that to single parent's apparent neglect of their children's education (Burns and Brassard, 1982:487).

4.6 HOW TO INCREASE SINGLE-PARENT INVOLVEMENT IN SCHOOL EDUCATION

4.6.1 MINUTES FOR MEETINGS SHOULD BE MADE AVAILABLE FOR PARENTS UNABLE TO ATTEND

Schools should make minutes for meetings available for parents who are unable to attend meetings. These minutes can be sent through learners to parents or in some cases be posted. This would keep even single parents updated on school matters.

4.6.2 SCHOOL GOVERNING BODY AND PARENT-EDUCATOR ORGANIZATION MEETING TIMES SHOULD BE MADE MORE CONVENIENT

Besides making minutes for meetings available for parents, times during which the school governing body and parent-educator organization meet should be made more convenient. Most working single parents are unable to attend meetings because of time constraints. To many of the single parents evening time is more convenient for holding meetings.

4.6.3 CHILD CARE SHOULD BE ARRANGED DURING MEETINGS

Some single parents have young children who cannot be left alone in the house when the parent attends the meeting. This necessitates that child care be provided during meetings.

4.6.4 SCHOOLS SHOULD LET PARENTS KNOW IN ADVANCE ABOUT IMPORTANT EVENTS

Many single parents are willing to support their children's school on school projects but cannot afford due to short notices given to them. Some of these notices reach parents during times when

some parents have no money. In the case of a single-parent where there is no one immediate to turn to for financial assistance, short notices are frustrating. Schools should let parents know in advance about important events so that they can budget time and money.

4.7 **CONCLUSION**

This chapter has sketched some important ways in which single parents and school can better work together to improve the education of children. The next chapter discusses in detail the design and the method of investigation and the empirical investigation. It will also describe how data is collected, the selection of subjects, a plan for organisation and analysis of data and how field work will be carried out.

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CHAPTER FIVE

EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter has discussed the role of single parents in their children's development and their involvement in school education. It sketched some important ways in which single parents and educators can better work together to improve the children's education. This chapter describes the research technique used, analyses and evaluates data collected. Relevant interpretation of data is also done in this chapter.

5.2 DESCRIPTION OF RESEARCH TECHNIQUE

The Oxford Paperback Dictionary defines 'technique' as a method of doing something, and 'method' as a procedure or way of doing something. To collect information on the role of single-parents in the education of their children, which is the focus of this study, questionnaires as a method were used. The researcher decided to use questionnaires to save time since she is a full time worker.

A questionnaire can be described as a series of written questions on a specific subject which requires answers from a person (Mouly, 1978:193). It is a form that is compiled and distributed among people in the research group. It is a systematic collection of questions sent to a universe to obtain a sample. A questionnaire seeks information, opinions, attitudes and interests of the respondents in the area being investigated. A questionnaire is designed in such a way that it answers specific research goals. Each question should therefore be carefully formulated. A questionnaire should not be evaluated globally, but each question must be carefully weighed to determine whether the response will help to provide the best answer to the research problem. Olivier (1992:103) puts the following guidelines for an effective questionnaire.

(i) Neatness and Conciseness

The questionnaire should be attractive, brief, and as easy as possible to fill in. A questionnaire that is untidy, lengthy and asks for detailed and difficult answers is usually not answered, it therefore fails to meet the researcher's needs.

(ii) Each item should be clear and unambiguous.

The wording of questions should be clear and unambiguous. The terminology used should be within the range of the person's vocabulary.

(iii) The questionnaire should be as comprehensive as possible.

Although concise, the questionnaire should be as comprehensive as possible to avoid omitting relevant and essential information.

(iv) Clear instructions should be given

Instructions should be given clearly at the beginning of the questionnaire. Where necessary, important terms should be explained. People should know exactly what is expected of them and how to fill in the questionnaire.

(v) Each item should deal with only one idea.

It is imperative that each item deal with only one specific idea. Two different concepts or ideas in one question will confuse people and they will probably give the wrong response.

(vi) Questions should be objective

Researchers should phrase questions as objectively as possible. They should not hint at or suggest the type of answer they expect from people. Avoid questions that tend to

channel respondents' thoughts in a particular direction.

(vii) Questions should move from the general to the specific

Questions should follow a certain psychological order : from the general to the specific. This helps respondents to arrange their thoughts. The first few questions can either win or lose their favour, and will determine their attitude to the questionnaire. Delicate questions can follow later.

(viii) Questions can be categorised

Items can be arranged in such a way that subjects fall into certain categories. This will guide the respondent's thinking and unconsciously confine it to certain topics. He or she will also find it easier to do justice to each category of questions and to answer them more accurately.

(ix) Avoid descriptive qualifiers

Words such as often, sometimes, seldom, and so on, should be avoided. They tend to channel people's ideas in a specific direction and this is not conducive to objective responses. Try to be unbiased.

(x) Responses should be easy to tabulate, summarise and interpret

Researchers should visualise beforehand how they are going to process data. This will help to eliminate ambiguities.

(xi) Make provision for adequate code numbers

If computers are used to process data, provision should be made for adequate code numbers to cover all possible answers. This will facilitate conversion to computer or

punch cards.

(xii) Post-paid envelopes

If it is necessary, include post paid envelopes to make it easier for people to react to questionnaires.

In addition to these guidelines, a good questionnaire should also satisfy certain criteria. Tuckman (1978:197) cites the following three essential criteria.

- a) To what extent does the question influence people to put themselves in a good light?
- b) To what extent does a question influence people to react in a way that they think the researcher wants them to?
- c) To what extent does a question ask for information of which the person is himself/herself unsure?

The validity of the questionnaire is determined by these three criteria. It is important to determine whether a questionnaire measures what it is supposed to measure. The nature of the questionnaire will also determine the nature of the validity procedures. The validity of a particular item should be regarded in the context of the validity of the questionnaire as a whole.

Questions should be phrased such that they help people to reveal what the researcher wants to know without feeling obliged to give an answer that they think will satisfy the researcher. Each question should be checked beforehand to ensure that the answer will help the researcher to find the correct answer to the research problem.

Kerlinger (1986:444-445) sets the following criteria for each question:

- (i) Is the type of question related to the research goal and research problem?
- (ii) Is the type of question appropriate?

- (iii) Does the question in any way suggest what the answer should be?
- (iv) Does the question require knowledge and information that the person does not possess?
- (v) Does the question contain sensitive material that could elicit resistance from the person?

The important point here is that a question should be as clear, relevant, simple and unambiguous as possible. Each question should contain only one idea.

The arrangement of items in a questionnaire is partly determined by the nature of the items. If contentious or delicate items appear at the beginning, people tend to be put off. It is therefore preferable to ask general questions first and then move on to specific ones. Questions that tend to be less threatening should be asked first.

The researcher can draw up certain categories beforehand and then distribute the questions evenly over the whole questionnaire. He or she can later regroup the questions into the various categories for processing. The questionnaire used in this study comprises of both closed and open-ended questions which are grouped into five categories.

Closed or structured questions are definite, concrete, predetermined in terms of items and has additional questions to clarify inadequate answers or to elicit more detailed responses (Mlondo 1987:81). Closed questions are categorised and they are referred to as a checklist which the respondent checks, like listing frequency of performance of certain duties by single parents. Such questions provide categorised data that facilitates evaluation and summarising. Open-ended questions invite free response. Data collected goes beyond factual material by including hidden motivation lying behind attitudes, interests, preferences and decisions. The amount of space provided determines the length and fullness of the answer required.

In this work the questionnaire was divided into five sections : Section A being the biographical data. Biographical information included sex, age; marital status; level of education; sources of income; type of work; gross monthly income; working hours; type of employment; time the single

parent leaves for work and time he/she returns home. Section B aimed at finding information about the single parents' responsibility with regard to home education. Section C was on single parents and their children's school education : an analysis of responsibilities. Section D sought to get information on single parents and their children's forming of relationships with the outside world. The last section, Section E, was aimed at getting information on single parents' financial responsibilities. All the sections of the questionnaire aimed at covering all aims stated in chapter one; and more importantly the researcher had the topic in mind.

5.3 SELECTION OF THE SAMPLE

A sample is a representative of the population with subset elements from the population. For a sample to be truly presentative the analysis made on its elements should produce results equivalent to those as would be obtained if the entire population had been used (Helmastadter 970:52). Gay (1981:85) affirms this when he defines sampling as follows:

“Sampling is the process of selecting a number of individuals for a study in such a way that the individuals represent the group from which they are selected.”

From the foregoing quotation it is evident that the main principle is that the sample must be representative of the population, which means that any conclusions drawn from the research apply to the population.

Samples are either biased or unbiased. Biased samples either over estimate or underestimate parameters. Unbiased samples do neither of these. Sax (1979:45) refers to a parameter as a corresponding value. Unbiased samples are selected by simple random sampling, stratified random sampling, systematic sampling and cluster sampling.

A simple random sample is a sample where every member of the population has an equal chance of being included in the sample (Mlondo, 1987:83). The researcher first assigns a number to each member of the population. He/she then enters a table of random numbers and selects the numbers of individuals to be included in the sample by moving in any predetermined direction.

In stratified random sampling the population is divided into a number of strata with homogeneous variables within each stratum. A separate sample is selected within each stratum from all sampling units comprising that stratum. A sample is selected in such a way that identified subgroups in the population are represented. Deviations are also calculated separately within each subgroup and properly weighted before being added to a combined estimate for the population (Kish, 1995:67). Merits of stratified sampling are that sampling is effective as it takes advantage of whatever information is known about the characteristics of the population. Sampling errors arise only within strata and not between strata. The selection of cases within each stratum can be done in different ways and in different proportions.

A systematic random sample is selected by counting every-nth person, that is, every third, fourth, or nineteenth persons in a structured sample. Much labour is saved since tabling random becomes unnecessary if population elements are listed. It ensures a broad sampling throughout the population thereby providing a more accurate sample.

Clustering refers to methods of selection in which the sampling unit and the unit of selection contains more than one population element, making the sampling unit a cluster of elements. It recognizes in the sampling design some features observable in the physical distributions of the population and to its selection frame (Kish, 1965:69). The researcher starts by sampling areas or clusters of elements after which he/she samples elements within the clusters (Sax, 1979:88). Each cluster is as variable as possible with regard to the attributes being investigated and the differences between clusters should be as homogeneous as possible. Whereas stratified sampling maximises differences between strata and minimises differences within each stratum, cluster sampling minimises differences between clusters and maximises differences within each cluster. This increases the standard deviation within each cluster and, in order to increase accuracy the researcher should select a larger number of cases (Sax, 1979:89).

A cluster sample is less expensive and less precise than a systematic sample. Helmstadter (1970:55) says that the loss of precision can be minimised if individual elements within the cluster are sufficiently heterogenous to represent the entire range of the population under study.

In this study random sampling was used. The researcher listed single parents from Mthunzini District. Each member on the list was assigned a number. The researcher then selected numbers of people to be included in the sample by moving in any predetermined direction. This method of sampling meant that all members on the list had equal chances of being selected. The researcher involved 150 single parents.

5.4 PILOT STUDY

A pilot study is conducted before the questionnaire is finalised and duplicated. The purpose of conducting a pilot study is to determine whether the questionnaire will supply the type of information required. The researcher should personally give the questionnaire to a small group of people. They can then give the researcher feedback on problems they might have experienced with the questionnaire. Their comments on formulations will be significant, because these will help to eliminate ambiguities. If the researcher used questionnaires, validation in terms of their use should be ascertained through a try-out (Good, 1972:234).

The advantages of a pilot study as cited by Borg and Gall (1981:101) are that it:

- permits a thorough check of the planned and statistical and analytical procedures, thus allowing an appraisal of their adequacy in treating the data.
- provides the research worker with ideas, approaches and clues not foreseen prior to pilot study. Such ideas and clues greatly increase the chances of obtaining clear and reliable findings in the main study.
- attempts to determine whether questionnaire items meet the desired qualities of measurement and discrimination.

Khubisa (1995:209) contends that the less research experience one has, the more he/she will benefit from pilot study. This contention prompted the current researcher to conduct a pilot study.

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The pilot study for this study was conducted with a sample of twenty single parents from Esikhawini Apostolic Faith Mission Church. These parents gave their comments on the pilot study verbally. This helped the researcher to discover some ambiguities. Some questions were either omitted or rephrased. The researcher initially thought that she would exclude teenage single parents because of their possibility to get married. But after comments from the pilot study sample the researcher changed her mind. The researcher admits that a pilot study is essential in that it refines questionnaires.

5.5 RETURNED AND SPOILED QUESTIONNAIRES

The researcher decided to involve 150 respondents in the sample for this study. So one hundred and fifty questionnaires were personally distributed by the researcher to 150 respondents. The researcher collected completed questionnaires in person. All the 150 questionnaires were returned and there were no spoiled questionnaires.

5.6 PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

The respondents responded by either marking with a cross (X) in the blocks provided or by giving explanations in spaces provided where necessary.

SECTION A : BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

5.6.1 SEX

MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
No	%	No	%	No	%
25	16,7	125	83,3	150	100

Out of 150 respondents 83,3% were females and 16,7% were males. The researcher could not get equal numbers of single female parents and single male parents. The reason for this might be that males generally do not stay single for a long time, even if widowed. He stays single for a short period of time and then sought a replacement for the deceased wife. In a case where a child is

born by unmarried couple, the child usually stays with the mother and not the father. And so the female does lone parenting.

5.6.2 AGE RANGE

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Less than 15 years	-	-	2	1,6	2	1,3
15-25 Years	-	-	19	15,2	19	12,7
26 - 35 Years	4	16	48	38,4	52	34,7
36 - 45 years	8	32	39	31,2	47	31,3
Over 45 years	13	52	17	13,6	30	20,0
TOTAL	25	100	125	100	150	100

The table shows 1,6% very young single mothers and no young father of less than 15 years. May be this was because girls mature at an earlier age than boys. The researcher did not get single parent fathers between 15 years and 25 years. This does not suggest that adolescent boys do not pregnant girls but the results may be as shown above for the reason that babies commonly remain with female parents. The highest percentage of single female parents belong to the age of 26 years to 35 years. The ratio of single parent males to single parent females in the interval 36 years - 45 years is 32:31,2. There is no significant difference between the ratios, may be this is due to the fact that both males and females are assuming similar roles (Greif, 1985:4).

5.6.3 MARITAL STATUS

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Separated	3	12	7	5,6	10	6,7
Divorced	10	40	9	7,2	19	12,7
Widowed	8	32	48	38,4	56	37,3
Never married	4	16	61	48,8	65	43,3
TOTAL	25	100	125	100	150	100

The table reveals that 48,8% of single female parents was never married. This is the highest percentage in this table. One of the reasons for the high number of never married female parents is the high rate of pregnancy in teenage girls. The never married single parents formed the greater portion of the population studied. The widowed females formed 38,4% as against 32% widowed males. The difference might be high because of the fact males commonly do not remain single for a long period, but they remarry. 12% of male single parents were separated and 40% were divorced. 5,6% single female parents were separated and 7,2% were divorced. The highest percentage of male single parents were divorces.

5.6.4 LEVEL OF EDUCATION

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Never been to school	3	12	7	5,6	10	6,7
Grade 1 - Grade 4	2	8	3	2,4	5	3,3
Grade 5 - Grade 7	1	4	9	7,2	10	6,7
Grade 8 - Grade 10	5	20	15	12	20	13,3
Grade 11 - Grade 12	6	24	49	39,2	55	36,7
Tertiary education (Diploma/Degree)	8	32	42	33,2	50	33,3
TOTAL	25	100	125	100	150	100

From the table above 6,7% single parents had never been to school; 3,3% single parents were between grade 1 and grade 4; 6,7% respondents were between grade 8 and grade 10; 36,7% were between grade 11 and grade 12; and 33,3% had tertiary education. The highest percentage of single parents (that is, 36,7%) had been to school up to grade 12. This might be partly caused by the attitude of many parents who regarded grade 12 as the highest level of education necessary for their children to get employment. Another reason might be the fact that adolescent parents had to take responsibility of looking after their own children and hence had to leave school early.

5.6.5 SOURCE OF INCOME

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Employment	16	64	97	77,6	113	75,3
Self-employment	5	20	09	7,2	14	9,3
Pension	2	08	05	4,0	07	4,7
Other (parents)	2	08	14	11,2	16	10,7
TOTAL	25	100	125	100	150	100

The table indicates that 75,3% single parents were employed, 9,3% self employed; 4,7 single parents were pensioners and 10,7% single parents were not employed and these parents got financial help from their parents. From the table it is evident that most single parents were working and this implied staying away from home most of the time.

5.6.6 WORK TYPE

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Domestic	3	14,3	38	35,8	41	32,3
Industrial	10	47,6	22	20,8	32	25,2
Nursing	1	4,8	19	17,9	20	15,7
Teaching	7	33,3	27	25,5	34	26,8
Other	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	21	100	106	100	127	100

Out of 25 single male parents only 4 were neither employed nor self-employed. 14,3% male single parents were domestic workers; 47,6% were industrial workers 4,8% male single parents were nurses; and 33,3% were in the teaching profession. The highest percentage of male single parents joined industry before or after obtaining grade 12 certificate. This was because the majority of our

youth became parents before reaching tertiary education and hence were labourers in industries.

Out of 125 female respondents 19 were neither employed nor self-employed. Some got financial assistance from their parents and others were pensioners. 35,8% single females were domestic workers. Domestic workers formed the highest percentage of all respondents. It is not easy for a person when he/she has assumed parental responsibility before attaining grade 12 to go beyond this grade in his/her education and this person is, therefore, likely to work in industries or else be a domestic worker.

5.6.7 GROSS MONTHLY INCOME

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Less than R100	-	-	-	-	-	-
R200 - R500	-	-	13	11,3	13	9,4
R1000 - R1500	6	26,1	43	37,4	49	35,5
R1 500 - R2 000	4	17,4	22	19,1	26	18,9
Over R2 000	13	56,5	37	32,2	50	36,2
TOTAL	23	100	115	100	138	100

Out of 150 respondents 12 said that they did not have monthly income because they were not employed. These single parents depended on their parents for financial assistance. 9,4% single parents earned between R200 and R500 and these were mainly females - no single parents had a gross monthly income of less than R100. 35,5% earned between R1 000 and R1 500; 8,9% earned between R1 500 and R2 000; and 36,2% earned over R2 000. It is remarkable that the larger percentage of single male parents earned over R2000 whereas the larger percentage of single female parents earned between R1 000 and R1 500. Perhaps the difference in salaries was due to the different levels of education or to the difference in places of work. For example, a person working in a shop may not earn the same salary as for another person working in an industry even if their level of education is the same. Most females become parents before reaching grade 12 in their education and thus end up working as domestic servants earning very little.

5.6.8 WORKING HOURS

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Less than 20 hours	-	-	3	2,8	3	2,4
21 - 30 hours	1	4,8	6	5,7	7	5,5
31 - 40 hours	3	14,3	16	15,1	19	14,9
41 - 50 hours	7	33,3	24	22,6	31	24,4
51 hours or more	10	47,6	57	53,8	67	52,8
TOTAL	21	100	106	100	127	100

The table indicates that 47,6% single male parents and 53,8% single female parents worked for 51 hours or more per week. This implies that single parents spent more time away from their children. Some domestic workers lived at their places of work. These parents only saw their children during weekends or month-ends, or when they were on leave. Very few of the industrial workers saw their children after work. Most of them had their homes in rural areas. These workers stayed in hostels or rented rooms in townships. These industrial workers saw their children when they were off duty or on leave. Townships and hostels are far from industries, so a considerable amount of time is wasted by travelling between places of residence and places of work. These single parents did not have enough time to care for their children physically, spiritually, educationally and in all other aspects.

5.6.9 PERMANENCE OF EMPLOYMENT

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Permanent	17	81	84	79,2	101	79,5
Temporary	4	19	22	20,8	26	20,5
TOTAL	21	100	106	100	127	100

81% of male respondents and 79,2% of female respondents were permanent. Only 19% males and 20,8% females were temporary. Temporary single parents formed 20,5% of the total number (127) of employed respondents. Being temporary or permanent determined the nature of benefits that a worker is entitled to. Temporary workers felt insecure. They worked under fear not knowing exactly what would happen when their services were terminated. For instance, if a single parent was terminated from work the situation could complicate and more problems may abound. Possibly these problems might add to the list of problems of single parenthood.

5.6.10 TIME OF LEAVING HOME FOR WORK

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Before 5h00	4	19	19	17,9	23	18,1
5h00 - 6h00	2	9,5	18	17	20	15,7
6h00 - 7h00	3	14,3	14	13,2	17	13,4
7h00 - 8h00	1	4,8	7	6,6	8	6,3
Other (Shifts)	11	52,4	48	45,3	59	46,5
TOTAL	21	100	106	100	127	100

The highest percentage (46,5%) of all single parent respondents had no specific time of leaving their homes for work. This is a group that worked shifts, so their time varied. Most domestic workers and a few industrial workers were the earliest to leave their homes in the morning. These parents probably left their children still asleep. And so they had no time even to prepare breakfast for their children and were thus not sure whether their children went to school having had breakfast.

5.6.11 TIME OF REACHING HOME FROM WORK

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
14h00 - 16h00	3	14,3	21	19,8	24	18,9
16h00 - 18h00	2	9,5	10	9,4	12	9,4
18h00 - 20h00	5	23,8	27	25,5	32	25,2
20h00 - 22h00	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other (Shifts)	11	52,4	48	45,3	59	46,5
TOTAL	21	100	106	100	150	100

The majority of single parents (that is, 46,5%) had no specific time for reaching home from work. These single parents were mostly industrial workers who worked shifts. 25% single parents arrived home between 18h00 and 20h00; 9,4% reached their homes between 16h00 and 18h00; and 18,9% single parents were at home between 14h00 and 16h00. To come home very late in the evening deprived both parents and children time together. Children did not get time to talk to their parents about their day's work at school, or to communicate any problem they might have. A child who encountered a problem during the day would sleep with the problem unsolved by the parent. On the other hand the parent had no chance to see if there was any child who was ill. She/he would leave early the next morning without even checking if everything was still in order in the house.

SECTION B : SINGLE PARENTS' RESPONSIBILITY WITH REGARD TO HOME EDUCATION

5.6.1.12 RESIDENCE

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Living in your own house	8	32	20	16	28	18,7
Living in a house of a relative	4	16	18	14,4	22	14,7
Renting a house	11	44	66	52,8	77	51,3
Living with relatives	02	08	21	16,8	23	15,3
TOTAL	25	100	125	100	150	100

The table reveals that 18,7% single parents owned houses; 14,7% lived in houses of relatives; 51,3% rented houses, and 15,3% lived with relatives. The highest percentage of single parents rented houses. Some of the reasons for renting houses may include the following:

- temporary single parents were not entitled to subsidies
- money earned was not enough to build own house
- owned house in rural area far away from the place of work, so needed to rent a house so as to be in route for transport to work.

If it were possible, single parents would not rent houses but own houses because to rent a house does not guarantee a shelter for children should the single parent die. It also affects the authority of single parents when they are tenants they do not have their own policy and law. Someone is in charge of them.

5.6.13 NUMBER OF OWN CHILDREN

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
1 - 3	20	80	51	40,8	71	47,3
4 - 7	4	16	64	51,2	68	45,3
8 - 10	1	4	9	7,2	10	6,7
Above 10	-	-	1	0,8	1	0,7
TOTAL	25	100	125	100	150	100

47,3% single parents had 1-3 children; 45,3% had 4-7 children; 6,7% had 8-10 children and 0,7% had more than 10 children. It was worth nothing that that 80% male single parents had 1- 3 children against 40,8% female single parents with 1-3 children. 16% male single parents had 4 -7 children whereas 51,2% female parents had 4-7 children.

It is amazing that people who earned less income gave birth to many children. Females generally earned less money than males, on the contrary single female parents had a greater number of children than single male parents. What most single female parents earned was incompatible with maternal nurturance.

5.6.14 AGES OF CHILDREN

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
0 - 5 years	12	22,2	58	19,4	70	19,8
5 - 10 years	17	31,5	119	39,8	136	38,5
10 - 20 years	23	42,5	98	32,8	121	34,3
Above 20 years	2	3,7	24	8,0	26	7,4
TOTAL	54	100	299	100	353	100

From the table above, 19,8% single parents had children within the age interval 0-5years; 38,5% had children with ages between 5 years and 10 years; 34,3% single parents had children with ages between 10 years and 20 years; and 7,4% had children with ages above 20 years. Most single parents had children who were 5 - 10 years old. These children were still within the formative phase and hence were vulnerable to the side effects of parental deprivation. This implies that single parents still need to give these children moulding and upbringing warmth, security and love. This may be a problem if the parent leaves early and comes back late or else is a tenant somewhere.

5.6.15 PERSON STAYING WITH CHILDREN

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
You	7	28	48	38,4	55	36,7
Your parents	2	8	12	9,6	14	9,3
Adult relative	1	4	5	4,0	6	4,0
Care giver	5	20	57	45,6	62	41,3
Alone	10	40	3	2,4	13	8,7
Other (Specify)	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	25	100	125	100	150	100

The table reveals that 36,7% single parents stayed with their children; 9,3% single parents had children staying with grandparents; 4% left their children under the care of an adult relative; 41,3% left their children with caregivers; and 8,7% single parents left their children alone. Children who are left alone are deprived of parental love and care. In most instances they do not have discipline, that is, parental and educative discipline.

5.6.16 DOES YOUR CHILD ASK QUESTIONS RELATED TO PHYSICAL CHANGES

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes, she/he frequently asks	-	-	30	24	30	20
Sometimes, he/she asks	11	44	30	24	41	27,3
Not at all	14	56	65	52	79	52,7
TOTAL	25	100	125	100	150	100

The children of 52,7% single parents did not ask questions related to physical changes. 27,3% single parents had children who sometimes asked. Only 20% single parents had children who frequently asked questions. This indicates that children of single parents had a problem of communicating freely with their parents. This may be caused by the fact that most single parents had little or not time with their children. They were almost like strangers. It is thus not an easy thing for a child "to open up his/her chest" to a person he/she is not used to. In rare circumstances single parents succumb to the pressures of being single.

5.6.17 IS IT IMPORTANT TO DISCUSS CHANGES ASSOCIATED WITH GROWTH WITH YOUR CHILD?

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Agree to a great extent	1	4	28	22,4	29	19,3
Agree	3	12	34	27,4	37	24,7
Agree to a lesser extent	15	60	30	24	45	30
Disagree	4	16	25	20	29	19,3
Uncertain	2	8	8	6,4	10	6,7
Other	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	25	100	125	100	150	100

19,3% single parents agreed to a great extent that it is important to discuss changes associated with growth with their children; 24,7% agreed; 30% agreed to a lesser extent; 19,3% disagreed and 6,7% were uncertain about the importance of discussing physical changes with children. From these results it is evident that most single parents are not very sure about the importance of educating children about physical changes on their bodies.

5.6.18 WHAT IS YOUR COMMENT CONCERNING EDUCATING CHILDREN ON BEHAVIOUR?

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
It is easy	-	-	-	-	-	-
It is difficult	19	76	59	47,2	78	52,0
Sometimes easy	3	12	20	16,0	23	15,3
Sometimes difficult	1	4	38	30,4	39	26,0
Uncertain	2	8	8	6,4	10	6,7
TOTAL	25	100	125	100	150	100

The feeling of the majority of single parents was that it is difficult to educate children on behaviour. From the table above 52% single parents indicated that it was difficult to educate children on behaviour. The reason here may be that most single parents did not stay with their children. Others had not time since they left very early in the morning for work and returned very late. These children grow knowing what they are taught by caregivers, adult relatives, or by other children. The actual parent have little or no time to educate their children. Abdication of responsibilities may be one of the problems. Total reliance on schools and churches, etc, changes questions on cultural values, norms, peer pressure.

5.6.19 DO YOU DISCUSS PHYSICAL CHANGES ASSOCIATED WITH GROWTH WITH YOUR CHILD?

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes, to a greater extent	4	16	28	22,4	32	21,3
Yes, to a lesser extent	6	24	25	20,0	31	20,7
No	15	60	72	57,6	87	58,0
TOTAL	25	100	125	100	150	100

From the table above, 21,3% single parents discussed to a greater extent physical changes associated with growth with their children. 20,7% single parents discussed these changes to a lesser extent. Most single parents (i.e. 58%) did not discuss physical changes associated with growth with their own children. Children trust their parents and also trust whatever information they get from their parents. It is, therefore, imperative that single parents should create time to discuss physical changes with their children. This will save their children from getting incorrect information from other children.

5.6.20 REASONS FOR NOT DISCUSSING PHYSICAL CHANGES ASSOCIATED WITH GROWTH WITH YOUR CHILDREN

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Children still too young	5	20	18	14,4	23	15,3
Shy to talk about private parts	2	8	25	20,0	27	18,0
Always busy - have no time	8	32	68	54,4	76	50,7
See no need	10	40	14	11,2	24	16,0
TOTAL	25	100	125	100	150	100

The table above shows that 15,3% single parents had children who were still too young and thus

did not discuss physical changes associated with growth with their children. 18,0% single parents said that they were shy to talk about private parts with their children. This implies that some of these single parents were not 'friends' of their children. If parents and children are friends, parents become free to talk to children about their bodies. 50,7% single parents were always busy and thus had no time; and 16% single parents saw no need for discussing physical changes associated with growth with their children. Some parents were shy to talk to their children because they were not of the same sex as their children.

5.6.21 IN YOUR OPINION WHICH CATEGORY OF CHILDREN IS EASY TO BRING UP?

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Female	-	-	101	80,8	101	67,3
Male	19	76	15	12,0	34	22,7
Uncertain	6	24	9	7,2	15	10
All of the above	-	-	-	-	-	-
None of the above	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	25	100	125	100	150	100

There is a tendency of choosing own sex as a category of children that is easy to bring up. Male single parents chose male children as being easy to bring up and 80,8% females chose female children as easy to bring up. This may be due to the fact that most single parents were not free to talk about the private parts of the opposite sex to their children. 24% male single parents were uncertain about the category of children that was easy to bring up. Only 7,2% single female parents were uncertain. The reason for the low percentage of uncertain females may be due to the fact that females are used to looking after children.

5.6.22 PROBLEMATIC STAGE IN BRINGING UP CHILDREN

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Infancy	-	-	-	-	-	-
Childhood	-	-	-	-	-	-
Adolescence	17	68	65	52	82	54,7
Young adult	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other	-	-	-	-	-	-
All 1 - 4	-	-	50	40	50	33,3
2 - 4	-	-	-	-	-	-
3 and 4	8	32	10	8	18	12
TOTAL	25	100	125	100	150	100

54,7% respondents viewed adolescence as the problematic stage in bringing up children; 33,3% viewed infancy, childhood, adolescence and young adult stages as all problematic; 12% single parents saw adolescence and young adult stages as problematic.

SECTION C : SINGLE PARENTS AND THEIR CHILDREN'S SCHOOL EDUCATION: AN ANALYSIS OF RESPONSIBILITIES

5.6.23 DO YOU HAVE SCHOOL GOING CHILDREN?

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
No	5	20	16	12,8	21	14
Yes	20	80	109	87,2	129	86
TOTAL	25	100	125	100	150	100

86% single parents had school going children and only 14% single parents did not have school going children.

5.6.24 NUMBER OF SCHOOL GOING CHILDREN

	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
0	5	20	16	12,8	21	14,0
1 - 3	17	68	49	39,2	66	44,0
4 - 6	3	12	55	44,0	58	38,7
More than 6	-	-	5	4,0	5	3,3
TOTAL	25	100	125	100	150	100

The table above shows 44% single parents with 1-3 school going children; 38,7% with 4-6 school going children; and only 3,3% single parents with more than 6 school going children.

5.6.25 CHILDREN AT UNIVERSITY/TECHNIKKON/TECHNICAL

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes	7	28	15	12	22	14,7
No	18	72	110	88	128	85,3
TOTAL	25	100	125	100	150	100

Only 14,7% single parents had children at University/Technikon/Technical/College. The greater percentage (i.e. 85,3%) of single parents had no children at tertiary institutions. This low number of single parents with children at tertiary institutions may be the result of low income earned by these parents which could not meet the high University/Technikon/Technical/College fees. It could also be that some single parents had children which were still too young to be at tertiary level.

5.6.26 NUMBER OF CHILDREN AT TERTIARY INSTITUTION

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
1	5	71,4	7	46,7	12	54,5
2	2	28,6	6	40,0	8	36,4
3	-	-	2	33,3	2	9,1
Above 3	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	7	100	15	100	22	100

54,5% of single parents who had children at tertiary institutions had only one child each at tertiary institution. 36,4% single parents had two children each at the university or technikon or technical or college. Only 9,1% single parents had three children each at tertiary level.

5.6.27 CHOICE OF A SCHOOL FOR CHILDREN

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes	12	60	90	82,6	102	79,1
No	8	40	19	17,4	27	20,9
TOTAL	20	100	109	100	129	100

79,1% of single parents with school going children indicated that they chose schools for their children. 20,9% single parents did not choose schools for their children. The reason for not choosing a school for children might be that parents were not staying with their children and so somebody else had to find a school for children. In some cases parents were overpowered by their children. The child told the parent where he/she wanted to go to school. The parent listened and did exactly as demanded by the child. This case is common between parents and adolescents; where the adolescent wants to go to a school where his/her friends are schooling.

5.6.28 CHOICE OF SCHOOL SUBJECTS FOR CHILDREN

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes	-	-	-	-	-	-
No	20	100	109	100	129	100
TOTAL	20	100	109	100	129	100

All single parents with school going children indicated that they did not choose school subjects for their children. Choice of subjects was determined by the school curriculum. Educators put learners into choices of subjects within the prescribed subject groups.

5.6.29 PAYMENT FOR CHILDREN'S EDUCATION

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes	20	100	109	100	120	100
No	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	20	100	109	100	120	100

All single parents indicated that they paid for their children's education.

5.6.30 No single parent indicated as not paying school fees. This implies that most of what parents call "school burdens" are also "burdens" to single parents.

5.6.31 PLACE FOR CHILDREN'S SCHOOL

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Rural area	17	85	60	55	77	59,7
Urban area	3	15	49	45	52	40,3
TOTAL	20	100	109	100	129	100

59,7% parents had children schooling in rural area and 40,3% single parents had children schooling in an urban area. Most single parents had their children schooling in rural area. Fees for urban schools are too high-most single parents cannot afford paying for their children in urban schools.

5.6.32 DAYS FOR PARENTS' MEETING AT SCHOOL

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Week-days	3	15	49	45	52	40,3
Week-end	17	85	60	55	77	59,7
TOTAL	20	100	109	100	129	100

40,3% single parents indicated that parents' meetings for their children's schools were held during week days and 59,7% parents indicated that their meetings were held during weekends. In most cases it is the schools in rural areas that held meeting during weekends. Urban schools mostly use week days for parents' meeting.

5.6.33 TIMES FOR PARENTS' MEETINGS

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Day time	17	85	60	55	77	59,7
Evenings	3	15	49	45	52	40,3
TOTAL	20	100	109	100	129	100

59,7% of all single parents indicated that parents' meetings were normally held during day time. 40,3% of all single parents said their meetings were held in the evening. Evening times cater for those parents who work during the day. While evening time is convenient for most single parents, it cannot be adopted by those schools which do not have electricity. Moreover, most single

parents would love to use evenings for leisure. Again among black schools it is still uncommon to hold meetings in the evenings. There is bound to be problems when parents fail to attend meetings.

5.6.34 ATTENDANCE AT PARENTS' MEETINGS

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Regular	3	15	17	15,6	20	15,5
Irregular	10	50	27	24,8	37	28,7
Do not attend at all	7	35	65	59,6	72	55,8
TOTAL	20	100	109	100	129	100

From the table above, only 15,5% single parents attended regularly at parents' meetings. The attendance of 28,7% single parents was irregular. 55,8% single parents indicated that they did not attend at all. More than half of respondents did not attend parents' meetings. This is very bad. Parents must attend meetings arranged for them so that they are updated by what is happening in schools. Schools need ideas from parents so that they can address the community needs. Educators will know exactly what the community needs if parents do attend parents' meetings. It is in parents' meetings where parents can voice out their feelings and put forward their suggestions.

5.6.35 REASONS FOR NOT ATTENDING PARENTS' MEETING

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Do not get notices for parents' meetings	-	-	-	-	-	-
Forget dates and times of meetings	-	-	-	-	-	-
Meetings held during working hours	5	71,43	15	23,08	20	27,78
Meetings held during evenings - transport problems	-	-	38	58,46	38	52,78
Other (Do not stay with my child)	2	28,57	12	18,46	14	19,44
TOTAL	7	100	65	100	72	100

52,78% single parents did not attend meetings because meetings were held in the evening and they had transport problems. 27,78% single parents did not attend parents' meetings because meetings were held during working hours. 19,44% single parents did not stay with their children, so were unable to attend parents' meetings. Absence from parents' meetings break down the chain of communication between schools and parents. Parents who do not attend parents' meetings remain not knowing what the schools expect of them. These parents are often bound by decisions taken by those parents who attend parents' meetings.

5.6.36 CHECKING THE CHILDS' END OF TERM SCHOOL REPORT

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes to a greater extent	12	60	69	63,3	81	62,8
Yes I do	5	25	30	27,5	35	27,1
Sometimes yes	2	10	10	9,2	12	9,3
No	1	5	-	-	1	0,8
TOTAL	20	100	109	100	129	100

62,8% single parents checked to a greater extent their children's end of term reports. 27,1% single parents just checked their children's end of term reports. 9,3% single parents sometimes checked their children's school reports. 0,8% single parents did not check their children's end to term school reports. Checking the school report shows that the parent is interested in knowing how the child performs in school work. It encourages the child to know that there is somebody who is worried about his/her school work.

5.6.37 CHILD'S PERFORMANCE

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Very good	2	10	56	51,4	58	45
Good	10	50	33	30,3	43	33,3
Satisfactory	5	25	14	12,8	19	14,7
Weak	2	10	6	5,5	8	6,2
Do not know	1	5	-	-	1	0,8
TOTAL	20	100	109	100	129	100

The performance of children of 45% single parents was very good. 33,3% single parents indicated the performance of their children as good. 14,7% parents had children with satisfactory performance. Only 6,2% single parents had children whose performance was week. 0,8% single parents did not know how their children performed at school. The reason for these parents not to know how their children performed at school might be that they were not staying with their children or they did not check their children's end of term school reports.

5.6.38 COMMENT ON CHILD'S PERFORMANCE

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes, I frequently do comment	13	65	58	53,2	71	55
No I don't	1	5	30	27,5	31	24
Sometimes I do	6	30	21	19,3	27	21
TOTAL	20	100	109	100	129	100

The table reveals that 55% single parents frequently did comment on children's performance; 21% sometimes did comment; 24% did not comment on their children's performance. There are a number of reasons that could make a parent not comment on the child's performance. In some cases parents have never been to school and know nothing pertaining school work. In other cases children do not give their end of term reports to parents, so parents do not know how the child performs. It can also be a case where parents do not stay with their children. Making comments on your child's performance encourages the child.

5.6.39 DO YOU KNOW YOUR CHILD'S EDUCATORS?

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes	19	95	90	82,6	109	84,5
No	1	5	19	17,4	20	15,5
TOTAL	20	100	109	100	129	100

The table above indicates that 84,5% single parents did not know their children's educators and only 15,5% single parents knew their children's educators. The contact between parents and educators is of utmost importance.

Parents should constantly meet the children's educators to talk about the children's performance and general behaviour at school.

5.6.40 ATTENDANCE ON SPORTS' DAYS AT SCHOOL

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes, I frequently do go to school	2	10	20	18,3	22	17,1
Sometimes I do	6	30	15	13,8	21	16,3
No I don't	12	60	74	67,9	86	66,6
TOTAL	20	100	109	100	129	100

Only 17,1% single parents frequently attended on sports days at school. 16,3% single parents sometimes did go to school on sports days. Most single parents (66,6%) did not go to school on sports' days. This non-attendance was partly caused by the fact that most single parents are working. If sport is done during working hours, these single parents cannot attend.

5.6.41 OFFERING SERVICES TO CHILDREN'S SCHOOL

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes	-	-	-	-	-	-
No	20	100	109	100	129	100
TOTAL	20	100	109	100	129	100

The table reveals that 100% single parents never offered services to their children's school.

5.6.42 REASONS FOR NOT OFFERING SERVICES TO CHILDREN'S SCHOOLS

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Have no time-always at work	14	70	45	41,3	59	45,8
Not aware that the school needs my services	6	30	33	30,2	39	30,2
Afraid to talk to my child's educators	-	-	4	3,7	4	3,1
Other (Do not stay near the school)	-	-	27	24,8	27	20,9
TOTAL	20	100	109	100	129	100

Single parents gave different reasons for not offering their services to their children's schools. 45,8% said they had no time since they were always at work 30,2% single parents indicated that they were not aware that schools needed their services. 3,1% single parents were afraid to talk to their children's educators. To them one had to be educated to be in a position to talk to educators. 20,9% single parents never offered their services to their children's schools because they were staying away from schools.

5.6.43 DO YOU SEE THE IMPORTANCE OF EDUCATING YOUR CHILD?

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes	25	100	125	100	150	100
No	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	25	100	125	100	150	100

All single parents indicated that they saw the importance of educating their children.

SECTION D : SINGLE PARENTS AND THEIR CHILDREN'S FORMING OF RELATIONSHIPS WITH THE OUTSIDE WORLD

5.4.44 DO YOU GUIDE YOUR CHILD ON HOW TO CHOOSE FRIENDS?

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes	12	48	45	36	57	38
No	13	52	80	64	93	62
TOTAL	25	100	125	100	150	100

38% single parents did guide their children on how to choose friends. 62% single parents did not guide their children on how to choose friends. It is very important to guide a child.

5.6.45 DOES YOUR CHILD TALK TO YOU ABOUT HIS/HER FRIENDS

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes frequently	12	48	45	36	57	38
Sometimes yes	5	20	52	41,6	57	38
No	8	32	28	22,4	36	24
TOTAL	25	100	125	100	150	100

Only 24% single parent respondents indicated that their children did not talk to them about their friends. 38% single parents said their children frequently talked about their friends, and 38% single parents said their children sometimes talked about their friends. Talking about friends enables the parent to know the type of the child's friends.

5.6.46 DOES YOUR CHILD TELL YOU WHEN HE/SHE HAS A PROBLEM WITH HIS/HER FRIENDS?

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes	8	32	28	22,4	36	24
No	17	68	97	77,6	114	76
TOTAL	25	100	125	100	150	100

76% single parents indicated that their children did not tell them when they had problems with their friends. Only 24% single parents had children who did tell when they had problems with their friends.

5.6.47 REASONS WHY CHILDREN DO NOT TELL PARENTS WHEN THEY HAVE PROBLEMS

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Have no time to spend discussing my child's problems	1	12,5	4	14,3	5	13,9
Work until very late and always find children asleep	3	37,5	8	28,6	11	30,6
Shy to discuss matters pertaining to child's friends	1	12,5	6	21,4	7	19,4
Other (Do not stay with my children)	3	37,5	10	35,7	13	36,1
TOTAL	8	100	28	100	36	100

The reasons why children did not tell their parents about their problems with friends as given by single parents are as follows : 13,9% single parents said they had not time to spend discussing children's problems; 30,6% single parents indicated that they worked until very late and always found children asleep; 19,4% single parents were shy to discuss matters pertaining to children's friends; and 36,1% single parents did not stay with their children.

5.6.48 DO YOU ALLOW YOUR CHILD'S FRIENDS INTO YOUR HOUSE?

	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes	20	80	99	79,2	119	79,3
No	5	20	26	20,8	31	20,7
TOTAL	25	100	125	100	150	100

79,3% single parents did allow their children's friends into their houses. Only 20,7% single parents did not allow children's friends into their houses.

5.6.49 REASONS FOR NOT ALLOWING CHILDREN'S FRIENDS INTO THE HOUSE

	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Playing in the house makes it dirty	-	-	8	30,8	8	25,8
Some children are naughty	-	-	-	-	-	-
Children mess up the house	-	-	2	7,7	2	6,5
Adolescents/teens invite opposite sex friends into the house	5	100	16	61,5	21	67,7
TOTAL	5	100	26	100	31	100

To 25,8% single parents the reason for not allowing their children's friends into their houses was that playing in the house makes it dirty. 6,5% single parents indicated the reason as being that children messed up the house. The majority of single parents (67,7%) stated that adolescents/teens invited their opposite sex friends into their houses. Allowing children's friends into the house gives the parent a chance to see them play, listen to their conversations, talk to them, etc.

5.6.50 DOES YOUR CHILD LIKE GOING TO CHURCH?

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes	6	24	82	65,6	88	58,7
No	19	76	43	34,4	62	41,3
TOTAL	25	100	125	100	150	100

From the table 76% of single male parents indicated that their children did not like going to church. Children learn from adults. Perhaps also these single fathers do not like going to church. On the whole most single parents (58,7%) have children who like going to church.

5.6.51 ACTIVE ROLE PLAYED BY CHILDREN IN CHURCH

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Attends Sunday school	3	50	58	70,7	61	69,3
Church choir members	1	16,7	6	7,3	7	8,0
Collects free offering	-	-	8	9,8	8	9,1
No active role	2	33,3	10	12,2	12	13,6
TOTAL	6	100	82	100	88	100

The single parents who had children who liked going to church explained the active role played by their children in church as follows: 69,3% single parents had children who were Sunday school members, the children for 8% single parents were church choir members 9,1% single parents had children who collected free offering in church; 13,6% single parents had children who liked going to church but who played no active role. Child involvement in activities should be encouraged.

5.6.52 DOES YOUR CHURCH PROVIDE ACTIVITIES WHICH CATER FOR THE YOUTH?

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes	23	92	115	92	138	92
No	2	8	10	8	12	08
TOTAL	25	100	125	100	150	100

The table above reveals that 92% single parents belonged to churches that provided activities which catered for the youth. Only 8% single parents belonged to churches which did not cater for the youth. This might be the reason why some single parents had children who did not like going to church. A church that provides activities which accommodate adults only, bores the youth.

5.6.53 ARE THERE ACTIVITIES MEANT TO OCCUPY YOUTH DURING LEISURE TIME IN YOUR COMMUNITY?

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes	10	40	25	20	35	23,3
No	15	60	100	80	115	76,7
TOTAL	25	100	125	100	150	100

Only 23,3% single parents lived in communities that provided activities meant to occupy youth. 76,7% single parents belonged to communities where there were no activities which were meant to occupy youth during leisure time.

5.6.54 DO YOU ENCOURAGE YOUR CHILD TO PARTICIPATE IN COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES?

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes to a greater extent	5	50	6	24	11	31,5
Yes	-	-	-	-	-	-
Yes to a lesser extent	3	30	3	12	6	17,1
No	2	20	16	64	18	51,4
TOTAL	10	100	25	100	35	100

From the table above 31,5% single parents encouraged to a greater extent their children to participate in community activities; 17,1% single parents encouraged children to a lesser extent; and 51,4% single parents did not encourage their children to participate in community activities. This deprives children a chance of forming relationships with the outside world.

5.6.55 DO YOU SEE THE NEED FOR YOUR CHILD TO BE INVOLVED IN COMMUNITY PROJECTS?

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Agree	19	76	95	76	114	76
Disagree	-	-	16	12,8	16	10,7
Uncertain	6	24	14	11,2	20	13,3
Other	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	25	100	125	100	150	100

76% single parents agreed that there was a need for their children to be involved in community projects. This will grant children an opportunity to communicate with other community members and to acquire skills required in community projects. 10,7% single parents disagreed; 13,3% single parents were uncertain about the involvement of their children in community projects.

SECTION E : SINGLE PARENT'S FINANCIAL RESPONSIBILITIES**5.6.56 SUPPLEMENT OF INCOME**

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes	-	-	34	27,2	34	22,7
No	25	100	91	72,8	116	77,3
TOTAL	25	100	125	100	150	100

100% male single parents had nobody to supplement their income. 22,2% female single parents had supplement to their income. 22,7% of all respondents indicated that their income was supplemented by pension; 77,3% single parents had nothing to supplement their income.

5.6.57 THINGS THAT SINGLE PARENTS PAY FOR

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
School fees	20	11,04	109	12,19	129	12,0
Rent for the house	11	6,08	66	7,38	77	7,16
Water and electricity bills	19	10,05	85	9,51	104	9,67
Food	25	13,87	125	13,98	150	13,95
Furniture	23	12,71	111	12,42	134	5,86
Car	12	6,63	51	5,7	63	12,47
Clothing	23	12,71	111	12,42	134	12,95
Other (i) Transport	25	13,81	125	13,98	150	13,95
(ii) Medical expenses	23	12,71	111	12,42	134	12,47
TOTAL	181	100	894	100	1095	100

The table above indicates some of the things single parents paid for almost every month. Some

single parents earned very low wages which were not supplemented by any other income, but nevertheless, had to make the necessary payments every month. The table, therefore, signifies an economic/financial challenge most single parents face.

5.6.58 DO PENSIONERS GET PENSION EVERY MONTH?

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes	2	100	39	100	41	100
No	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	2	100	39	100	41	100

From the table above, 100% single parent pensioners received their pension monthly. This enabled pensioners to pay their monthly premiums or instalments where ever applicable.

5.7 ANALYSIS AND EVALUATION OF DATA ACQUIRED THROUGH THE USE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

This study aimed at investigating the role of single parents in the education of their children. The above questionnaire was meant to gather information on the educational role of single parents in and out of school. The major hypothesis was tested by responses numbered

5.6.5; 5.6.6; 5.6.7; 5.6.8; 5.6.9
 5.6.10; 5.6.11; 5.6.15; 5.6.16 5.6.17
 5.6.18; 5.6.19; 5.6.29; 5.6.34;
 5.6.36; 5.6.38; 5.6.39; 5.6.40;
 5.6.41; 5.6.43; 5.6.44; 5.6.45;
 5.6.46; 5.6.54; 5.6.55; 5.6.57

On the basis of the responses obtained, the researcher found that single parents played a major role in the education of their children.

Most single parents involved in this study supported their children's education in various ways. They left their homes early for work and came back very late in the evening to earn money to provide for their children's financial needs. All single parents with school going children and who had children at tertiary institutions paid for their children's education.

Despite their scarce resources, single parents were able to provide basic needs like shelter and food which are the pre-requisite for children's education. Some single parents were directly involved in school education. They chose schools for their children. At home they helped their children with homework assignments and checked their children's end of term reports. They made comments on children's school performance.

Some single parents were involved in school related activities. They attended parents/educator conferences, parents' meetings, volunteered for school trips or class activities. They visited their children's school on sports' days. These kinds of parent involvement activities are thought to help children's performances in schools significantly. Hargreaves (1991:65) supports this when she says:

Single parent's ability to provide a positive home environment and become actively involved in his or her child's school work greatly influences the child's school performance.

The foregoing quotation emphasises the need for a single parent to provide warmth, love and care at his/her home and be involved in his/her child's school work so that the child performs well at school. The parent must show concern about the child's well-being and his/her school work.

5.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter has sketched the design and method of investigation and the empirical investigation. It has described how data was collected, the selection of subjects and analysis of data. The next chapter contains the main findings of the study, conclusion and recommendations.

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CHAPTER SIX**FURTHER STATEMENT OF THE PROGRAMME OF STUDY, SUMMARY
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CHAPTER SIX
FURTHER STATEMENT OF THE PROGRAMME OF STUDY,
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS,
RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS, CONCLUSION

6.1 FURTHER STATEMENT OF THE PROGRAMME OF STUDY

CHAPTER ONE

Chapter one dealt with the general introduction. The problem was stated. Motivation of the study was stated. Aims of the study were given. Major concepts used in this study were clarified. A proposed method of research was given. Composition of chapters and their brief description was also given.

CHAPTER TWO

This chapter dealt with the family in relation to socialization and education and implications for single parenthood. It discussed the family and its functions. Family relationships were also discussed.

CHAPTER THREE

Chapter three dealt with impacts that living in a single-parent household has on child's school performance. Types of single-parent families were discussed. Problems that beset single parent households were also discussed.

CHAPTER FOUR

Chapter four dealt with the role of single parents in the education of their children. The role of

single parents in children's development and the involvement of single parents in school education were discussed.

CHAPTER FIVE

This chapter discussed in detail the design and method of investigation and the empirical investigation. It described how data was collected, the selection of subjects, a plan for the organisation and analysis of data and how field work was carried out.

CHAPTER SIX

Chapter six dealt with the further statement of the programme of study, summary of the findings recommendations, suggestions and conclusion.

6.2 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

On the basis of literature that was reviewed and the results that were gathered through questionnaires, the researcher found that the role played by single parents in the education of their children is of great significance. Their involvement in school education enhances their children's performance. Hargreaves, (1991:65) endorses the foregoing statement by stating that:

A single parent's ability to provide a positive home environment
And to become actively involved in his/her child's school work
greatly influences the child's school performance.

Although single parents are trying hard to play their role in their children's education, there are some problems which they encounter in performing their educational role. The researcher found that single parents are unable to adequately participate in their children's education due to time and resource constraints. For example, working single parents are unable to take time off work to attend day time parents' meetings. In schools where parents' meetings are held during evenings, some single parents indicated that they had transport problems and thus do not attend parents'

meetings.

It was also found that another problem facing single parents is that of meeting educators' expectations. Most single parents find it difficult to meet their children's educators' expectations. For instance, educators expect parents to come to schools so that they review their children's performance together, but single parents do not always afford to visit schools since school visits are mostly done during school time - which is the working time for some single parents.

The researcher found that single parenthood has great effects on children's academic performance. Children's academic performance is affected by, among other things, reasons for parental separation (death, divorce, or desertion), age of the child at the time of parental separation, and personal relationships in the one-parent household (Hargreaves, 1991:25). Where single parents are not in close contact with their children, children are not free to open up to them and share their problems (with parents). Most single parents indicated that their children did not tell them when they had problems. These problems which remain unsolved affect the child's school performance.

Single parenthood results in a change in the family's financial status. Most single parents indicated that they had nothing to supplement their income. So this change in the family's financial status has a great effect on the child's school performance. The child is not always able to get all that is needed by the school from his/her single parent because of financial constraints.

The researcher also found that not all single parents can provide their children with the basic shelter, clothing, food and medical care that children need to perform well in school. Some single parents indicated that they were not staying in their own houses. This puts the lives of children at risk - should the parent die these children will remain without shelter. Again, the fact that these children grow under the care of somebody else may impact negatively on their behaviour and character. Children really need love, warmth, security and discipline from parents.

The single parent has to work, and places child(ren) in another person's care. Most single parents indicated that they work for 51 hours and more per week. This creates a gap between parents and children. Some parents stay at their places of work away from children. Children are thus deprived of their parental care and love which they so much need. Some single parents indicated that they had no time to discuss anything with their children. Children are thus unable to share their experiences and problems with their parents, and single parents are unable to meet their children's emotional needs.

It was also found that some single parents lack the ability and interest to participate in their children's education. Single parents who are illiterate are unable to participate fully in their children's education. They lack skill, and thus appear to have little or no interest in children's education. These single parents do not check their children's end of term school reports and cannot supervise and help children with their homework and assignments. They cannot comment on children's progress because they cannot read. Children belonging to this type of single parenthood lack motivation and encouragement which they ought to be getting.

The researcher also found that there is very little or no contact between parents and educators. Some single parents indicated that they did not know their children's educators. Others said that they did not attend school even on sports' days. All single parents in the sample of this study indicated that they had never offered their services to their children's schools. It is very important for parents and teachers to know each other so that they share their aspirations for the children. However, when parents and educators are left in their separate spheres, their attitudes harden throughout the school experience (Dekker and Lemmer, 1994:156).

Kelly(1970:16) endorses the foregoing statement by stating that:

When parents and teachers work at cross purposes the child suffers. When parents and educators possess mutual appreciation of the role each has to play in the education of the child, opportunities for development are increased.

Without sufficient backup support and resources, some single parents become physically and emotionally depleted. The following paragraph suggests and recommends what can be done to help single parents enhance their active involvement in their children's education.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

To eliminate some of the problems that hamper single parents from participating adequately in their children's education, the researcher suggests and recommends that schools and all community building organisations (CBOS) should help single parents and their children by:

- encouraging single parents to organise their own single parents' groups through which parents can create their own support network, receive practical single parenting advice and share child care duties.
- organising single parents' family support and children's support groups on school's premises and linking these support groups with community agencies that help single parent families in crises.
- organising seminars, workshops, conferences, counseling sessions and retreat that will treat the issue of single parenting.
- organising parenting education courses through Parent Teacher Association which offer child care, car pools or other transportation assistance, and a sliding fee or scholarship fund for low-income single parents.
- frequently discussing and reviewing the child's progress with single parents through telephone or in-person conferences.
- providing single parents with the school's year plan so that they can make prior arrangements with employers to attend some of the school's important activities/events.
- scheduling school and community events when working parents can attend.
- updating those single parents who are unable to attend parents' meetings by making minutes for meetings available for them.
- helping parents become good tutors by offering them structured home-learning activities to do with their children.

- educating single parents on communication techniques.
- setting long deadlines for homework so that parents can plan to be available to assist if necessary.
- being sensitive to families who seem to be in financial trouble and refer them promptly to the appropriate family assistance agencies.
- not overloading a parent with school obligations but encouraging the parent to stay in touch with the school and be involved as time permits.
- being alert to children's family status and circumstances and to assist single-parent families as soon as trouble occurs. When school personnel are aware of the family-status changes they can offer more appropriate assistance to troubled learners.
- educating single parents on ways, strategies and mechanisms of alleviating stress and resolving conflict.
- educate the community to accept single parents.

6.4 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This study has revealed that the circumstances in single-parent household have a great impact on the child development and on the academic performance of the child. It emerged from this study that schools and community building organisations should work collaboratively with single parents' organisations in order to solve some of the problems faced by the former.

To make an example, a widow is given advice on how to face challenges in life after the loss of her spouse only during the period before the funeral of the spouse or just after the funeral in rare cases. During this time the widow who is given advice hardly records anything in her mind, she is still confused. There are no lessons or advices given at a later stage. As a result she and her children soon become victims of some kind of abuse. It also became abundantly clear that children of single parents need attention like their parents.

The researcher, therefore, suggests a need for further research on, inter alia;

- * the need for education on single parenthood
- * the kind/type of education relevant to single parents and their children
- * some counselling or therapy for single -parents and their children
- * mechanisms of stress alleviation for single parents.
- * the elimination of discrimination of single parents

6.5 CONCLUSION

In this study, the researcher aimed at viewing “An analysis of the educational role of single parents”. In chapter one the researcher stated the problem and the aims of the study. The method of investigation was described and major concepts were clarified. In chapter two she discussed the family, its functions and the family relations. The family was discussed in relation to socialization and education. In chapter three, the researcher looked at the impacts that living in single parent families has on the children’s academic performance. In chapter four, she looked at the role of single parents in school education. Parental involvement in school education was discussed. Chapter five discussed the research technique, analysed, evaluated and interpreted data. Chapter six dealt with further statement of the programme of study, the findings, recommendations and suggestions.

This study on “An analysis of the educational role of single parents” has revealed that single parents are unable to adequately participate in their children’s education mainly due to time and resource constraints. It is hoped that future research suggested will help reveal means and ways to solve some of the problems which single parents face.

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QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SINGLE-PARENTS

AIM: The aim of this questionnaire is to collect information on the role played by single parents in the education of their children and problems encountered in this process with a view to highlighting these.

INSTRUCTIONS:

Please indicate which of the following statements apply to you by either making a (X) in the appropriate block or by giving the required information in the space provided as the case may be. Note that there are no wrong or right answers. Feel free to respond faithfully. Please do not write or sign your name on this form, since information gained from you will remain confidential.

All information given by you will be used only for research purposes.

SECTION A : BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

1. Sex

Male	1
Female	2

2. Age

Less than 15 years	1
15-25	2
26-35	3
36-45	4
Over 45	5

3. Marital Status

Separated	1
Divorced	2
Widowed	3
Never Married	4

4. Level of Education

Never been to school	1
Grade 1 - Grade 4 (SSA-Std2)	2
Grade 5 - Grade 7 (Std 3 - Std 5)	3
Grade 8 - Grade 10 (Std 6 - Std 8)	4
Grade 11 - Grade 12 (Std 9 - 10)	5
Tertiary Education (Diploma/Degree)	6

5. What is your source of income?

Employment	1
Self-employment	2
Pension	3
Other (Please Specify)	4

6. What is the work type?

Domestic	1
Industrial	2
Nursing	3
Teaching	4
Other (Please specify)	5

7. Your gross monthly income in rands

Less than R100	1
R200 - R500	2
R1 000 - R 1 500	3
R1 500 - R2 000	4
Over R2000	5

8. Number of working hours per week

Less than 20 hours	1
21 - 30 hours	2
31 - 40 hours	3
41 - 50 hours	4
51 or more hours	5

9. Is your employment

Permanent?	1
Temporary?	2
Other (Please Specify)?	3

10. Time of leaving home for work

Before 5h00	1
5h00 - 6h00	2
6h00 - 7h00	3
7h00 - 8h00	4
Other (Please Specify)	5

11. Time of reaching home from work

14h00 - 16h00	1
16h00 - 18h00	2
18h00 - 20h00	3
20h00 - 22h00	4
Other (Please Specify)	5

SECTION B : Single parents' responsibility with regard to home education.

12. Are you

Living in your own home?	1
Living in a house of a relative?	2
Renting a house?	3
Living with relatives?	4

13. Number of your children

Nil	1
1-3	2
4 - 7	3
8 - 10	4
Above 10	5

14. Age(s) of your children (in case you have any)

0 - 5 years	1
5 - 10 years	2
10 - 20 years	3
20 and above	4
Other (Please Specify)	5

15. Your children are staying with

You	1
Your parents	2
Adult relative	3
Caregiver	4
Alone	5
Other (Please Specify)	6

16. Does your child ask questions related to physical changes?

Ye, She/He frequently asks	1
Sometimes he/she asks	2
Not at all	3

17. Is it important to discuss physical changes associated with growth with your child?

Agree a great extent	1
Agree	2
Agree to a lesser extent	3
Disagree	4
Uncertain	5
Other (Please Specify)	6

18. What is your comment concerning educating children on behaviour

It is easy	1
It is difficulty	2
Sometimes easy	3
Sometimes difficult	4
Uncertain	5

19. Do you discuss physical changes associated with growth with your child?

Yes, to a greater extent	1
Yes a lesser extent	2
No	3

20. If your answer to (17) above is No, can you briefly explain why?

.....

.....

21. In your opinion which category of children is easy to bring up?

Females	1
Males	2
Uncertain	3
All of the above	4
None of the above	5

22. If bringing up children is sometimes problematic choose the stage that is problematic

Infancy	1
Childhood	2
Adolescence	3
Young adult	4
Other (Specify)	5
All 1 - 4	6
2 - 4	7
3 and 4	8

SECTION C

Single parents and their children's school education : An analysis of responsibilities

23. Do you have school going children?

No	1
Yes	2

24. Number of school going children

0	1
1 - 3	2
4 - 6	3
Above	4

25. Do you have children at University/Technikon/Technical/Collage

Yes	1
No	2

26. If your answer to 25 is yes, how many?

1 - 2	1
2 - 3	2

27. Do you choose a school for your children?

Yes	1
No	2

28. Do you choose school subjects for your children?

Yes	1
No	2

29. Do you pay for your children's education?

Yes	1
No	2

30. If your answer to (29) above is no, who pays?

A bursary	1
Your parent	2
Other (Please Specify)	3

31. Where is your children's school?

Rural area	1
Urban area	2

32. Parent's meetings for your children's school are normally held during

Week days	1
Weekends	2

33. At what time are parent's meetings normally held at your child's school?

Daytime	1
Evenings	2

34. How is your attendance at parent's meetings?

Regular	1
Irregular	2
Do not attend at all	3

35. If your answer to (34) above is "Do not attend at all", what could be the reason?

Do not get notices for parents meetings	1
Forget dates and times of meetings	2
Meetings held during working hours	3
Meetings held in the evening, cannot attend because of transport problem	4
Other (Please Specify)	5

36. Do you check your child's end of term school report

Yes, to a greater extent	1
Yes I do	2
Sometimes yes	3
No	4

37. How is your child's performance?

Very Good	1
Good	2
Satisfactory	3
Weak	4
Do not know	5

38. Do you comment on your child's performance?

Yes I frequently do comment	1
No I don't	2
Sometimes I do	3

39. Do you know your child's educators?

Yes	1
No	2

40. Do you go to school on sports' day?

Yes, I frequently do go to school	1
Sometimes I do	2
No I don't	3

41. Have you ever offered your services to your child's school?

Yes	1
No	2

42. If your answer to (41) above is no, what could be the reason?

Have no time - always at work	1
Not aware that the school needs my services	2
Afraid to talk to my child's educators	3
Other (Please Specify)	4

43. Do you, as a parent, see the importance of educating your child?

Yes	1
No	2

SECTION D

Single parents and their children's forming of relationships with the outside world.

44. Do you guide your child on how to choose friends?

Yes	1
No	2

45. Does your child talk to you about his/her friends?

Yes, frequently	1
Sometimes Yes	2
No	3

46. Does your child tell you when she/he has a problem with his/her friends?

Yes	1
No	2

47. If your answer to 46 above is no - what could be the reason?

Have no time to spend discussing my child's problem	1
Work until very late and always find children asleep	2
Shy to discuss matters pertaining your child's friends	3
Other (Please Specify)	4

48. Do you allow your child's friends into your house?

Yes	1
No	2

49. If your answer to 48 is no please give a reason.....

50. Does your child like going to church?

Yes	1
No	2

51. If your answer to 50 above is yes, what active role does he/she play in your church?

52. Does your church provide activities which cater for the youth?

Yes	1
No	2

53. Are there activities meant to occupy youth during leisure time in your community?

Yes	1
No	2

54. If your answer in 53 above is Yes - do you encourage your child to participate?

Yes to a greater extent	1
Yes	2
Yes to aw lesser extent	3
No	4

55. Do you see the need for your child to be involved in community projects?

Agree	1
Disagree	2
Uncertain	3
Other (Please Specify)	4

SECTION E

Single Parents financial responsibilities

56. Is there anybody who helps to supplement your income?

Yes	1
No	2

57. Please tick in boxes apposite to all things you pay for.

School fees	1
Rent for the house	2
Water and electricity bills	3
Food	4
Furniture	5
Car	6
Clothing	7
Other (Please Specify)	8

58. If you are a pensioner, do you get your pension monthly?

Yes	1
No	2

59. If your answer to (58) above is no, how do you manage?

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THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION!!

IPHEPHA LOKUPHENDULA IMIBUZO LABAZALI ABANGABODWANA

INJONGO Injongo yaleliphepha ukuqoqa ulwazi ngeqhaza elibanjwa ngabazali abangabodwana emfundweni yezingane zabo kanye nezinkinga abahlangabezana nazo ngenhloso yokuzicwaninga.

INDLELA YOKUPHENDULA:

Kucelwa ukhombise lokho okuvumelana nawe ngokwenza iziphambano (x) esikweleni esifaneleyo noma unikeze impendulo esikhaleni esinikeziwe. Qaphela ukuthi azikho ezimpendulo ezingavumelekile. Ngakho-ke khululeka uphendule ngokwethembeka. Ungalibhali igama lakho ngoba ulwazi okuvele kuwe kufanele lube yimfihlo. Konke ozokusho kuzosetshenziswa kuphela ukucwaninga amacebo nokuxazulula izinkinga ohlangabezana nazo.

ISIQEPHU A: Okuphathelene nomlando wakho

1. Ubulili

Ungowesilisa	1
Ungowesifazane	2

2. Iminyaka

Ngaphansi kuka 15 iminyaka	1
Phakathi kuka 15 no 25	2
Phakathi kuka 26 no 35	3
Phakathi kuka 36 no 45	4
Ngaphezu kuka 45	5

3. Isimo somshado:

Awuhlali nowakwakho kodwa anihlukanisile	1
Nihlukanisile	2
Washonelwa	3
Awushadile	4

4. Izinga lemfundo:

Awukaze uye esikoleni	1
Phakathi kwebanga 1 kuya ku 4 (Grade 1 - 4)	2
Phakathi kwebanga 5 kuya ku 7 (Grade 5 - 7) (Std 3 - 5)	3
Phakathi kwebanga 8 kuya ku 10 (Grade 8 - 10) (Std 6 - 8)	4
Phakathi kwebanga 11 kuya ku 2 (Grade 11 - 12) (Std 9 - 10)	5
Emfundweni ephakeme (iziqu/amaqhuzu)	6

5. Indlela othola ngayo imali:

Uyasebenza (uqashiwe)	1
Uzisebenza wena	2
Uholo impesheni	3
Okunye (cacisa)	4

Uma uqashiwe:

6. Uhlobo lomsebenzi

Owase dlini	1
Owokukhiqiza	2
Owobuhlengikazi	3
Owokufundisa	4
Okunye (Chaza)	5

7. Umholo wonke wenyanga ngamarandi:

Ngaphansi kuka R100	1
Phakathi kuka R100 no R500	2
Phakathi kuka R500 no R1 000	3
Phakathi kuka R1000 no R1 500	4
Ngaphezu kuka R1 500 no R2000	5
Ngaphezu kuka R2 000	6

8. Amahora owasebenzayo ngesonto:

Ngaphansi kuka 20	1
Phakathi kuka 21 no 30	2
Phakathi kuka 31 no 40	3
Phakathi kuka 41 no 50	4
51 nangaphezulu	5

9. Uqashwe

Ngokugcwele	1
Ngokwesikhashana/okwetoho	2
Ngenye indlela (cacisa)	3

10. Isikhathi osuka ngaso ekhaya uya emsebenzini:

Ngaphambi kuka 5h00	1
Phakathi kuka 5h00 no 6h00	2
Phakathi kuka 6h00 no 7h00	3
Phakathi kuka 7h00 no 8h00	4
Esinye isikhathi (Chaza)	

11. Isikhathi ofika ngaso ekhaya uvela emsebenzini

Phakathi kuka 14h00 no 16h00	1
Phakathi kuka 16h00 no 18h00	2
Phakathi kuka 18h00 no 20h00	3
Phakathi kuka 20h00 no 22h00	4
Esinye isikhathi (Chaza)	5

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ISIQEPHU B: Umsebenzi wabazali abangabodwana ophathelene nemfundiso yasekhaya.

12. Uhlala

Endlini yakho?	1
Endlini yesihlobo sakho?	2
Endlini oyithelelayo?	3
Nezihlobo zakho?	4

13. Inani lezingane zakho

Awunazo	1
1 - 3	2
4 - 7	3
8 - 10	4
Ngaphezu kuka 10	5

14. Izingane zakho zihlala nobani?

Nawe	1
Nabazali bakho	2
Nomuntu omdala oyisihlobo	3
Nomzanyana	4
Okunye (cacisa)	

15. Ingane yakho iyakubuza imibuzo ephathelene nokukhula?

Yebo, ubuza njalo nje	1
Ngesinye isikhathi uyabuza	2
Cha, akakaze abuze	3

16. Kubalulekile yini ukuxoxa ngezinguquko zomzimba ezihambisana nokukhula kwengane yakho?

Ngiyavuma kakhulu	1
Ngiyavuma	2
Ngiyavuma kancane	3
Ngiyaphikisa	4
Anginasiqiniseko	5
Okunye (Chaza)	6

17. Uyaxoxisana yini nengane yakho ngezinguquko zomzimba ezilethwa wukukhula?

Yebo, kakhulu impela	1
Yebo, kancane	2
Cha	3

18. Uma impendulo yakho ku (17) ithi 'cha'. Chaza kafushane ukuthi kungani

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ISIQEPHU C

Abazali abangabodwana nemfundo yasesikoleni yezingane zabo : ucwaningo lwemisebenzi.

19. Unazo izingane ezifundayo esikoleni?

Yebo	1
Cha	2

20. Inani lezingane ezifunda esikoleni

0	1
1 - 3	2
4 - 5	3
Ngaphezu kuka 5	4

21. Unazo izingane ezifunde eNyuvesi/Thekhnikhoni/Thekhnikhali/Ekolishi?

Yebo	1
Cha	2

22. Uma impendulo yakho ku (21) kungu 'yebo', zingaki?

1 - 2	1
3 - 4	2
Ngaphezu kuka 4	3

23. Wazikhethela isikole izingane zakho?

Yebo	1
Cha	2

24. Wazikhethela izifundo izingane zakho?

Yebo	1
Cha	2

25. Uyayikhokhela imfundo yezingane zakho?

Yebo	1
Cha	2

26. Uma impendulo yakho ku 25 kungu 'cha' ubani okhokhayo?

Umfundaze	1
Abazali bakho	2
Okunye (Chaza)	3

27. Sikhuphi isikole sabantwana bakho?

Emaphandleni	1
Edolobheni	2

28. Imihlangano yabazali yesikole sezingane zakho ijwayele ukubanjwa

Phakhathi nesonto	1
Ngezimpelasonto	2

29. Ijwayele ukuba ngasiphi isikhathi imihlangano yabai esikoleni sengane yakho?

Emini	1
Kusihlwa	2

30. Ukuya kwakho emihlanganweni yabazali kunjani?

Awuphuthi	1
Uyaphutha	2
Awuyi nakancane	3

31. Uma impendulo yakho ku (30) ithi “wuyi nakancane” kungabe yisiphi isizathu?

Awuzitholi izaziso zemihlangano yabazali	1
Uyakhohlwa izinsuku nezikhathi zemihlangano	2
Imihlangano ibanjwa ngesikhathi somsebenzi	3
Imihlangano ibanjwa kusihlwa, awukwazi ukuya ngenxa yezinto zokuhamba	4
Okunye (cacisa)	5

32. Uyayihlola imiphumela yokuphela kwesigamu sonyaka yengane yakho?

Yebo, kakhulu impela	1
Yebo, ngiyakwenza	2
Ngesinye isikhathi ngiyayihlola	3
Cha	

33. Iqhuba kanjani ingane yakho?

Kahle kakhulu	1
Kahle	2
Ngokwanelisayo	
Kabi	
Angazi	

34. Uyaphawula yini ngendlela ingane yakho eqhuba ngayo?

Yebo	1
Cha	2

35. Uyabazi abafundisi/othisha bengane yakho?

Yebo	1
Cha	2

36. Uyaya esikoleni ngezinsuku zemidlalo?

Yebo, ngiyaya njalo esikoleni	1
Ngesinye isikhathi ngiyaya	2
Cha, angiyi	3

37. Usuke walunikela usizo lwakho esikoleni sengane yakho?

Yebo	1
Cha	2

38. Uma impendulo yakho ku 37 kungu "cha" - kungabe yini isizathu?

Anginaso isikhathi - njalo ngisemsebenzini	1
Angazi ukuthi isikole sidinga usizo lwani	2
Ngiyesaba ukuxoxa nothisha bengane yami	3
Okunye (Chaza)	4

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39. Wena, ngengomzali, uyasibona yini isidingo sokufundisa ingane yakho?

Yebo	1
Cha	2

ISIQEPHU D

Abazali abangabodwana nokuxhumana kwezingane zabo nezwe.

40. Uyameluleka yini umntwana wakho ngendlela yokukhetha abangani?

Yebo	1
Cha	2

41. Ingane yakho iyakuxoxela yini ngabangane bayo?

Yebo, njalo nje	1
Yebo, ngesinye isikhathi	2
Cha	3

42. Ingane yakho iyakutshela yini uma inenkinga nabangane bayo?

Yebo	1
Cha	2

43. Uma impendulo ku (42) kungu "cha" - kungabe yini isizathu?

Asikho isikhathi sokuxoxa nengane yami ngezinkinga zayo	1
Ngibuya emsebenzini njalo izingane sezilele	2
Nginamahloni ukuxoxa izindaba eziphathelene nabangane bengane yami	3
Okunye (Cacisa)	

44. Uyabangenisa abangane bengane yakho endlimi yakho?

Yebo	1
Cha	2

45. Uma impendulo yakho ku (44) kungu “cha”, nikeza isizathu

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.....

46. Uyathanda ukuya esontweni umntwana wakho?

Yebo	1
Cha	2

47. Uma impendulo yakho ku (46) ithi “Yebo” - yiliphi iqhaza elibanjwe yingane yakho esontweni?

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48. Ikhona yini imidlalo ehlelelwe intsha yebandla?

Yebo	1
Cha	2

49. Ikhona yini imidlalo ehlelelwe intsha ngesikhathi sokuphumula emphakathini?

Yebo	1
Cha	2

50. Uma impendulo ku (49) ithi “yebo” - wena uyamkhuthaza yini umntwana wakho ukuba abambe iqhaza?

Yebo - kakhulu	1
Yebo	2
Yebo - kancane	3
Cha	4

51. Sikhona yini isidingo sokuthi ingane yakho ibambe iqhaza emisebenzini yomphakathi?

Yebo	1
Cha	2
Anginasiqiniseko	3
Okunye (cacisa)	4

ISIQEPHU E

Abazali abangabodwana nemisebenzi ephathelene nezimali

52. Unaye umuntu okwelekelelayo ukungenisa imali

Yebo	1
Cha	2

53. Khetha zonke izinto ozikhokhelayo kulezi:

Imali yesikole	1
Ukhokhela indlu	2
Imali yamanzi nogesi	3
Ukudla	4
Ifenisha (izimpahla zasendlini)	5
Imoto	6
Izingubo	7
Okunye (Chaza)	8

54. Uma uholo impesheni - uyithola nyanga zonke?

Yebo	1
Cha	2

55. Uma impendulo yakho ku (54) ithi “cha” - uphumelela kanjani ukwenza konke?

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SIYABONGA NGOKUZINIKELA KWAKHO UKUSINIKA IZIMPENDULO