THE PASTORAL ROLE OF THE LECTURER

IN COLLEGES OF EDUCATION

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DECLARATION

I declare that this dissertation, unless specifically
indicated to the contrary, is my own original work.

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the nature and extent of the pastoral role of lecturers at two colleges of education in KwaZulu-Natal. A questionnaire was constructed based on the published findings of Easton and Van Laar (1995) and of Hart (1996). The sample comprised 32 lecturers at College 1 and 42 at College 2. This was a response rate of 62 per cent.

The following issues were investigated: the perception of lecturers of the importance of and need for providing pastoral care to students, the types of problems on which students have been counselled by lecturers, their confidence in dealing with particular problems, the importance they attach to certain helping skills, and their use of counselling skills.

The data was analysed statistically and a comparison made between College 1, College 2 and the published findings of Easton and Van Laar (1995) and Hart (1996) where applicable, using appropriate methods.

All of the respondents stated that during the previous year they had "counselled" students on problems, the most frequently encountered being financial and health problems, examination anxiety and lack of confidence. More than 70 per cent of the respondents considered helping students with problems to be an important and valuable part of their work, but more than 75 per cent were dissatisfied with the help they gave and less than 20 per cent were very confident in dealing with problems. The need for trained counsellors was expressed as well as for training in counselling skills to be given to lecturers.

Given that the pastoral role of the lecturer has been neglected, recommendations for further research were made.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Rationale of the study

In recent years there has been a growth in awareness of the need
for the provision of counselling in educational settings. The
role of educators has been recognized as being more than the
transmission of subject content. A review of literature covering
the past few decades indicates that more than a third of both
high school and post-high school students have reported needing
help with academic, vocational and personal problems (Hutchinson
& Reagan 1989:273).

Colleges of education occupy a unique position between secondary
schools and universities in that the provision of formal
counselling services and student support is often lacking. The
development of the tutorial system at colleges has led to the
role of the tutor/lecturer becoming complex and involving the use
of counselling skills.

This study was designed to investigate the pastoral role of the
lecturer in colleges of education. As far as could be determined
from the available literature, it is a pioneer study on this
subject in KwaZulu-Natal and possibly in South Africa. The
studies conducted in England, by Hart (1996) and Easton and Van
Laar (1995), were a stimulus for the researcher, and this study
is a partial replication of these studies.

The study was triggered by the author's experience at a college
of education where a tutorial system operates in some subjects.
As a tutor, the author was approached on several occasions by
students requiring help with problems. The college does have a
lecturer who is trained in counselling but who is not actually
employed as a counsellor. However, he reports that he often has

students coming to him for counselling. These experiences highlighted the possible need for counselling services in colleges where no provision has been made in the past.

In South Africa, there has been the provision of guidance and counselling in some schools, and many universities have student counselling services. With regard to schools, studies concerning the role, functions and effectiveness of the guidance teacher have been conducted in other countries such as the United States, Britain, Nigeria and Australia, but "little research on these issues has been carried out in South Africa" (Skuy *et al* 1985:267). Where studies have been conducted, it has usually been from the perspective of the learners and not from the point of view of the teachers themselves and how they see their counselling role. An area of even greater neglect are studies of the perceptions that teachers who are not trained counsellors have of their role.

In universities, student counselling has mostly been provided by practitioners based in student counselling services. In colleges of education, separate student counselling services do not seem to have been provided, and it is possible that certain lecturers might have taken on a counselling role. There do not appear to be South African studies of the perceptions that lecturers at tertiary institutions, particularly colleges of education, have of their role.

In this study of the pastoral role of lecturers at colleges of education, the following issues will be included in the investigation:
* the perception of lecturers regarding the importance of and need for providing pastoral care to students;
* the types of problems on which students have been counselled by lecturers;
* lecturers' confidence in their ability to meet the personal counselling component of the role i.e. how confident they feel in dealing with a list of particular problems;

* personal aims and objectives of lecturers in relation to their role i.e. they will be asked to rank a list of skills in order of importance; and
* knowledge of counselling skills i.e. how frequently they use a number of common counselling skills.

1.2 Definition of concepts

Some of the key concepts to be used in this study will now be defined and explained in terms of their function in an educational setting.

1.2.1 Pastoral care

Pastoral care is an umbrella term which incorporates guidance and counselling. It cannot be separated from the teacher's daily work, because teachers are able to observe learners and are available to help them with difficulties as they arise. Some connotations of the term have a religious orientation however and Corsini's (1994:20) description of the advantage which pastors may have over counselling professionals, could also be applied to educators in their pastoral role. Educators, too, are more easily reached by persons in need, are perceived as less threatening, available in times of crises, have ongoing rapport that has been built up over a period of months or years and a basis for helping built on mutual respect, empathy, warmth, understanding and sincere consistent caring.

Hamblin (1978:xv) gives the following definition of pastoral care:

> It is that element of the teaching process which centres around the personality of the pupil and the forces in his environment which either facilitate or impede the development of intellectual and social skills and ... emotional stability. The pastoral effort is also concerned with the modification of the learning environment ... so

that every pupil has the maximum chance of success whatever his background or general ability.

This highlights an approach which acknowledges the learner more holistically and takes cognisance of the many factors which influence the learners' response in a learning environment.

1.2.2 Guidance

Although guidance and counselling are sometimes used interchangeably, Hamblin (1983:44) explains that the traditional distinction has been that guidance is directive and counselling non-directive. Guidance involves advising, giving direction or leading. It tends to have a preventative function. According to Dovey and Mason (1984:23), school guidance in South Africa under the previous government was used as a means of social control with different emphases for different racial groups. The guidance service for whites stressed group identity and cultural conformity, whereas that for blacks stressed behavioural norms and conformity to the demands of the work-place. In the post-apartheid era, educational institutions have needed to re-examine their approaches to guidance, and to make explicit the underlying philosophy. In this thesis, counselling rather than guidance is the focus of study.

1.2.3 Counselling

There are many definitions of counselling, but the following are useful for our purpose here:

Chambers Dictionary (1993) defines counselling as:
> (a service consisting of) helping people to adjust to or
> deal with personal problems, etc. by enabling them to
> discover for themselves the solution to the problems while
> receiving sympathetic attention from a counsellor;
> (sometimes) the giving of advice on miscellaneous problems.

This definition emphasises the client-centred nature of counselling which is generally non-directive. This is further illustrated in the following:

"Counseling is a one-to-one helping relationship which focuses upon the individual's growth and adjustment, and problem-solving and decision-making needs. It is a client-centered process that demands confidentiality" (Gibson & Mitchell 1981:27).

Shertzer and Stone (1968) emphasise the role of counselling in improving insight and understanding and its role in assisting decision making. "Counselling is an interaction process which facilitates meaningful understanding of self and environment and results in the establishment and/or clarification of goals and values for future behavior" (1968:26).

In Chapter 2 pastoral care, guidance and counselling in the educational context will be discussed in more detail, with particular emphasis on their relevance in a college of education.

1.3 The scope of the research

This study was designed specifically to ascertain the extent and type of assistance given to students at colleges of education by lecturers who are not trained counsellors. It also endeavoured to estimate the degree of confidence or lack of confidence experienced by the lecturers when helping students.

Two Colleges of Education in KwaZulu-Natal were chosen as research sites because of their accessibility to the researcher. The student bodies at the colleges were different in their composition, one of the colleges having only black students while the other college was multiracial, having formerly served only the white population group. The opinions of lecturers at both colleges were sought regarding the assistance they provided students on matters other than those related to their academic

needs. A comparison of the findings was made to find out whether there were any significant differences between the perceptions of the two proups of lecturers regarding their pastoral roles.

These findings were also compared with the findings of two surveys undertaken in England, by Easton and Van Laar (1995) and Hart (1996). "England" is used specifically rather than United Kingdom as the Scottish education system differs from that of England and Wales.

1.4 Outline of chapters

This study comprises the following chapters:

Chapter 1, the Introduction, provides the overall rationale for the study, and defines certain key terms used in this dissertation.

Chapter 2 provides a background to the pastoral care movement and gives a review of the literature associated with the research topic.

Chapter 3 discusses the research design used to collect data in order to answer the research questions; the research instrument, the participants and the procedure.

Chapter 4 presents the data collected from the respondents and includes both a description and statistical analysis of the results.

Chapter 5 discusses the findings of the survey and links these with the review of literature discussed in Chapter 2. The limitations of the research are acknowledged and recommendations for future research and programme development in colleges of education are made.

Chapter 6, the conclusion, summarizes the research as a whole.

1.5 Conclusion

As indicated earlier, as far as is known, this is a pioneer study in the area of the pastoral role of lecturers in colleges of education in KwaZulu-Natal and in South Africa. It is hoped that the information provided as a consequence of the results of the study will be helpful to those who wish to do further research in this field in the future.

A review of the relevant literature, which formed the theoretical basis for the study, follows in Chapter Two.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL BASIS AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter the pastoral care movement and the impact it has had on counselling in the educational setting are considered. The role of guidance and counselling at schools in South Africa is briefly discussed as well as the extent to which counselling is available in colleges and universities. Thereafter the studies in England, undertaken by Easton and Van Laar (1995) and Hart (1996) are described.

It is apparent from the literature that there is quite a difference in approach to pastoral care and counselling in the United States of America (USA) from that in Britain. In the former, student advising is a distinct profession and institutions usually make extensive provisions for student counselling, whereas in the latter "amateur pastoral care and professional counselling are seen as the main ways of giving students formal and organized support" (Earwaker 1992:102). The South African pattern would seem to follow that in Britain rather than that of the USA.

2.2 The pastoral care movement

During the first three decades of the 1900s, the field of counselling began to emerge from developments in career counselling. During the 1940s and 1950s Carl Rogers's self-concept theory of meeting the needs of young people as they themselves perceived them, was the major influence.

> His nondirective counseling stressed that individuals have
> within themselves sufficient resources to resolve their own
> problems if only they can be provided with a warm,

nurturing environment in which their personal resources can be employed (Bradley 1978:42).

The pastoral care movement was, in part, influenced by developments in understanding the helping process. The client-centred approach, which was pioneered by Rogers in 1942, is a way of enabling people to incorporate new experiences into what has been learned previously "in order to acquire a more flexible concept of self" (Torrington 1991:150). The appeal of this counselling approach "is that it is feasible for the lay person to adopt and comes close to normal everyday behaviour" (Torrington 1991:151). The pastoral care movement was influenced by the above developments in its focus on the needs of each individual. Pastoral care in the 1970s had become firmly established as a permanent organisational structure in schools in Britain (Lowe 1988:25).

The earliest universities in Britain were established as religious foundations with the students entrusted to a mentor. This explains why student support is seen in terms of pastoral care with strong religious and moral overtones (Earwaker 1992:103).

> The term "pastoral care" draws our attention to the way in which the task of the teacher has something in common with that of the priest or parent. It is true that sometimes pastoral care in the school has been a myth behind which there was little reality ... Yet for most teachers, the caring part of their job is not only important, but part of their very identity as teachers ... it cannot be too strongly stated that the introduction of counsellors does not leave the class teacher without a caring responsibility. Unless this is understood, unnecessary conflict will develop between the counsellor and some of his colleagues (Hamblin 1974:3-4).

Marland emphasized the importance of pastoral care, maintaining that "all pastoral care has a teaching element, and the converse

is equally true: you cannot 'teach' at all effectively without establishing some form of relationship" (1974:8).

Lowe (1988:58) saw pastoral care and the tutorial role as moving from the outskirts of the educational endeavour to the centre in curriculum considerations. This had previously been suggested by Marland, who saw the pastoral undertaking as the central one, because the "overall good of the young person is ... wider than the subject teaching" (1974:10). Hamblin (1978:1) advocated the "carefully planned integration of the pastoral and the curricular", rather than merely giving "emotional first-aid".

Marland (1974:10) lists a number of complementary separate aims for the broad area of 'pastoral care':

    (i) to assist the individual to enrich his personal
        life;
   (ii) to help prepare the young person for educational
        choice;
  (iii) to offer guidance or counselling, helping young
        people to make their own decisions - by question
        and focus, and by information where appropriate;
   (iv) to support the 'subject' teaching;
    (v) to assist the individual to develop his or her own
        life-style and to respect that of others;
   (vi) to maintain an orderly atmosphere in which all this
        is possible.

These aims were situated in a particular philosophy of education, rooted in the Humanistic tradition, with its emphasis on the whole person.

According to Hamblin (1978:xv), the primary task of the pastoral team is "to develop an environment which adapts to the needs of pupils of all abilities and backgrounds". Pastoral care should be an integral part of life within the classroom with clear procedures for dealing with crises to ensure that immediate help is available to a pupil under stress. Pastoral care needs to be

purposeful because it is concerned with "personal development" (1978:6).

It seems to Hamblin that pastoral care systems need to meet several basic needs. These are that somebody in the school should really know every pupil, and that relationships are built up which have both continuity and depth, thereby expressing care and concern in a way which is evident to the learner (1974:314). The teacher's pastoral role is strengthened by the presence of a counsellor in the school. Later writers have also emphasised the importance of pastoral care, for example:

> An effective pastoral care system will continuously monitor the influence of the school organisation on the social, academic and emotional performance of pupils in addition to encouraging the use of effective techniques for developing personal awareness and skills (Cowie and Pecherek 1994:21).

There has been a growing critical analysis of pastoral care. One assertion is that statements about pastoral care tend to lay down what it ought to be rather than realistic assessments of what actually goes on in schools (Best et al in Lowe 1988:29). Another problem is that it is often accepted in theory, but not in practice, that class teachers have a responsiblity for pastoral care (Galloway 1981:122). Hamblin suggests that training courses should be arranged to extend the pastoral care skills of educators (1978:261).

Unfortunately, pastoral care can amount to a development of system and mechanism in respect of support structures and careers advice rather than of the warmth of staff-student relationships (Holt 1980:81). Hamblin (1978:141) maintains that the major weakness in the pastoral care system often stems from the fact that tutors are not trained to detect and deal with the first signs of stress and difficulty.

To guard against this, Lowe (1988:30) holds that pastoral care "involves direct intervention in the teaching and learning

programme. It has to merge with the whole educative thrust of the school." In South Africa this may have been implicit in the approach of some educators, but not necessarily explicit within school programmes.

Earwaker (1992:106-107) challenges the tradition of pastoral care in higher education because he feels that it is arrogant and one-sided to expect tutors, who have their own personal problems, to help adult students.

In South Africa, pastoral care has not been recognised to the same extent as in Britain, and although some schools may have informal structures which may reflect some of the features identified above, many schools would be described in the following: "By and large schools do not help children to develop life skills but rely on individual teachers and their understanding of what can be achieved within their subjects" (Heywood 1984:93). Yet, according to Lawrence, teaching is more effective when the teacher is able to combine the development of skills and self-esteem. "Self-esteem enhancement contributes positively towards both academic achievement and towards personal and social development" (1987:xi). He asserts that the teacher is in a powerful position to be able to influence a student's self-esteem through the establishment of "particular caring relationships with students" (1987:ix).

2.3 Counselling in the educational setting

Counselling has gained in importance in educational settings in a number of countries. Several studies have been undertaken to determine the nature and extent of both the need for and provision of counselling in schools and tertiary institutions. The section below briefly outlines certain key aspects of counselling, and discusses the links between counselling and teaching.

Cowie and Pecherek (1994:22) maintain that pastoral care issues are directly linked to counselling because both need to take into account what the learners say, in other words, listening is very important. Counselling has developed from the non-directive approach of Rogers whereby "effective counselling consists of a definitely structured permissive relationship which allows the client to gain an understanding of himself" (Rogers, in Hamblin 1974:4). Counselling is thus dependent on the development of a specific type of relationship because "counselling is only possible in a relationship of trust" (Bond 1993:147). According to Rogers (1969:228), realness, or genuineness or congruence is a fundamental basis for the best of communication.

Counselling promotes an increase in understanding and insight on the part of the counsellee. It "involves learning about self and about how that self relates to other people" (Lowe 1988:70-71). Once the problem has been explored in the context of the counsellor's using particular listening skills, the counsellee is encouraged to consider various options and is assisted in decision-making. "Counselling is about helping people to help themselves to live their lives more effectively" (Woolfe et al 1987:35).

Some of the counselling skills mentioned by Rogers (1969) include listening, clarifying, reflecting, summarising, structuring, and promoting self-esteem. The questionnaire which was used in this study included these skills as well as others which should be used sparingly, such as questioning, and others not recommended for use in the counselling situation, such as giving advice (De Haas 1994:42-45). (See Sections E and F of the questionnaire.)

According to McLeod & Machin (1998:325), "at the heart of counselling is a conversation between two or more people". Contextual factors such as the counselling room itself and the cultural beliefs, values and prejudices of both the counsellor and client can influence the relationship between the counsellor and client, the counselling process and the outcomes of the

counselling.

The approach to counselling described above developed chiefly in the USA and Britain. Its relevance to other settings has been questioned because "counselling takes place in the context of culture and society as a whcle" (McLeod & Machin 1998:328).

One of the aspects of the approach to counselling is its non-directive nature: "those who are being helped are encouraged to play an active part in the helping process. This is essential if they are to learn how to help themselves" (Woolfe *et al* 1987:38). Many counsellors strive not to influence their clients. However, Dryden and Feltham (1992) state: "We feel that it is an unavoidable fact in counselling that you do wield influence" (58-59).

Counsellors are not always able to be completely non-directive. Sometimes they have to give encouragement to the counsellee to move through four stages, i.e. exploring their problem, understanding their problem, decision making and putting decisions into action (Woolfe *et al* 1987:38-40). Hamblin maintains that the non-directive approach to counselling may be ineffective or may actually be harmful to some learners, because insight alone is insufficient to change behaviour (1974:36). Tennyson *et al* found that counsellors spend a great deal of time working with individual students to accomplish three aims: "(a) resolve personal problems, (b) formulate educational and career plans, and (c) schedule students' courses" (1989:257). They believe that "the individual approach must be examined critically against the promise of reaching larger numbers of students and perhaps doing a better job of developmental education through small-group and classroom guidance activities" (1989:257).

Writers who support the provision of counselling in educational settings see counselling as responsive to the needs of learners. "A prerequisite for effective counselling is a careful assessment on the part of the teacher of the child's needs and how the

school can meet these needs" (Cowie & Pecherek 1994:21). In many settings it is not possible for a counsellor to be appointed, and the suggestion is that teachers undertake the role of counselling. "Perhaps the most constructive thing that can happen is for the class teacher to begin to appreciate his own importance as a participant in the counselling process" (Hamblin 1974:4).

Rogers (1969) combines years of experience and research in psychotherapy with classroom experience to give useful ideas to educators. He maintains that the facilitation of significant learning rests on certain attitudinal qualities in the relationship between the facilitator and the learner. He explains these as realness or genuineness (1969:106), prizing, non-possessive caring for, acceptance of and trust in the learner (1969:109) and empathic understanding, that is, a sensitive awareness of the way the process of education and learning seems to the student (1969:111). Teachers characterised by these attitudes are not only effective in facilitating learning and understanding of self, but their learners learn more because they are given the opportunity to be "responsibly free" (1969:144).

Where counsellors are appointed to schools, it is nevertheless necessary for teachers and counsellors to work together. The effective school counsellor does not work in isolation. "He depends on the help given by his fellow teachers ... The trained counsellor offers support and added strength in a spirit of humility" (Hamblin 1974:4). Counsellors also have skills which can be of value to teachers: "the counselor possesses needed skills that could become a valuable resource for staff development" (Rice & Smith 1993:201). These writers assert that the counsellor has "expertise to assist teachers in becoming more successful, and schools need what counselors can share and model" (Rice & Smith 1993:205).

Counsellors in schools may, however, limit their role. "Counselors may, as a result of their training, personality

inclination, or workload, be more responsive than initiatory in their actions" (Rowe 1989:264). Hence, many good resources may not be widely used because students do not have adequate exposure to counselors.

In South Africa, in some schools, counselling was part of the role of guidance teachers. A study by Skuy, Hoar, Oakley-Smith and Westaway (1985:272) among white learners and teachers at Johannesburg high schools found that teachers overrated the guidance teachers' perceived role as a helping agent, while not regarding their own role as helping agent as appropriate. However, about the same degree of preference was shown by learners for other teachers as for the guidance teachers when it came to their role as helping agents. Similar findings were reported by Haffajee (1991) in her study of learners' and teachers' perceptions of the school counsellor at Indian high schools. Ntshangase (1995) investigated the perceptions of black high school learners with regard to the usefulness of the guidance provided in their schools and found that learners did not perceive the guidance teacher as the preferred helping agent, although they reported that they would feel comfortable approaching the guidance teacher with their concerns.

There is sometimes confusion concerning the role and function of school counsellors. The following studies have been conducted in the USA to investigate this issue: Helms and Ibrahim (1985:273) conducted a survey to compare counsellor perceptions with those of the parents of secondary school students. It was found that there was agreement on most items, but that counsellors viewed *Personal and Educational Counselling* and *Public Relations* as more important functions than the parents did.

The research by Remley and Albright showed that middle school teachers saw a tremendous need for counsellors but felt that counsellors spent too much time on administrative tasks instead of on helping teachers and students (1988:293).

Wilgus and Shelley (1988:260) conducted a study to find out how staff members perceive counsellors to spend their time, how they expect them to, and the actual time spent in different counsellor functions. There was general agreement between staff member perceptions and expectations and actual use of counsellor time.

The results of Gibson's survey showed that teachers currently continue to recognise that "individual counseling is the most important and primary responsibility of the school counselor" (1990:253).

The findings of the above studies would seem to indicate that teachers perceive the role of the school counsellor to be very important, yet many schools, particularly in South Africa, do not have a counsellor. This is a legacy from the previous education system when South African schools were segregated by legislation according to race and language, with white schools having a guidance service, but guidance for other racial groups consisting mainly, if at all, as a testing service. (Dovey 1980a:2-3). Teachers are therefore often called upon to fulfil the role of counsellor. According to Hamblin, not all teachers can be successful counsellors. The personality of the counsellor will influence the interaction between him and the learner, and "not every teacher can create the conditions necessary for honest self-exploration and helpful communication" (1974:11).

An issue which has often been raised is whether or not it is possible to combine the teacher and counsellor role, because the teacher traditionally occupies an authority role and this could inhibit communication and the development of trust between the counsellor and the learner. "All counselling demands a degree of co-operation between client and counsellor which is distinguishable from the usual authoritarian relationship between pupil and teacher" (Holden 1969:69).

This view ignores the presence of warm trusting relationships between many teachers and learners. Many teachers are involved

in informal extramural activities with learners, teaching the same learners formally during the day without any problems. "There is no inevitable conflict implicit in the combination of teaching and counselling roles" (Hamblin 1974:190). Hamblin sees a link between counselling and teaching because both are based on interpersonal relationships. He goes on to argue that it is possible for a teacher to counsel as well, "provided one is capable of behaving appropriately in both roles" (1974:103). This would seem to be in line with developments in education in the 1990's where teachers are encouraged to take on the role of facilitation of learning, a role which is less directive (Rogers & Freiberg 1994). Hutchinson and Reagan (1989:278) found that learners identify counsellors by the functions they perform and do not draw clear distinctions between their teachers and counsellors. This would lend support to the concept of the whole school approach, whereby all staff are involved in meeting the needs of learners. Due to financial and practical constraints, few educational institutions in South Africa can employ counsellors, and even if they do, teaching cannot be divorced from the broader pastoral system.

2.4 Counselling in colleges and universities

Most of the literature which links pastoral care and counselling to education, is pertinent to the school situation. However, Woolfe et al suggest that whether one likes it or not or recognises it or not, "the teaching of adults itself constitutes a form of counselling" (1987:5). According to Potter (1996:576), the need for counselling and guidance services for adult learners is not sufficiently recognised or funded. Usher and Edwards examine theories and principles relating to the guidance and counselling of adults and suggest that the field of guidance and counselling should go beyond the limits of "skills, experience, contracts, and client-centredness in order to construct more critical self-understandings" (1995).

Gibson and Mitchell (1981:68) observe that the majority of counsellors in higher education institutions in the United States and Canada are employed at universities and offer personal, academic and vocational counselling. According to McLeod and Machin (1998:328), counsellors employed within universities are faced with a situation in which rationality and achievement are valued and emotional distress is largely ignored. Although most universities tend to have formal counselling services, these are generally separate from academic roles of lecturers. Many students need counselling or even specialist psychiatric support as a result of the demands of a university course, often coupled with financial and relationship difficulties, yet few published studies exist of these services (Surtees *et al* 1998:255).

Colleges of education differ from both secondary school and higher education in their provision of counselling and student support. This is discussed by Hart (1996:86) who asserts that counselling in a college setting has developed through the traditional pastoral care route towards a more professional service. The Hutchinsons (quoted by Woolfe *et al* 1987:141) support the idea that "the counselling function is intimately tied up with the tutor's role and is to be regarded as a basic professional skill of the adult educator." A feature of colleges is the tutorial system which claims guidance and counselling functions, but does not explicitly state how much personal counselling tutors are expected to do (Hart 1996:86), thus both trained counsellors and untrained tutors offer support to students in distress.

Colleges seem to fall between schools and universities and the students are not provided for formally when it comes to counselling and guidance. According to Holt (1980:103), colleges have a tradition of care, of a close and easy link between tutor and student, which derives from and extends into the quality of teaching.

"Different needs and different people require helpers to adopt different strategies and tactics when helping them", according to Woolfe *et al* (1987:55). The person seeking help with anxiety about examinations may need a different helping approach from the person seeking help because of difficulties in their relationships with another adult or group of adults.

The young adult needs a more supportive advice system than many colleges of education have developed, but it does not need to be as structured as that of the school. "The tertiary colleges have recognised that the key point here is the linkage between the three-cornered system of student, pastoral tutor and academic course" (Holt 1980:104).

Bramley (1977:22) considers that tutors, more than counsellors, "can give real help, both personally and with information" to students who usually find it easier to talk to tutors and classmates they know, rather than to some distant professional counsellor, whom they have never met.

Luzio-Lockett points out that very little attention appears to be paid to the disruptive effect that the personal circumstances in the lives of students has on their study and "the deleterious effect it can have on the whole experiential process" (1998:219). This is particularly relevant in a multicultural setting. Many students in institutions where there is no tutoring system but a legion of non-academic counsellors may be seen only when they are at the end of their tether and often they do not see anyone at all (Bramley 1977:37). Gallagher *et al* (1992) found that most college students who responded to their survey, particularly black students, experienced stress. According to Harrington, there should ideally be a professional counsellor available as a reference person, "but a nonprofessional can do the job if taught how to check elsewhere when encountering difficult questions" (1977:68).

A reason why some students do not seek help may be a cultural one. "Edwards (1983) stresses that a general disposition shared by some black people is that personal problems should not be discussed outside the family" (in Alladin 1993:53). Barnsley's study (1991) investigated black and white students' attitudes towards and beliefs about counselling at a South African university and found that black students were more likely to seek help from formal help sources for information about faculty rules, vacation employment and study skills, while white students made more use of informal help sources.

Kolo examined students' concerns and preferences for guidance counselling at four higher institutions of learning in Nigeria. "Results show that students generally preferred nonexpert guidance for problem resolution" (1994). Students usually only chose expert guidance when the issue was educational, rather than personal-social or vocational.

Rickinson (1998:100) found in her study that "vulnerable and distressed students do not usually take the initiative to access the help that is available to them." Evidence suggests that "women are more likely than men to seek help and self-refer generally", but this view may prompt tutors to seek help unnecessarily on behalf of men, leading to a disproportionate reliance on external referring agencies" (Scarbrough & Hicks 1998:234). When counsellors have a better understanding of 'barriers' to help-seeking, they will be better able to focus their services on those people who really need help, but who have not been able to bring themselves to get help (Grayson *et al* 1998:237).

Grayson *et al* state that the ultimate aim of studies into help-seeking is to find ways of encouraging those that need professional help to get that help (1998:250). McLennan (1991:150) suggests that students who seek help from formal counselling providers may experience this help differently from that provided by informal helpers, and that the determinants of

helpee-satisfaction with formal counselling help sources may differ from the determinants of satisfaction with informally provided help.

McLennan (1991:155) found that students who sought help brought the same types of problems to formal counsellors and informal helpers, but "the problems brought to counsellors were those which tended to be perceived as being relatively more pressing", although they were not necessarily more serious. A student's level of subjective distress seemed to be an important factor in determining whether help was sought formally or informally. He concluded that students are likely to seek formal counselling help when personal concerns "are experienced as particularly distressing" (1991:157). Counselling seemed to be experienced as more intense and satisfying, whereas informal help was more comforting but had less impact.

Some tutors who were interviewed by Earwaker were keenly aware of their lack of counselling skills and sometimes felt overwhelmed by the problems which were brought to them. However, they were wary of committing themselves to further training opportunities because they already felt under such pressure. Their role became a burden to them because they were often unaware of other sources of help (1992:50). "Personal tutoring demands much emotional energy and can produce a lot of strain in conscientious staff" (Bramley 1977:42). According to Hui and Chan (1996:207), "guidance-related aspects of work emerged as a major dimension of stress" in their study. Some tutors seem to be uncertain as to how to reconcile the development of a personal relationship with the performance of a professional task (Earwaker 1992:51).

According to Rivis, most British academic staff have no formal qualifications in either teaching or guidance, although there is some evidence that "academics are seeking training in interpersonal skills and basic counselling techniques" (1996:55). This is usually via in-house programmes organised by the

institution's own staff development unit. However, Bramley observes that if applicants for teaching posts "were fundamentally unsympathetic to personal tutoring no amount of training programmes would turn them into skilled personal tutors" (1977:39). On the other hand, according to Rogers and Freiberg, it is possible "for any teacher to move in the direction of becoming more real, more sensitively understanding, more caring in relation to his or her students" (1994:342).

Newsome, Thorne and Wyld hold the conviction that counselling should not be seen as an optional extra for those institutions fortunate enough to be able to afford a counsellor but as "a central and integral part of the educational process for all students" (1973:3). Dovey suggests that an alternative counselling programme should attract people "who are genuinely committed to helping others" (1980b:97).

Bramley (1977:39-40) describes a tutoring system which involves all teachers and sees this as advantageous because it provides early identification of learners' problems and evidence about withdrawal from courses and under-achievement. Student Counselling and other services give support to tutors who are drawn into difficult situations. In-service training is provided to give educators confidence and enable them to be effective. The tutoring system should be seen as an indispensable part of college life.

Elton Wilson observes that the clash between "the opposing needs of financial constraints and an increasingly distressed student population" is being widely debated in higher education (1994:429). She found that there is an expanding demand for good professional counselling, yet increasing resource restraints. She describes the setting up of a network of trained part-time counsellors with the emphasis on providing a professional service (1994:430). Other models of student counselling provision suggested by Elton Wilson are:

1. The use of voluntary part-time counsellors from among the academic staff (usually an informal arrangement);

2. A small number of paid part-time counsellors under the supervision of a full-time counsellor;

3. A team of three or four full-time counsellors (1994:444).

Watts *et al* (1997) suggest the pooling of funding and merging educational guidance services for adults within colleges of further and higher education.

Several studies have been conducted in the USA on the perception of the need for counselling services at colleges and universities. In a study by Jennings (1996) at a college, the areas which were rated by students to be of greatest concern included financial stresses, academic performance, career development and relationship skills.

Bradley *et al* (1995) found that international students at a college of education turned to academic staff before counsellors, suggesting that familiarity influenced preferences for choosing a helper. The findings also emphasized the importance of the counselling relationship.

Harris and Kranz (1991) explored the changes and development in the roles and functions of college counselling centres. They found that there has been a shift towards a focus on personal counselling and increased severity of students' problems. Restricted staffing and limited budgets have had an impact on small counselling centres. A similar study was conducted by Stone and Archer (1990) on the challenges and limits facing counseling centres. They concluded that demands and resources would have to be balanced.

When Navin (1992) asked students and staff at the University of Botswana to indicate if a counselling centre should be created there, the types of services they preferred and the nature of student concerns, there was an overwhelming response which

indicated the need for trained counsellors to be available.

Most of the studies which have been conducted on counselling in the educational setting have investigated the perceptions of learners regarding counsellors. Some of these have included the extent to which other teachers have been approached for help. However, Avery (1997), who studied student perceptions of the use of contact time at a distance college of education, comments that the provision of student support is not strongly grounded in theory.

Very few surveys seem to have been conducted to determine how educators themselves see their helping role. Mazibuko conducted a study at a college of education in Swaziland in an attempt to ascertain how lecturers perceived their roles, how their perception affected the performance of their students and whether the lecturers were perceived in the same way by all those in education. However, the results of the study were "not clear and decisive" (1983:107), the main role being seen as teaching. Easton and Van Laar (1995) and Hart (1996) conducted surveys in England to investigate lecturers perceptions of their role, and their findings will now be described.

2.5 The findings of Easton and Van Laar (1995) and Hart (1996)

The published findings of Easton and Van Laar (1995) and Hart (1996) will now be described. Their articles seemed particularly relevant to concerns of the author and gave enough details of their surveys for them to be partially replicated by this present study. Both studies were undertaken in England.

Easton and Van Laar (1995) conducted a survey of the experiences and opinions of lecturers at a British polytechnic (now a university) to gauge the extent to which lecturers are called upon to help distressed students. Informal observations

suggested that students in higher education were increasingly reporting distress and the dropout rate of students due to personal problems was also increasing. They wanted to determine whether the anecdotal evidence could be supported.

According to Easton and Van Laar (1995:173), some students still choose to present their difficulties to lecturers even though a range of other sources of counselling advice are now usually available to them. Lecturers may then be drawn into problems which may require specific skills or training. The aim of their study was "to quantify the amount of informal support for distressed students that lecturers were involved in at work, and to ask lecturers how they felt about these experiences" (Easton & Van Laar 1995:174).

They sent questionnaires with addressed return envelopes to all the lecturers at the polytechnic and 231 of the 567 questionnaires were returned. Ninety-seven per cent of the respondents reported dealing with at least one distressed student during the year preceding the study. Many lecturers were happy to report that the help they offered could be seen as counselling. Although sixty-nine per cent of the respondents reported that they considered helping students to be an important part of their work, few had received any formal training in counselling. Twenty-one percent of the respondents felt dissatisfied with the help they offered to distressed students and forty-six per cent sometimes felt dissatisfied.

Their survey emphasises the importance of training and supporting lecturers in this area of their work to counteract their possible feelings of dissatisfaction with the assistance they are able to offer students and their own distress as a result of being confronted with difficult situations, which can at times be highly stressful.

Easton and Van Laar admit that their data should be treated with caution "since the survey was returned by less than half of those

to whom it was sent" (1995:177). The survey also depended on the memory of each respondent and may also have been specific to the institution at which it was undertaken. It is possible that only those who responded were actually involved in helping distressed students.

Their questionnaire had four sections: an introduction describing the aims of the survey, questions regarding biographical information, questions asking respondents to estimate how often they dealt with distressed students and questions asking for opinions regarding their role in helping distressed students. Details of the last two sections, which were used in the present study, are given in Chapter 3.

A more detailed account of the results of their survey will be found in Chapter 4, Sections B and C, where they are compared with the results of the present study in Tables 4.5 to 4.12. The findings are further discussed in Chapter 5.

The study by Hart (1996) will now be described. As explained earlier, colleges in England are starting to offer more professional counselling services, but because of the tutorial system "both trained counsellors and untrained tutors offer support to students in distress" (Hart 1996:86).

Hart (1996) compared the personal counselling role of the college tutor with the work of the trained student counsellor when dealing with distressed students. The aim of her study was "to identify differences between the skills used by a tutor while dealing with a troubled student and those used by a trained student counsellor" (1996:87).

A survey questionnaire measuring tutors' perceptions of their role and skills, was administered to a sample of 40 tutors chosen randomly from a college of further education. Another version of the questionnaire was administered to a sample of 20 student counsellors employed in colleges of education who were selected

at random to provide a yardstick against which the untrained counsellors (in this case tutors) could be measured (Hart 1996:83).

Hart (1996:83) found that untrained tutors used a smaller range of skills than counsellors and felt unprepared and unsupported in their counselling role. Tutors felt most confident in dealing with academic problems such as course guidance, attendance and discipline, rather than with personal problems. They seemed to perceive their role more widely than counsellors did.

Counsellors, on the other hand, saw the tutor's role as primarily offering academic support, and seemed to consider emotional problems to be their field. Counsellors were most confident in dealing with family and relationship problems. Both tutors and counsellors lacked confidence in dealing with certain problems such as drug abuse and pregnancy. The results indicated the wide range of problems which are encountered.

When it came to the rating of importance of helping skills, there was a marked similarity between those of the tutors and counsellors, with availability being considered the most important. Advice-giving was rated as much more important by tutors than by counsellors, probably because advice-giving fits in more with the teaching role. Tutors also tended to use questioning more often than counsellors, again because of the role of questioning in teaching. Counsellors perceived promoting the students' self-understanding as more important than tutors did (Hart 1996:94).

There was a range in frequency of the teaching of personal skills across both groups, with tutors using modelling more often than counsellors, possibly because they are often expected to be suitable role models, whereas counsellors tend to use the person-centred approach.

A limitation of the study was the small number of participants (forty tutors from one college and twenty student counsellors chosen at random from various colleges of further education) and the diversity of the counsellors and lack of uniformity in their qualifications. The response rate from the counsellors was 60 per cent and from the tutors it was 88 per cent (Hart 1996:89).

Hart (1996) admitted that it was difficult to generalise conclusions from this study because of the influence of the context. "Student counsellors and tutors are working within their own college environment and adapt their skills accordingly" (1996:95). A larger-scale study would enable a more detailed comparison and the students themselves could be asked their view of the various types of help offered. Research into the actual behaviour of tutors and counsellors could perhaps measure how the skills are used, not just knowledge of them.

Sections D, E and F of the questionnaire used in the present study, details of which are given in Chapter 3, were based on Tables 2, 3 and 4 of Hart's (1996) published report. A detailed comparison between Hart's (1996) findings and those of this study are given in Chapter 4, where they are tabulated in Tables 4.13 to 4.19. Further comments are made in Chapter 5 where a link is made between the literature and the findings of the present study.

2.6 Conclusion

Having reviewed the literature, it is now possible to describe the research design and the methodology employed in the collecting of the data for this study. This will be done in Chapter Three, which follows.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Aim of the study

The aim of this research was to investigate the perceptions that lecturers at colleges of education have of their pastoral role. Few lecturers have formal training in counselling and counselling services are not readily available to college students on campus. This investigation surveyed lecturers' perceptions of the extent of the assistance given to students by lecturers and the degree of confidence which they felt in dealing with students' problems as well as their knowledge of and use of counselling skills.

It is acknowledged that the perceptions of the students regarding the pastoral role of lecturers may differ from that of the lecturers themselves, but an investigation of students' perceptions was beyond the scope of this research.

As far as could be determined by consulting journals published during the last decade as well as Sabinet and PsycLIT, there have been several studies which have examined school pupils' perceptions of the role of guidance teachers, some even including teachers' perceptions of their own role, but very few on the perception of lecturers in tertiary institutions on their role, particularly in South Africa. (See literature review, 2.4)

3.2 Research Design

This research is a descriptive *ex post facto* survey of the perceptions of lecturers of their pastoral or counselling role. The instrument used was a questionnaire and its construction is described in 3.2.2.

A descriptive study describes and interprets "conditions or relationships that exist, opinions that are held, processes that are going on, effects that are evident, or trends that are developing" (Best 1977:116).

This study investigated the extent to which lecturers perceive that they are engaged in a pastoral role. It describes the types of problems which are presented by students, the lecturers' level of confidence in dealing with problems, the importance attached to various counselling skills and the frequency with which certain skills are used. What was being investigated was, therefore, the opinions of the lecturers themselves of their pastoral role and their feelings about their handling of various situations. An attempt was also made to ascertain trends in this regard i.e. whether or not there is a perception of a growing need for counselling facilities at colleges of education.

This type of research is also known as *ex post facto* (after the fact) or retrospective research because it involves events that have already taken place, therefore they cannot be controlled or manipulated by the researcher (Robson 1993:115). Lecturers were not aware at the time that they were helping distressed students, that they would be asked to comment on their capabilities in the counselling role.

During the analysis of the results, given in the following chapter, an attempt was made to avoid the so-called "*post hoc* error", which is "the tendency to assume that because there is a relationship between two events or characteristics, the first event or characteristic causes the latter" (Vockell & Asher 1995:294). Thus, although correlations were calculated, these may at most reveal possible tendencies rather than direct causality.

This survey was a partial replication of surveys conducted along similar lines in England. The questions were taken from those used in two surveys, the results of which had been published in

the *British Journal of Guidance and Counselling*, namely the survey of Easton and Van Laar (1995) and that of Nicola Hart (1996), and amalgamated into one questionnaire. As will be described below, some of the questions were not identical due to initial difficulties in accessing the questionnaires.

3.2.1 Questionnaires

It was decided to use a questionnaire to obtain the data of this survey. Surveys are a useful way of collecting data "when it is likely that you will be able to obtain a representative sample of the population in which you are interested, who will be willing and able to respond accurately to your questions" (Robson 1993:125).

The researcher had access to two colleges of education about fifty kilometres apart in KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) for investigative purposes. Due to her position on the staff of one college, it was possible to request colleagues to assist in the research; and the assistance of a colleague at the other college was sought.

According to Robson (1993:243), "self-completed questionnaires, which respondents fill in for themselves, are very efficient in terms of researcher time and effort". A well-constructed questionnaire can be completed by a large number of respondents in a short time and the responses coded and analysed quickly. These factors were important considerations as the researcher was employed in a full-time capacity, so it was imperative that the information could be obtained as easily and yet as accurately as possible.

The purpose of using the format of the questionnaire is to enable the respondent to provide answers without the personal presence of the data collector. The closed-form questionnaire can be completed in a short time, keeps the respondent on the subject

and is easy to tabulate and analyse (Mahlangu 1987:80). These criteria were useful as the researcher did not have to be present physically at both colleges in order to collect the data.

However, there are weaknesses with regard to the use of a questionnaire. It is less flexible than the interview and relies on the respondents to state their feelings or actions accurately (Vockell & Asher 1995:149). "There is little or no check on the honesty or seriousness of responses" (Robson 1993:243). There is also the problem of "good respondent bias" where the respondents give the answers which they feel are wanted (Barkham & Elender 1995:181). It is therefore possible that respondents may be influenced in their responses by their perceptions of the purpose of the study and/or their understanding of the researcher's intentions. Responses are open to being influenced by respondents' intentions. Furthermore, respondents are required to reflect on past actions and this may influence the results. The researcher has to rely on the memory of the respondents; in this case the respondents were required to reflect on a period of a year.

The permitted responses may or may not be appropriate and the questions have to be worded very carefully so that they are not ambiguous (Robson 1993:243). Because the researcher was not freely available at the time of the completion of the questionnaire, the respondents had to interpret the questions for themselves and could not clarify aspects which were not clear to them. They may have wished to respond differently to some of the questions.

3.2.2 Construction of the questionnaire

As has already been stated in 3.2, self-completed questionnaires were compiled, using questions from two questionnaires which had previously been administered in tertiary institutions in England.

According to Vockell and Asher (1995), one sometimes wants to use data collection strategies that have already been developed, because they are accompanied by known reliability and validity information. One is then also able "to compare the performance of the people you measure with the performance of other persons who have responded to the same data collection process" (145-146). Robson (1993:267) agrees that it is preferable to change an existing instrument rather than to start from scratch; he suggests that the easiest way to do this is to shorten it by omitting items.

For ethical reasons, the questions which were asked in the surveys in England on whether or not lecturers would like to have some training in counselling were omitted, as this might have been construed as offering to provide such training, and it was not possible to offer this to respondents.

Although permission to use the questionnaires had been requested and granted from the compilers prior to this by e-mail, copies of the questionnaires were only made available to the researcher after the questionnaire had already been compiled and distributed because time limitations were becoming an issue. The questionnaire had to be distributed by early June (see 3.3). Van Laar sent a copy of their questionnaire via e-mail at the end of June and Hart's, which was posted, arrived at the end of July.

It was decided to keep the questionnaire as short as possible, as Best (1977:157) recommends that a good questionnaire should "only be long enough to get the essential data". This is because filling out lengthy questionnaires takes a great deal of time and effort and the response rate is likely to be poor. Although in this study the questionnaire was a combination of two previous questionnaires, there were items which were omitted. Easton and Van Laar's (1995) questions on what formal counselling training lecturers had and what further information or services would assist them in helping distressed students were omitted as they

were not included in the published report. Only the questions in Hart's (1996) questionnaire which were pertinent to tutors and were part of the published report were included in the present survey.

The questionnaire was four pages long, mainly requiring boxes to be checked. Respondents reported taking ten to fifteen minutes to complete the questionnaire, depending on whether or not they added comments under Section G.

The questionnaire consisted of seven parts, sections A to G, with a preliminary introduction explaining the reason for the survey and giving the name of the person to whom it should be returned. The latter differed according to the college. (See Appendices)

Section A was demographic, where information was requested relating to the sex, age (divided into five categories), number of years in teaching (four categories) and professional status (i.e. lecturer, senior lecturer, HOD) of the respondents. It was hoped that links between demographic variables and responses might be made.

Sections B and C were based on the findings of Easton and Van Laar, as published in the *British Journal of Guidance and Counselling* 23(2), 1995.

The order of the questions was swopped i.e. Section B consisted of the second lot of questions asked in the Easton and Van Laar survey, because Robson (1993:249) suggests that "general questions should precede specific questions". Section B therefore corresponded to the reports on opinions of lecturers regarding the extent to which they were involved in counselling, their feelings of adequacy regarding counselling and the importance they attached to their role in counselling. The answers to Section B were from a choice of three possibilities: 'Yes', 'No' and 'Don't know/Sometimes'. The inclusion of a 'middle alternative' caters for those who do not have strong

opinions on the issue and who would otherwise manufacture an opinion for the survey. It also "allows for an additional graduation of opinion" (Robson 1993:248).

Section C consisted of fourteen categories of problems (e.g. financial, health, examinations), and lecturers were asked to indicate whether or not they had "counselled" students on any of them during the previous year. The respondents were required to answer 'Yes' or 'No'. This is a "forced choice" type of item which is "more apt to encourage a considered response than agree/disagree statements" (Robson 1993:249). This response mode was considered appropriate since the lecturers' memories of actual events were being surveyed.

Sections D, E and F were based on a published report by Hart (1996) on her findings on the tutor's role. However, the order of the items in each of these sections was randomised because the reports of the study in England were ranked according to the results and the order might have influenced the results of this study. (The questionnaires were not available to the researcher at that time).

In Section D the rating scale used was a four-point Likert-type scale to measure lecturers' confidence in dealing with various specific problems similar to the categories listed in Section C; but not exactly the same because they were the problems listed by Hart in her survey (e.g. academic problems, relationships, pregnancy) rather than broader categories. Respondents were asked to tick the most appropriate response from: not at all confident, not very confident, fairly confident, and very confident. This response type is termed a Likert scale. "Likert-type scales are used to measure attitudes on an ordinal scale ranging through degrees of negative, neutral and positive responses" (Robinson & Reed 1998:57).

Likert scales are often constructed using five possible responses. According to Vockell and Asher (1995:131), the

essential component of a Likert scale "is not the five points on the scale but rather the continuum" which allows for a range of opinions. Likert-type scales therefore "provide great flexibility since the descriptors on the scale can vary to fit the nature of the question or statement" (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:245). It was, however, decided that a four point scale would suffice for this study following Hart (1996). Robson suggests that respondents enjoy completing this type of scale and will co-operate better when they are interested, and "the systematic procedures used do help to ensure that the scale has internal consistency and/or the ability to differentiate among individuals" (1993:260).

Section E asked lecturers to rank from one to ten how important they felt ten specified skills were in the helping role (e.g. offering encouragement, giving advice, confidence, etc.), with "1" being the most important. This ranking was intended to sample lecturers' perceptions of aspects of the helping role, to enable the researcher to compare these responses to relevant research in counselling skills.

Section F asked lecturers to estimate, on a four point Likert-type scale, how often they used certain skills (e.g. questioning, listening, understanding feelings): often, sometimes, rarely or not at all. This was also intended to check respondents' perceptions of their own use of counselling microskills.

Section G was open-ended, asking for any comments on the caring/counselling role of lecturers, the need for trained counsellors, etc. According to Behr (1973:73), the open form of question enables the respondent "to reply as he likes and does not confine him to a single alternative." However, Robson (1993:243) stresses "the need to cut down open-ended questions to a minimum" because of the great amount of time which needs to spent on the analysis of such questions.

3.2.3 Pilot study

The questionnaire was piloted on a small sample of lecturers at College 1. It was felt that it was not really necessary to conduct an extensive pilot study as the questions from Sections B to F were taken from previously used questionnaires, and the previous researchers' recommendations were taken into account. For example, the original question 2 of Section B had a second part to it which complicated the answering: "Do you consider helping distressed students tackle their problems to be an important and valuable part of your work - i.e. *do you find it rewarding?*" Of those who answered "Yes", some may have considered it to be important and valuable, while others may have found it rewarding. (Easton & Van Laar 1995:177) The second part of the question ("i.e. do you find it rewarding?") was therefore omitted from this questionnaire.

The pilot study was therefore necessary to consider the questions in a South African context and for comment on Section A. As a result of the feedback received, the question on which subjects were taught by the lecturers was removed, as it was felt that respondents in a small department would lose anonymity. It was also decided not to ask the race of the respondents, although the researcher felt that it would have been interesting to ascertain whether there was a difference in counselling procedures, frequency or confidence between lecturers from different race groups (white, black and Indian lecturers being included in the survey). This was because respondents in the pilot study considered race to be a sensitive issue.

3.3 Procedure

The questionnaires were distributed amongst the academic staff at two colleges of education in KwaZulu-Natal (KZN). The results were compared with each other and then with the findings of the

surveys conducted in England (Easton & Van Laar 1995, Hart 1996).

There was some urgency in distributing the questionnaire due to time constraints, therefore it was not possible to delay the distribution of the questionnnaire until copies of those conducted in England had been received, especially as there was no guarantee that they would arrive.

It was necessary to complete the process of distribution and collection before the end of June when the colleges closed for the winter vacation, as lecturers would not be available until the latter part of August while they were supervising teaching practice after the July vacation.

College 1 was the first choice because the researcher is currently a lecturer there. The findings thus have relevance to the lecturer's work, and it would be possible for her to draw on her experiences to comment on the findings of the study.

College 2 was selected to serve as a means of comparison, to broaden the field of the survey, because it had a multicultural student body, whereas College 1 only had Black students at the time of conducting this survey. It is possible that the lecturers at College 2 might have different perceptions to those at College 1 since the two colleges have emerged from different Departments of Education with different approaches to students.

Intact samples were used i.e. all academic members of staff were asked to participate as each college had about sixty academic members of staff. It was thus hoped that a cross-section of opinions might be sampled.

The Rectors of both colleges were approached for permission to conduct the research. The Rector of College 1 was asked verbally and gave verbal permission, whereas a letter was sent to the Acting Rector of College 2, and a verbal reply agreeing to the study was received through the person delegated by him.

The Head of Department of Educational Psychology agreed to distribute and then collect the questionnaires at College 2. As he was not actually associated with the survey, it was hoped that this would help to minimize the 'good respondent' bias, referred to in 3.2.1. Fifty-eight questionnaires were distributed to lecturers, senior lecturers and heads of department in College 2. The two Senior HODs who were acting as Vice-Rectors were included as both had a lot to do with students.

The questionnaires were distributed via staff pigeonholes after an explanation as to the nature and reason for the survey had been given at a staff meeting. Forty-two (72 per cent) were returned anonymously to the HOD who then returned them to the researcher. Respondents remained anonymous because responses are then usually more truthful (Mahlangu 1987:84).

Similarly, sixty-two questionnaires were distributed to the academic staff at College 1 via their pigeonholes by the researcher, after a brief explanation had been given during the tea-break when most of the members of staff were present. Thirty-two (51 per cent) were returned anonymously via the researcher's pigeonhole. Another questionnaire was eventually returned a month later, but the statistics had already been calculated and the results analysed, so it was too late to include it.

The students at College 1 were on strike during the period when the research was undertaken. Members of staff were very demotivated at the time and the low response could have been due to the general feeling of lethargy. Another reason for the poor response could have been the fact that the researcher was known to the staff and they therefore did not take the survey seriously, or possibly questioned her motives for undertaking the study.

As will be discussed in the following chapter, not all staff members see the value of or need for counselling. Those who did

not respond may have fallen into this category, i.e. they may not have been approached for help by students, or, if approached, did not respond. As Best (1977:157) comments, the information in the unreturned questionnaires "might have changed the results of the investigation materially." Vockell and Asher agree that "people who volunteer to respond are by definition different from those who do not" (1995:176). The researcher realises that it is important to bear such considerations in mind when interpreting results.

The total response rate for this study is 62 per cent (74 of a total of 120 questionnaires distributed). This would appear to be a reasonable return for questionnaires. The response rate of Easton and Van Laar's (1995) survey was only 41 per cent (i.e. 231 out of 567 questionnaires sent out), whereas that of Hart (1996) was 88 per cent of a sample of 40 tutors. Behr (1973:79) states that a response rate of less than 70 per cent lacks validity, because the responses of a third or more of the sample would not have been taken into account. According to Breakwell (1987:286), one would treat 50 % as the expected and acceptable rate of return. The response rate of 51 % at College 1 is therefore not cause for much concern. As will be shown in the following chapter, most of the responses given by lecturers at College 1 were similar to those given by the lecturers at College 2, so this would seem to increase the validity of the responses given.

3.4 Conclusion

This chapter described the methodology used to carry out the research. The data which were collected by means of the questionnaire will be described and analysed in Chapter 4 which follows.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS OF DATA

4.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the next stage of the investigation into the pastoral role of lecturers at colleges of education, namely, the analysis and interpretation of the data which have been collected by means of the questionnaire. According to Robson (1993:305), "analysis is necessary because, generally speaking, data in their raw form do not speak for themselves".

There are two aspects of data analysis: "**Quantitative research** presents statistical results represented with numbers; *qualitative research* presents facts in a narration with words" (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:14). Sections A to F of the questionnaire required quantitative analysis and Section G, which consisted of an open-ended question, required qualitative analysis.

The responses from each college were analysed separately and then compared with each other to consider differences between the two. The responses were then compared with the findings of the surveys conducted in England by Easton and Van Laar (1995) and by Hart (1996), which were discussed in Chapter 3.

The responses to the questionnaires collected were coded and then entered on the computer using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS/PC+ 1990). This is a specific software package which concentrates on quantitative data analysis (Robson 1993:310).

The following techniques were used to analyse the data:
* *Chi-Squared* Tests
* Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (*r*)

* Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney Nonparametric Test
* Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)
* Friedman Two-way ANOVA

Each of these will be briefly described below, including the rationale for their use.

"The *chi-square* statistic is an index of the discrepancy between the observed and expected frequencies" (Robson 1993:334). This measure gives an estimate of how likely it would be for the scores to have been obtained by chance. A *chi square* value of greater than 3.8 is significant at the .05 level ($p<0.05$); greater than 6.6 is very significant at the .01 level ($p<0.01$); and greater than 10.8 is highly significant at the .001 level ($p<0.001$ or less) (Vockell and Asher 1995:471; Robinson & Reed 1998:75).

Pearson's correlation co-efficient (r) gives an indication of the strength and direction of the relationship between the variables (Robson 1993:338), expressed in numbers with any value from +1.00 (a perfect positive correlation) to -1.00 (a perfect negative correlation). A high absolute value indicates a strong relationship and a near-zero value a weak or no relationship between the two variables (Vockell & Asher 1995:298). A high correlation does not give any indication of cause and effect. This test was used to analyse data in Sections A, B, C, D and F of the questionnaire.

The *Mann-Whitney U test* (which gives identical results to the *Wilcoxon Rank Sum W test*) is a nonparametric equivalent of the unpaired two-group *t*-test (Robson 1993:355). The *t*-test is used to compare the means of two groups. There are two versions: the paired two-group *t*-test is used when there are pairs of scores and the unpaired two-group *t*-test is used where there is no basis for putting together pairs of scores (Robson 1993:353). Parametric statistical tests assume a normal distribution. Non-parametric tests are based on fewer assumptions and typically work on ranks (Robson 1993:354-355).

The *Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney* tests were run to analyse data in Section E.

The main function performed by *Analysis of Variance* (ANOVA) "is to compare systematically the mean response levels of two or more independent groups of observations, or a set of observations measured at two or more points in time" (Keeves 1997:697). ANOVA is an extension of the *t*-test, but instead of a *t* statistic, ANOVA calculates an F statistic (or F ratio). ANOVA "allows the researcher to test the difference between all groups and make more accurate probability statements than when using a series of separate *t*-tests" (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:349).

The *Friedman two-way ANOVA* is a nonparametric equivalent to repeated measures analysis of variance i.e. the same person produces a score under each condition (Robson 1993:358). It is appropriate to use it "if the experimental design is within-subject and the data have at least ordinal scaling" (Rosenberg and Daly 1993:247). The Friedman test was used to rank the responses of Section E.

Neither Easton and Van Laar (1995) nor Hart (1996) mention in their articles which statistical tests they used in their analyses of the responses to their surveys, even though Hart (1996) compared the responses of tutors and counsellors. The statistical tests used in this research are therefore those deemed to be the most appropriate to the responses and the purpose of this study.

4.2 Section A: Demographic data

An analysis was made of the demographic information supplied by respondents to the questionnaires distributed at the two South African colleges and the findings were compared. They were then compared, as far as was possible, with the demographic information given by Easton and Van Laar (1995) and also by Hart

(1996). The purpose of these comparisons was to ascertain how similar the samples were, so that the validity of comparing the results could be established. Great differences in demographic factors might lead to comparisons between results being of little value. The researcher acknowledges that differences in the context of each college will also have an impact. These differences in context will be explored in Chapter 5.

Table 4.1: Distribution of the sample according to
sex for the two colleges

	College 1	College 2	Total
Males	17	8	25
Females	15	34	49
Total	32	42	74

Questionnaires were distributed to 62 lecturers at College 1 and 51 per cent (n=32) responded. Of the 34 males, 17 completed the questionnaire, and of the 28 females, 15 responded. The males constituted 53.1 per cent (n=17) and the females 46.9 per cent (n=15) of the sample.

Questionnaires were distributed to 58 lecturers at College 2 and 72 per cent (n=42) responded. Males constituted 19 per cent (n=8) and females 81 per cent (n=34) of the sample.

The total number of respondents at both colleges was therefore 62 per cent (n=74).

The difference between the distribution by sex of the two colleges was highly significant (.00214) as calculated by the *Chi-squared* test. There is a higher number of male members of staff in College 1, i.e. 34 male members of staff and 28 female

members of staff. College 2 only has 8 male members of staff and the rest are female, therefore there was a 100% response rate from the males at College 2.

Only 21 per cent of those who responded to Easton and Van Laar's survey were female (1995:174). Approximately half of the tutors in Hart's study were female (1996:89).

Table 4.2: Distribution according to age for the two colleges

Age in Years	College 1	College 2	Total	%
21-30	0	1	1	1.4
31-40	8	10	18	24.3
41-50	15	25	40	54.1
51-60	7	6	13	17.6
61+	2	0	2	2.7
Total	32	42	74	100.0

At both colleges most of the lecturers (n=40) who responded were in the age group 41 to 50 years, i.e. 54.1%. The respondents at College 1 tended to be older than those at College 2. College 1 had no respondents under the age of 30 and two over 60, whereas College 2 had one respondent under 30 and none over 60. The age range is therefore similar to that of Easton and Van Laar's survey, where the average age of respondents was 45 years, with a range from 27 to 65 years (1995:174). The majority of tutors in Hart's study were in the 40-49 age band (1996:89).

Table 4.3:   Distribution according to teaching experience

No. of Teaching Years	College 1	College 2	Total	%
Less than 5	0	0	0	0
6-10	5	5	10	13.5
11+	27	37	64	86.5
Total	32	42	74	100.0

A very high percentage i.e. 86.5 (n=64) of the lecturers at the colleges have more than ten years of teaching experience.
Those who responded to Easton and Van Laar's (1995) survey had an average number of 15 years as lecturers. No figures for this category were given by Hart (1996).

Table 4.4:   Distribution according to position

Position	College 1	College 2	Total	%
Lecturer	19	27	46	62.2
Senior Lecturer	5	9	14	18.9
HOD	8	6	14	18.9
Total	32	42	74	100.0

Most of the respondents at both colleges were lecturers (n=46) i.e. 62.2 per cent. The overall number of senior lecturers and HODs was the same i.e. 18.9 per cent (n=14), although College 1

had more HODs responding (n=8) than College 2 (n=6) and College
1 had fewer senior lecturers responding (n=5) compared with those
at College 2 (n=9).

There is a significant difference between the position of these
respondents and those of Easton and Van Laar. Only 7 per cent
of their respondents were lecturers whereas 65 per cent were
senior lecturers (1995:174).

In terms of age and lecturing experience the samples are very
similar, so there would be a greater likelihood of lecturers
having similar experiences of caring for students in need.
Gender differences do not seem to have been significant in the
reporting of problems encountered and counselling skills used,
when Pearson's correlation co-efficient was calculated, comparing
responses of men and women.

The Pearson's correlation co-efficient regarding males compared
to females showed that most of the female respondents were
lecturers and more of the male respondents were senior lecturers
or HODs. At College 1, $r = -.5217$, which is a negative
correlation, and although at College 2, $r = -.3550$, the combined
correlation for both colleges is $r = -.4102$, which is also a
stronger negative correlation.

In Sections B, C, D, E and F the results of the two South African
colleges in KZN were compared with the relevant England-based
results, Sections B and C being compared with Easton and Van
Laar's (1995) results and Sections D, E and F with Hart's (1996).
It was possible to calculate *chi square* to determine whether
there were any significant differences between the responses of
the two KZN colleges, but in both of the surveys in England
insufficient information was given to attempt significance tests.
The relevant articles of Easton and Van Laar (1995) and Hart
(1996) do not give variances or standard deviations and even the
number of respondents has to be inferred from Hart's (1996)
statement (that she had an 88 per cent return from 40 cases).

Neither article gives any indication that the original data are available. Comparisons with the England-based findings in each section will therefore be at the level of discussing percentages only.

4.3 Section B: Opinions of lecturers regarding assistance to students

The opinions of lecturers on helping distressed students were assessed through six questions. Respondents could choose to answer Yes, No or Sometimes/Don't know. The responses were totalled for each category and are expressed as percentages, but they do not always add up to 100 per cent because respondents did not always fill in all the answers. In this section the "England" responses are those of Easton and Van Laar (1995).

Question 1: Do you think students are increasingly coming to lecturers for help with their problems?

Table 4.5: Students increasingly approaching lecturers for help

Response	College 1	College 2	England
Yes	22.6 %	68.3 %	32 %
No	51.6	19.5	26
Don't Know	25.8	12.2	41

There was a highly significant difference (.00059) between the responses of College 1 and College 2 and it would appear that this would be so between College 2 and the "England" responses. At College 1, 51.6 per cent said that students were NOT coming to lecturers more often with problems, whereas 68.3 per cent at College 2 thought they were. Possible reasons for these differences in perceptions will be discussed in Chapter 5.

Question 2: Do you consider helping distressed students tackle their problems to be an important and valuable part of your work?

Table 4.6: Importance and value placed on helping students

Response	College 1	College 2	England
Yes	71.9 %	76.2 %	69 %
No	0	2.4	5
Sometimes	28.1	21.4	25

The responses to this question were similar at all three institutions. More than two thirds of the respondents (College 1 = 71.9%, College 2 = 76.2 % and the England-based study = 69%) considered helping students with problems to be an important and valuable part of their work. About a quarter of respondents (College 1 = 28%, College 2 = 21% and the England study = 25%) sometimes considered it important. None of the respondents at College 1 responded in the negative, whereas a small percentage at College 2 (2.4%) and in the England-based study (5%) considered it not to be important.

Question 3: Do you sometimes wish you knew more about how to help distressed students tackle their problems?

Table 4.7: Desire for more knowledge on helping students

Response	College 1	College 2	England
Yes	59.4 %	59.5 %	36 %
No	3.1	4.8	22
Sometimes	37.5	35.7	??

The respondents in England appear to be more confident of their ability to help distressed students than the KZN college lecturers, with only 36 per cent wanting to improve their knowledge/skills in this field and 22 per cent denying a need for improvement. The response rate at the two KZN colleges is very similar, with 59.4 per cent at College 1 and 59.5 per cent at College 2 desiring improved knowledge and only 3.1 per cent at College 1 and 4.8 per cent at College 2 not considering it to be necessary.

Question 4: Do you often feel dissatisfied with the help you are able to offer students who come to you in distress?

Table 4.8: Dissatisfaction with help offered to students

Response	College 1	College 2	England
Yes	28.1 %	38.1 %	21 %
No	25	21.4	30
Sometimes	46.9	40.5	46

Respondents in England are slightly more positive about their ability to help students, with 30 per cent not dissatisfied and 67 per cent either often or sometimes feeling dissatisfied. This may be compared with College 1 where 75 per cent were often or sometimes feeling dissatisfied and College 2 where 78.6 per cent were.

Question 5:   Do you feel that you have enough knowledge about
other sources of help for students in distress (e.g. helplines,
counselling services, FAMSA, SANCA, etc)?

Table 4.9:   Level of knowledge of other sources of help

Response	College 1	College 2	England
Yes	15.6 %	28.6 %	41 %
No	62.5	42.9	31
Sometimes	21.9	28.6	??

The respondents in England (41 per cent) appear to have a more
comprehensive knowledge of available resources for helping
students than those in KZN, where 62.5 per cent at College 1 and
42.9 per cent at College 2 felt that they did not have enough
knowledge of resources.

Question 6:   Do you consider some discussion of students'
personal problems to be part of your duty as a lecturer?

Table 4.10:   Duty of lecturer to discuss students' problems

Response	College 1	College 2	England
Yes	59.4 %	69 %	76 %
No	18.8	4.8	5
Sometimes	21.9	26.2	14

There is a greater similarity between the responses from College 2 and England than between College 1 and the other two institutions. 59.4 per cent of respondents at College 1 considered discussing students' personal problems to be part of their duty as a lecturer compared with 69 per cent at College 2 and an even higher 76 per cent in England. A higher percentage at College 1 (18.8 per cent) responded in the negative, compared with 4.8 per cent at College 2 and 5 per cent in England. There are several possible reasons for this, which will be discussed in Chapter 5.

4.4 Section C: Frequency of counselling of students by lecturers

In Section C the results have been tabulated according to the order in which the items appeared on the questionnaire. It was a forced choice response as lecturers were only required to answer "Yes" or "No" to the question of whether they had "counselled" distressed students on each of a list of typical problems during the past year. In this section the "England" responses are those of Easton and Van Laar (1995).

Table 4.11: Percentages (and numbers for Colleges 1 and 2) of lecturers reporting that they had 'counselled' distressed students on each of a list of problems in the past year

Problem	% (& no.) responding "Yes"		
	College 1	College 2	England
Financial Problems	54.8 (17)	75.6 (31)	73.6
Bursary Problems	41.9 (13)	41.5 (17)	38.1
Health Problems	48.4 (15)	63.4 (26)	52.4
Accommodation	22.6 (7)	39 (16)	51.1
Career/course decision	38.7 (12)	58.5 (24)	73.6
Examination anxiety	58.1 (18)	56.1 (23)	74.5
Lack of confidence	61.3 (19)	50 (20)	49.4
Overwork	16.7 (5)	58.5 (24)	36.8
Death/bereavement	45.2 (14)	53.7 (22)	43.7
Depression	12.9 (4)	36.6 (15)	41.6
Relationships	41.9 (13)	51.2 (21)	37.2
Homesickness	6.5 (2)	7.3 (3)	29
Loneliness	6.5 (2)	14.6 (6)	19.5
Other	43.5 (10)	56.3 (18)	26

On visual inspection, it would seem that lecturers at College 2 report higher percentages of students requesting help in ten of the categories, but when *chi square* is calculated, there are only a few significant differences between the responses for the three groups.

There was a significant difference between the numbers of students being counselled on depression (.02397). At College 1 only 4 lecturers counselled students on depression compared with 15 at College 2. The most highly significant difference was on the question of "Overwork" (.00039). Only 5 lecturers counselled students on this problem at College 1 compared with 24 at College 2.

At College 1 the problem on which most students were counselled was "Lack of confidence" (n=19), followed by "Examination anxiety" (n=18) and then "Financial problems" (n=17). At College 2 the most frequently presented problem was "Financial" (n=31), followed by "Health" (n=26), "Career/Course decisions" (n=24), "Overwork" (n=24) and then "Examination anxiety" (n=23). In the England-based study the three problems which emerged most frequently were "Examination anxiety", "Career/course decisions" and "Financial problems".

To assist in a comparison of the three sets of results, the following table has been constructed. Table 4.12 compares the top five problems on which lecturers counselled students at the two KZN colleges and in England, to show the similarities between all three.

Table 4.12:   Comparison of the top 5 problems encountered by lecturers.

College 1	College 2	England
1 Lack of confidence	Financial problems	Exam anxiety
2 Exam anxiety	Health	Financial
3 Financial	Career/course	Career/course
4 Health	Overwork	Health
5 Death/bereavement	Exam anxiety	Accomodation

From the above table it can be seen that similar problems present themselves frequently at all three institutions. For example, "Financial problems" and "Health problems" were reportedly frequent at all three. "Financial problems" is recorded at 3rd, 1st and 2nd place, and "Health" at 4th and 2nd. "Examination anxiety" also features in all three: in England 74.5 per cent of respondents reportedly counselled students on this, compared with 58.1 per cent at College 1 and 56.1 per cent at College 2. "Lack of confidence" appears to be the main problem at College 1 (reported by 61.3 per cent of respondents), compared with eighth place at College 2 (50 per cent) and sixth place in the England-based survey (49.4 per cent). "Overwork" was dealt with by 58.5 per cent of lecturers at College 2, compared with 16.7 per cent at College 1 and 36.8 per cent in England. Possible reasons for this discrepancy will be dealt with in Chapter 5.

When Pearson's correlation co-efficient is calculated, there are several high correlations among the responses in Section C, when correlated with each other. For example, the correlation between lecturers reporting doing counselling on depression and on loneliness at College 1 is .6667. At College 2 the correlation between lecturers reporting counselling students on bursary and on accommodation problems is .4688, and between counselling on health and on relationship problems it is .5594. These correlations are significant at the .05 level. A correlation does not imply a causal relationship between the two variables, therefore further conclusions cannot be drawn related to these.

4.5 Section D: Lecturers' confidence in dealing with typical problems

In Section D lecturers were asked to rate, on a four-point Likert-type scale, how confident they felt in dealing with 12 typical problems. The following table gives a comparison between the responses of the two KZN colleges and the institution in England. In this section the "England" responses are those of Hart (1996).

Table 4.13: Ratings given by lecturers (as rounded off percentages) on a four-point scale of how confident they felt in dealing with 12 typical problems.

Key: 1 = not at all confident, 2 = not very confident
     3 = fairly confident, and 4 = very confident.

	College 1				College 2				England			
	Level of Confidence											
Type of Problem	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Financial	20	37	37	7	12	42	42	5	15	41	30	15
Health	13	20	60	7	7	32	46	15	7	30	56	11
Academic	0	7	60	33	2	0	51	46	0	4	50	46
Course guidance	13	33	33	20	5	23	46	26	0	18	21	61
Careers	27	33	33	7	10	25	50	15	4	25	36	36
Attend/ disciplin	3	17	63	17	0	7	44	49	0	4	37	59
Conflict/ staff	3	27	53	17	2	27	59	12	4	15	59	22
Conflict/ friend	13	20	57	10	3	20	60	18	0	22	63	15
Family problems	10	38	45	7	5	34	49	12	0	33	56	11
Relation- ships	10	37	37	17	5	33	43	20	4	33	56	7
Pregnancy	17	37	33	13	5	37	44	15	26	33	26	15
Drug- Abuse	27	43	23	7	15	45	30	10	30	41	26	4

The level of confidence of respondents at the two KZN colleges is generally not very high, with less than 20 per cent feeling very confident about dealing with most of the twelve categories of problems, apart from two categories, where 48 per cent of respondents at College 2 were "Very confident" in dealing with "Attendance and discipline" and 46 per cent with "Academic problems". At College 1 the highest level of confidence was experienced when dealing with "Academic problems", at 33 per cent. Respondents in the England-based study were "Very confident" when dealing with "Course guidance" (61 per cent), "Attendance/discipline" (59 per cent), "Academic problems" (46 per cent) and "Careers" (35 per cent).

When the ratings of the two KZN colleges are compared, the only category where there is a significant difference in the level of confidence of the respondents (.02877), is when dealing with "Attendance and discipline". Respondents at College 2 reported being more confident in this regard.

Table 4.14 gives a comparison between the KZN colleges and England to show the categories of problems with which respondents felt most confident in dealing.

Table 4.14: Problems which respondents at the three institutions were most confident in handling:

Rank	College 1	College 2	England
1	Academic	Attend/discipln.	Course guidance
2	Attend/discipln.	Academic	Attend/discipln.
3	Conflict/staff	Course guidance	Academic

From the above table it can clearly be seen that lecturers feel most confident in dealing with problems which are related to academic work, rather than with students' personal problems.

However, when we combine the responses of levels 3 and 4, that is, where respondents felt both "Fairly confident" and "Very confident", a slightly different pattern emerges. Table 15 gives the ratings in rounded off percentages for each institution.

Table 4.15: Percentages (rounded off) of respondents who felt both "Fairly confident" and "Very confident" in dealing with 12 categories of problems:

	College 1	College 2	England
Type of problem	%	%	%
Financial	44	47	45
Health	67	61	67
Academic	93	97	96
Course guidance	53	72	82
Careers	41	65	72
Attend/discipline	80	93	96
Conflict/staff	70	71	81
Conflict/friend	67	78	78
Family problems	52	61	67
Relationships	54	63	63
Pregnancy	46	59	41
Drug abuse	30	40	30

The respondents at all three institutions felt most confident in handling Academic problems, followed by problems of Attendance/discipline. Respondents at College 2 and in England also felt very confident about giving help on Course guidance, whereas this area was only given seventh place by College 1 respondents.

There were also similarities between the types of problems which respondents felt least confident in handling. At College 1 they were least confident in dealing with Drug abuse (30 %), Careers (41 %), Financial problems (44 %) and Pregnancy (46 %); at College 2 they were least confident with Drug abuse (40 %), Financial problems (47 %) and Pregnancy (59 %) and in the study in England least confident in dealing with Drug abuse (30 %), Pregnancy (41 %) and Financial problems (45 %). In all three settings, therefore, the problems of Drug abuse, financial problems and pregnancy were cited as difficult areas for lecturers to deal with.

When Pearson's correlation co-efficient was calculated, there were several high correlations among the responses in Section D. At College 1, there was a high correlation between the levels of confidence of those dealing with problems about Course guidance and those with Careers counselling (.8248). Those who felt confident in dealing with Attendance/discipline also felt confident in dealing with Conflict with staff (.7619) and with Conflict with friends (.7133). Those confident in dealing with Conflict with staff were also confident in dealing with Conflict with friends (.7371) and there was a high correlation between Conflict with friends and Relationships (.6979). The correlation between dealing with Family problems and with Relationships was .7008.

Similar correlations were found at College 2 between Careers counselling and Attendance/discipline (.6157), Careers counselling and Pregnancy (.6145), Conflict with staff and with friends (.7079), Conflict with friends and Family problems (.6758), Conflict with friends and Relationships (.7593), Family problems and Relationships (.9052) and Pregnancy and Drug abuse (.8018). However, as noted earlier, these correlations do not necessarily point to a closer relationship between the variables. Possible relationships would need to be investigated by other means in a different study.

4.6 Section E: Ranking by lecturers of the importance of certain skills in the helping role

Lecturers were asked to rank a given list of ten skills according to their order of importance in the helping role, with "1" being the most important. In this section the "England" responses are those of Hart (1996).

Table 4.16: Comparison of answers given by lecturers when asked to rank the importance of a list of skills in the helping role, with "1" being the most important.

Skill	College 1	College 2	England
Confidence	5.5	6	8
Emotional expression	10	10	9
Giving advice	9	8.5	5
Training	8	8.5	10
Being available	2	2	1
Offering encouragement	5.5	4	2
Reliable and confident	4	3	3
Promoting self-understanding	3	5	6
Instilling hope	7	7	7
Understanding the problem	1	1	4

The *Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney* tests were run but nothing significant emerged. The Friedman Two-way ANOVA was used to rank the responses at College 1 and College 2. There seemed to be a measure of confusion among lecturers as to how to rank the items. Only those who seemed to have followed the correct procedure for ranking were therefore included in the results. There were 21 cases at College 1 and 29 cases at College 2 which were applicable. Hart's (1996) answers were given in percentages, but a more meaningful comparison between her study and the two colleges is obtained by indicating the ratings of the various counselling skills from 1 to 10.

Table 4.17: Comparison between the three institutions of the skills ranked as the most important in the helping role

Rank	College 1	College 2	England
1	Understanding the problem	Understanding the problem	Availability
2	Availability	Availability	Encouraging
3	Promoting self-understanding	Reliable and confident	Reliable and confident

The ratings for all three groups are very similar. Colleges 1 and 2 both rated "Understanding the problem" as being the most important skill (37.3 % of the respondents), compared with the England rating of fourth. The latter rated "Being available" as most important, whereas the KZN colleges both rated that skill as second most important (27.5 % of the respondents). The top three rankings are shown in Table 4.17 above.

"Training", "Giving advice" and "Emotional expression" were ranked as the least important three skills by both KZN colleges, compared with "Confidence", "Emotional expression" and "Training" by the England survey. Two of the lowest ranked skills are therefore common to all three settings. The most marked difference in ranking was that of "Giving advice", which the tutors in England ranked 5th, compared with 9th by College 1, and 8th by College 2. There will be further discussion of these findings in chapter 5.

4.7 Section F: Estimation of frequency of use of particular skills by lecturers

In this section the "England" responses are those of Hart (1996).

Table 4.18: Estimations made by lecturers of how often they used a particular skill (percentage choosing each category). Key: 1 = often, 2 = sometimes, 3 = rarely, 4 = not at all:

	College 1				College 2				England			
Skill	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Question-ing	77	23	0	0	83	14	2	0	67	33	0	0
Clarify/ focus	62	38	0	0	63	34	2	0	71	29	0	0
Listening	80	20	0	0	90	10	0	0	89	11	0	0
Under-stand feelings	37	53	7	3	62	36	3	0	79	18	0	4
Reflect/ para-phrase	47	30	20	3	39	46	12	2	46	43	11	0
Giving advice	33	53	13	0	37	44	20	0	54	36	11	0
Modelling	25	29	39	7	13	45	28	15	18	68	7	7
Promote self-esteem	40	57	3	0	58	35	3	5	68	32	0	0
Teaching personal skills	30	43	23	3	37	27	27	10	50	32	14	4

There are marked similarities between the estimations of their use of particular skills by respondents at the KZN and the colleges in England. At all three institutions "Listening" was used most often, by 80 per cent at College 1, 90 per cent at

College 2 and 89 per cent in England. "Modelling" was reportedly used least often, with 7 per cent at College 1, 15 per cent at College 2 and 7 per cent in England reporting never using that skill.

Table 4.19: Comparison between the three colleges of the three most often used skills.

	College 1	College 2	England
1	Listening	Listening	Listening
2	Questioning	Questioning	Understanding feelings
3	Clarify/focus	Clarify/focus	Clarify/focus

An interesting difference is that of "Understanding feelings", which was reportedly the second most often used skill in England (used "often" by 79 per cent), whereas at College 1 it was only used "often" by 37 per cent of the respondents, and "sometimes" by 53 per cent. At College 2, 62 per cent used it "often" and 36 per cent "sometimes". Also, "Questioning" was reportedly the second most often used skill in KZN whereas it rated fifth in the England-based study.

54 per cent of the respondents in England reportedly used "Giving advice" often, compared with 33 per cent at College 1 and 37 per cent at College 2. Similarly, 68 per cent of respondents in England reported promoting self-esteem often, compared with 40 per cent at College 1 and 58 per cent at College 2. "Teaching personal skills" was reportedly used often in England by 50 per cent of respondents, compared with 30 per cent at College 1 and 37 per cent at College 2.

Estimations on their reported use of the following categories of skills showed a closer similarity between College 2 and the findings in England than between College 1 and College 2: Listening, Understanding feelings, Modelling, and Promoting self-esteem.

4.8 Section G: Lecturers' comments on their caring/counselling role, the need for trained counsellors, etc.

Respondents were asked to add further comments of their own on the caring/counselling role of lecturers and the need for trained counsellors. In terms of the total numbers of questionnaires distributed, only 30,6 per cent of lecturers at College 1 and 44,8 per cent at College 2 responded to this section. Of the respondents at College 1, 59 per cent (n=19) made comments, whereas at College 2, 62 per cent of the respondents (n=26) answered this section. Possible reasons for the poor response rate will be given in Chapter 5.

The opinions of lecturers at the two KZN colleges in response to the questions in the previous sections have already been compared with each other and with the findings in England (of Easton and Van Laar's (1995) study). The responses in this section will therefore constitute a comparison between the two KZN colleges as no further information is available on the findings of Easton and Van Laar (1995) or Hart (1996).

On scanning the responses, the researcher identified a number of common themes which emerged. The responses to this section can be grouped into several categories, as follows:
1. Professionally trained counsellors are needed
2. Lecturers need training in counselling skills
3. Good relationships with students are an important factor
4. Lecturers experience problems concerning helping students/ cultural factors make counselling difficult
5. Reasons why counselling is not sought/considered necessary

Categorisation of the number of responses in each category are given as percentages of those who responded to this section. They do not add up to 100 per cent because some responses fitted into more than one category. For example, some respondents stated the need for professionally trained counsellors and then went on to give reasons for this, citing various difficulties they encountered as ordinary lecturers trying to assist students with problems. In the following sections, respondents' exact words are in italics.

4.8.1 Professionally trained counsellors are needed

The most frequently made comment was that respondents recognise the need for professionally trained counsellors at colleges. An example of this is:

> It is imperative that in every academic institution there should be a counsellor. This is even more so in the South African academic institutions which sometimes have students in their classrooms who come from communities where violence was the order of the day for years.

At College 1, 47.4 per cent (n=9) of the respondents thought there should be trained counsellors available to students and at College 2 46.2 per cent (n=12) supported the need for trained counsellors. Various reasons for the need for counsellors were given, for example:

* that lecturers do not have the time or skills to counsel students (n=2);
* students are unwilling to confide in lecturers (n=1);
* ad hoc counselling is not fair on lecturers (n=1);
* counselling theory (not just instinct) is important (n=1);
* personal problems affect performance, therefore they should be dealt with professionally (n=1).

4.8.2 Lecturers need training in counselling skills

Because of the lack of money available to employ trained counsellors and because students often turn to lecturers with their problems, several respondents advocated that lecturers be

trained in counselling skills so that they would at least be able to help students with minor problems, and know to whom to refer them when confronted with more serious problems. This view was held by 26.3 per cent of respondents (n=5) at College 1 and 26.9 per cent of respondents (n=7) at College 2. The following reasons were given for the need for trained staff:

* the better trained the counsellors, the more effective the "help" (n=1);
* lecturers are role models for the students as future educators and should be able to recognise learners' needs and care for them (n=2); and
* the psychological wellbeing of students is crucial to their performance (n=2).

An example of a response in this category is:

> *Many students have personal problems which affect their performance at college; but there is no structured programme which deals with the personal/counselling aspect. I think it would be to the benefit of students if they could have access to counselling; not just to help them succeed at college, but also to help them succeed in life generally and to encourage positive self-esteem.*

When the above two categories are combined, it is found that 73.7 per cent of the respondents at College 1 perceived there to be a need for trained counselling, either by professionals or by lecturers themselves, and 73.1 at College 2.

An example of a response in this category is:

> *While I feel that my role as an educator is to be sympathetic and provide whatever guidance I can, ad hoc counselling is not ideal. Ideally there should be a dedicated unit (one or more staff members with a specific slot or an admin. dept) who deal with the many needs of the students. Devolving this function totally onto lecturers is not ideal, nor is it really fair.*

4.8.3 Good relationships with students are an important factor

The importance of good relationships with students was also mentioned by 15.8 per cent (n=3) of respondents at College 1 and 15.4 per cent (n=4) at College 2. A number of respondents stated that not all lecturers are suitable as counsellors - they need to have a genuine interest in people and have experience of life (n=2). The opinion that some subjects allow closer involvement and interaction between lecturers and students because of tutorials and workshops was also expressed (n=1). One lecturer reported listening and sympathising, then referring on to someone else if necessary. Most counselling is reportedly in chats after lectures (n=1). Respondents stated that the interest and care of lecturers is important, not so much their training (n=3).

> *Part of being a 'good' counsellor is not totally trainable and comes with taking a genuine interest in people and experience of life in general.*

4.8.4 Lecturers experience problems concerning helping students/cultural factors make counselling difficult

Several respondents mentioned various problems which they encountered which made it difficult to give help to students in distress. At College 1, 5.3 per cent (n=1) and at College 2, 30.8 per cent (n=8) reported being unable to "counsel" students satisfactorily for the following reasons:

* lack of time due to the workload of lecturers (n=1);
* not all lecturers are interested in counselling (n=1);
* lecturers are unable to offer practical advice to students as to where to go for help (n=2);
* the range of cultural groups brings unique problems (physical/sexual assault, rape) (n=1);
* most problems are financial and because there is no solution lecturers find it frustrating and emotionally draining (n=4). (Some respondents mentioned lending money to students but not feeling happy about it as a solution.)

> *Working with financial matters is very difficult - I end up lending money with promises of repayment - at the time I really just think about the person and their challenge.*

4.8.5 Reasons why counselling is not sought/considered necessary

An interesting difference between the responses from the two colleges is that at College 1, 21 per cent (n=4) of respondents gave reasons why counselling was NOT sought or considered to be necessary, whereas none at College 2 did. The following reasons were given:

* students, especially men, find it difficult to discuss problems openly (n=1);
* some students refuse to seek help until it is offered (n=1);
* it is important to help with work problems, but not personal problems (n=1); and
* there are strong family bonds in African culture and outside help is seen as interference (n=1).

> *Our students come from an environment where formal counselling is not part of their culture. Family structures are extended so that this need of counselling is taken within the family circle by uncles, aunts, cousins. Family bonds are generally strong within African culture so that help from outside these family circles would be viewed as interference and encroaching.*

4.8.6 Two unique responses

At College 2 one of the respondents reported:

> *I am planning to enrol in a suitable course offered by Damelin in the second half of the year. I am not sure in this financial climate where there is down-sizing and right-sizing whether a position of a trained counsellor could be established here or any other government institution.*

Another respondent at College 2 commented:

> *A refresher course on basic counselling skills at semi-regular intervals would be very helpful as well as an updated referral list for specific problem areas.*

Both of the above comments underline a recognition of the importance of counselling skills, but the first also illustrates

an awareness of fiscal constraints in government organisations.

4.9 Conclusion

The discussion and interpretation of the results will follow in Chapter 5. These results will be linked with the review of the literature given in Chapter 2.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the results described in the previous chapter and to link them to previous research and literature on this topic. The limitations of the study will be mentioned and recommendations made for further research in this field.

5.2 Review of results

5.2.1 Demographic data

When considering the demographic data, samples at the four institutions which were being compared, namely the two KZN colleges and those in England of Easton and Van Laar (1995) and of Hart (1996), were similar in terms of sex, age and lecturing experience (see 4.2). It would seem as if the comparison of the results would therefore be valid.

The highly significant difference in the distribution by sex of the two KZN colleges was discussed in 4.2. (Table 4.1). The reason for this is that at College 1 there is a Technical Department which only has male members of staff. There is therefore a higher number of male members of staff in College 1. College 2 only has eight male members of staff and the rest are female, therefore there was a 100 % response rate from the males at College 2. Only 21 per cent of those who responded to Easton and Van Laar's survey were female (1995:174). It is probable that a greater number of the lecturers who completed their questionnaire were male, being at a polytechnic, whereas a higher proportion of lecturers at colleges of education are female

because they are training junior primary teachers, who are traditionally female. Approximately half of the tutors in Hart's study were female (1996:89).

It would appear that the response rate of males was higher than that of females at all the institutions, possibly because more males were senior lecturers or HODs and were more geared to administrative exercises such as completing questionnaires than were the female respondents.

A significant difference between the two KZN colleges was the explicitly stated duty of lecturers to undertake a pastoral role. Subsequent to the study, the researcher discovered that each year at College 2, the students are able to give the names of three of their lecturers in order of preference whom they would like to have as their tutors for the purpose of informal counselling when the student desires it. Lecturers are allocated a maximum of twenty students each. This is possibly a reason for the good response rate at College 2, because lecturers are actually expressly involved in helping distressed students, whereas in the case of College 1 it is likely that those who did not respond were not involved in the same way.

College 1 has a senior lecturer who is a trained counsellor but who is employed as a lecturer in Counselling, not as a counsellor. However, he reports dealing with many distressed students and would like to have specific times allocated to counselling students on a more formal basis in a venue set aside for this purpose.

5.2.2 Opinions of lecturers regarding assistance to students

Section B comprised six questions about the assistance given to students by lecturers. These were analysed in 4.3, but additional comments will now be made on some of the responses.

In the first question (Table 4.5) a significantly higher number from College 2 responded in the affirmative to the question about students increasingly coming to lecturers for help. As mentioned earlier, College 2 uses a tutorial system, so students possibly feel more at liberty to consult lecturers when in distress than at other institutions where there is not the same opportunity. Another reason could once again be due to cultural differences. Barnsley's survey (1991) of university students' attitude to counselling found that black students are more likely to seek help from formal sources (which are not available at colleges) whereas white students are more likely to make use of informal sources (see 2.4). College 1 only has black students, whereas College 2 has students from various race groups.

In response to question two (Table 4.6) almost all of the respondents at all three institutions considered helping students to be important at least some of the time. There does, therefore, seem to be a strong perception of the need for this service. This is supported by qualitative comments in Section G (4.8.6).

Questions 3, 4 and 5 deal with lecturers' perceptions of their adequacy in dealing with problems, the extent of their satisfaction with the help they give and their knowledge of other sources available to distressed students (Tables 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9). The respondents in England appear to have more confidence and more knowledge of other resources than those in KZN. This is possibly because more resources are readily available in England than in South Africa. According to Earwaker (1992:54), teaching staff are often unaware of other sources of help, therefore their role becomes a burden.

In response to question six (Table 4.10), 59,4 per cent of respondents at College 1 considered discussing students' problems to be part of their duty as a lecturer compared with 69 per cent at College 2 and 76 per cent in England. One of the reasons for this could be that traditionally in black culture one would go

to one's family or elders for help with problems, not to outsiders. This is supported by the comment from a lecturer at College 1 that "our students come from an environment where formal counselling is not part of their culture" (4.8.5) and is also mentioned by Edwards (see 2). Another possible reason for these responses is that the tutorial system is not as widely used at College 1 as it is at the other institutions, so the relationship between staff and students is generally not as close.

5.2.3 Frequency of counselling of students by lecturers

Section C deals with the frequency of counselling of students by lecturers (Table 4.11). A far higher number of respondents at College 2 reported counselling on depression and overwork than at College 1. A possible reason for this may be that students at College 1 tend to go on strike as soon as they feel they are overworked, so they do not acknowledge the need for counselling in this area. Depression may also be considered too personal a problem to be discussed with outsiders, or it may not necessarily be recognised as such by students or staff.

From Table 4.12 it is seen that similar problems present themselves at all three institutions, but that "Lack of confidence" features as most frequently encountered only at College 1. This is possibly a cultural problem as most of the students at College 1 come from disadvantaged backgrounds where English (which is the medium of instruction at the college) is not their mother tongue and many of them are not familiar with white lecturers. Another reason could be the schooling system where learners tended to be passive and were not encouraged to speak out or to relate to their superiors.

5.2.4 Lecturers' confidence in dealing with typical problems

Section D deals with lecturers' confidence in dealing with typical problems (Tables 4.13, 4.14 and 4.15). The level of

confidence of respondents generally was not very high, which is understandable as they are not professionally trained to deal with these problems. They felt most confident in handling academic problems, possibly because this is their area of expertise, and least confident about handling personal problems.

5.2.5 Ranking by lecturers of the importance of certain skills in the helping role

Section E required the lecturers to rank the importance of certain skills in the helping role (Table 4.16). The researcher was disappointed with the way in which many answered this section. There seemed to be some confusion about how to go about the ranking, although it was explained in the questionnaire. Because the researcher not present to explain in more detail than the written instructions, some of the responses had to be omitted from the statistical analysis. It is interesting to note that "Giving advice" was not considered important by respondents at the KZN colleges even though they were not formally trained in counselling techniques. This differs from the findings of Hart's (1996) study, where advice-giving was highly rated by tutors (see 2.5).

When the questionnaire was compiled, only Hart's (1996) published results were available. Although there seemed to be duplication of two of the categories, namely "Confidence" and "Reliable and confident", it was only when Hart's actual questionnaire was received that it was found that the latter category should have read "Reliable and confidential". This may have made a difference to the ranking of the items.

5.2.6 Estimation of frequency of use of particular skills by lecturers

Section F (4.7) asked the lecturers to estimate the frequency of their use of particular skills (Tables 4.18 and 4.19). The respondents in England seemed to be more pro-active than KZN

lecturers, as they reported giving advice, promoting self-esteem and teaching personal skills more often than the KZN respondents.

Counselling is seen as a relationship, therefore "Listening" is an important skill (Hamblin 1974:18). However, we see that "Questioning" was also widely used, possibly because it is a technique often used in teaching as a means of eliciting information and guiding the learners' thinking in a certain direction. The lecturers in England tended to be more empathetic than in KZN, using "Understanding feelings" often, but there is no obvious reason for this apart from their seemingly wider knowledge of counselling skills (although this is apparently contradicted by their extensive use of advice giving). Another interesting anomaly between the teaching and counselling roles is that of "Modelling". One would expect teachers to use this skill often, although perhaps it is used subconsciously, without the educators' being aware of their role as models.

A cause for concern is the report by lecturers at College 1 that they counsel a fairly high number of students for "Lack of confidence" (Table 4.11), yet less than half of them report that they often "Promote self-esteem" (Table 4.18), whereas lecturers at the other two colleges seem to be more positive in this regard.

Similarly, half of the lecturers at the college in England reported "Teaching personal skills" often, whereas less than a third of the lecturers at College 1 did. This would also appear to be an area which should be addressed, because students from disadvantaged backgrounds are probably in great need of developing their skills.

5.2.7 Lecturers' comments on their caring/counselling role, the need for trained counsellors, etc.

With regard to Section G, the response by lecturers to the request for comments on their caring/counselling role and the

need for trained counsellors was poor. One of the possible reasons for this is that it requires more time and effort to respond to open questions and this section was at the end of the questionnaire. More specific questions relating to the colleges may have elicited better responses. On the other hand, some of the respondents may have felt that they had already covered this type of comment by their responses to the questions in Section B. Many of the comments made in this section were of value and gave interesting insight into the perceptions of lecturers regarding their caring role, which was the purpose of the survey.

The comment that students do not ask for or accept help easily is discussed by Earwaker (1992:84), as well as the necessity of knowing to whom to refer distressed students when one is unable to help them oneself. Some lecturers reported being aware of their lack of skills, but not having time to improve them. This view was also supported by Earwaker's findings (1992:50). Others do seek training in basic counselling techniques (Rivis 1996:55).

There was a general feeling that more pastoral care should be offered to students. Some lecturers thought it important to have trained counsellors but realized that financial constraints would not permit this (also noted by Elton Wilson, 1994). It was not satisfactory to devolve this duty onto lecturers because not everyone has the ability or personality to counsel effectively. This view is supported by Hamblin (2.3). Cross-cultural factors also have to be taken into account, according to McLeod and Machin (1998).

5.3 Limitations of the study

5.3.1 Use of the questionnaire

One of the problems encountered when using questionnaires to collect data, is ensuring an adequate response rate to validate the findings. As reported in 4.2, the response rate of the

lecturers at College 1 was only 51 per cent, which gives cause for concern. However, because 72 per cent of the lecturers at College 2 responded, the overall response rate was 62 per cent, which is acceptable. According to Breakwell (1987:286), one would treat 50 per cent as the expected and acceptable rate of return. The similarity between the responses of the two colleges and also the institutions in England, would endorse the reliability of the findings.

5.3.2 The sample

Participants in this survey came from two colleges of education in KwaZulu-Natal and may not be representative of lecturers at colleges of education in other parts of South Africa. However, to minimise any effects of exclusivity, the colleges selected for the survey were from traditionally different backgrounds.

Some additional questions may have been included if the original questionnaires had been available when the present questionnaire was being constructed, although no comparison could have been drawn with the studies in England as the findings on those questions were not published. The previous surveys asked for details of the lecturers' formal training in counselling and what sort of training they would possibly like to receive. However, this may have raised false expectations, as has been explained earlier (3.2.2).

On the other hand, different questions may have been included if the study had not been a replication of previous surveys. One of the most pressing problems which affects an estimated 30 per cent of young people of college-going age in KZN is that of HIV/AIDS. Questions could have been included on the perception of lecturers regarding the concerns of students about their risk of contracting HIV/AIDS, lecturers' perception of their knowledge of and ability to give help, and the need for training of staff and students in counselling in this area.

In addition to the questions on the lecturers' estimation of their confidence in dealing with problems, they could have been asked to estimate the amount of stress they experience as a result of conflict between their teaching role and their pastoral care role. Requirements for staff development could have been ascertained.

5.4 Recommendations for future research

From the review of the literature in this area, it would appear that no research has been done to find out the perceptions of college students regarding their need for counselling. In chapter 2 reference was made to surveys conducted amongst high school learners and university students in this regard, but the only information available about college students seems to be Avery's thesis (1997) on the perceptions of distance college students on the use of contact time, which deals with academic, rather than pastoral care issues. Of the 749 colleges of higher and further education which were contacted by Breakwell in England, "320 had no counselling services" (1987:286), which seems to indicate that there is a widespread lack of formal help available to students in colleges.

This study would seem to indicate that college lecturers perceive there to be a need for more formal counselling facilities than are at present offered to students. Future research could focus on the training of lecturers as counsellors and the employing of trained counsellors. It would be interesting, therefore, to ascertain the perceptions of the students themselves on the need for counselling services at colleges of education. It could possibly be established whether students are satisfied with the level of pastoral care they receive from lecturers or whether they would prefer trained counsellors to be available.

Another possible avenue of investigation would be the use of peer counsellors. Hamblin maintains that peers are acceptable sources

of support because "barriers which impede effective counselling are not present between friends" (1993:71). Another advantage which he states is that learners not only help each other, but they also accelerate their own rate of personal development. Majozi's (1994) investigation of the effects of a university based peer counsellor training programme on levels of empathy is relevant here. Welch and McCarroll (1993:49) suggest that counsellors could act as resource providers, with peer counsellors playing an active role. College 1 is planning to hold a training course at the beginning of the academic year run by the Aids Training, Information and Counselling Centre (ATICC) to equip students to act as peer counsellors for students with HIV/AIDS. This concept could possibly be expanded to include other areas of student need.

Snyder and Daly (1993:40-41) suggest that a competency-based approach to guidance in schools may be helpful, given the constraints in educational budgets. A similar programme could be developed for colleges, which would offer students an outline of the outcomes (knowledge, attitudes and skills) which they need to be successful in careers, relationships and leisure pursuits. They, in turn, would be able to model this for their own learners.

5.5 Conclusion

Having discussed the implications of this study, including its limitations and recommendations for future research, concluding remarks will be made in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION

This study has shown that lecturers at colleges of education do perceive themselves to have a pastoral role in their relationship with their students. More than seventy per cent of the respondents, which constitute sixty two per cent of the total number of lecturers at the two KZN colleges where the surveys were undertaken, considered helping students with problems to be an important and valuable part of their work. However, more than three quarters of the respondents were dissatisfied with the help they were able to offer distressed students and less than twenty per cent were very confident in dealing with problems other than those relating to academic issues.

Nearly half of those who made additional comments expressed the view that there is a need for professionally trained counsellors at colleges. In view of the financial restrictions in education, several respondents advocated that lecturers should be trained in counselling skills as students were already coming to them for help and they would be able to help them more effectively.

There was also a request for an updated referral list for specific problem areas. This would seem to indicate a willingness on the part of lecturers to continue to function in a pastoral capacity even if trained counsellors were to become available. It was mentioned that lecturers at colleges of education serve as role models for their students as future teachers therefore their caring attitude is very important.

This study has attempted to highlight the nature and extent of the caring relationship between lecturers and their students against the background of the pastoral care movement. As is apparent from the review of the literature on this subject, it is difficult to separate the teaching and counselling roles,

because both involve warm, trusting relationships if they are to
be successful. This is particularly relevant nowdays because in
recent years the role of the educator has changed from that of
an authority figure to one of a facilitator. The "whole person"
approach is implemented, which encompasses not only the cognitive
aspects, but also the affective and conative. The non-directive
person-centred approach used in counselling is compatible with
this method of teaching.

As has been mentioned previously, lecturers may themselves
experience stress when helping students in need, especially if
they feel inadequate for the task (see 2.4). Because of
financial constraints in educational funding, it is unlikely that
colleges will be able to employ full-time counsellors in the near
future. It is therefore imperative that lecturers be given
training in interpersonal skills and counselling techniques so
that distressed students will be helped without the lecturers
themselves being overwhelmed.

The author is currently a lecturer at one of the colleges of
education involved in the survey. Our college has recently
introduced a compulsory counselling course for all students
training to be senior primary and secondary school teachers in
anticipation of the growing need that schools will have for
pastoral care of their learners. Although some of the students
may not be ideally suited to become counsellors, the skills to
which they will be exposed will be beneficial to them in their
own personal lives. (The prospect of continued financial
restrictions makes the employment of full-time trained
counsellors unlikely in the near future.)

As far as could be determined, there are no other published
research figures in South Africa specifically on the pastoral
role of lecturers in colleges of education. This study would
appear to be unique in its survey of colleges in KZN. Some
suggestions for further research were given in the previous
chapter and it is hoped that these will be implemented to the

benefit of both lecturers and students at colleges of education.

Earwaker concludes as follows:

> I want to affirm that tutors have a key role to play in supporting students, and one which ... is sometimes undervalued ... Tutors do not have to move into a counselling role in order to help their students; they are already helping them as tutors (1992:131).

The above statement expresses the sentiments of the author and it is hoped that this study will give impetus to further research into ways of assisting lecturers to rise to the challenge of their pastoral role.

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P.O. Box 100478
SCOTTSVILLE
3209
2 June 1998

The Acting Rector
Edgewood College of Education
Private Bag X03
ASHWOOD
3605

Dear Dr Nicholls

Permission to conduct a survey among members of staff

At present I am studying for an M.Ed. degree in Psychology of Education at the University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg. My supervisor is Jacqui Akhurst.

The topic of my dissertation is *"The pastoral role of the lecturer in colleges of education."*

I would appreciate it if you would allow me to conduct a short anonymous survey among your members of academic staff regarding the nature and extent of any pastoral care given to students.

I am conducting a similar survey at Indumiso College, where I am a lecturer. I hope to establish whether there is a need for trained counsellors at colleges and will inform you of the results of the survey.

Tony Moodie has kindly agreed to assist me in dispensing and collecting the questionnaires.

Thank you in anticipation.

Yours sincerely

Sandra Maxwell

Sandra Maxwell (Mrs)

From: Maxwell
To: world:darren.van.laar@port.ac.uk
Date: Friday, 22 May 1998 9:13 pm
Subject: Query

To: D. Van Laar and Simon Easton
Psychology
University of Portsmouth

I am a student at Natal University, Pietermaritzburg in
KwaZuluNatal, South Africa, studying for an M.Ed degree in
Psychology of Education.

I am also a lecturer at a college of education which at the
moment has only black African students, although it is open to
everyone. We have no formal student counselling service but I
personally have been approached by students with difficulties.
I have chosen as the topic for my dissertation "The pastoral
role of the lecturer in colleges of education."

I recently read your article in the British Journal of
Guidance and Counselling, Vol. 23, No. 2, 1995, "Experiences
of lecturers helping distressed students in higher education",
and would like to conduct a survey on similar lines amongst
our academic staff.

I would appreciate it if you would allow me to use your
questionnaires. I may have to adapt them to suit our college.

If you agree to allow me to use them, could you please e-mail
them to me, Sandra Maxwell, at maxwell@phil.unp.ac.za

Thank you in anticipation.
Sandra Maxwell

From: "Darren Van Laar" <vanlaard@sci7.sci.port.ac.uk>
To: "Patrick Maxwell" <maxwell@phil.unp.ac.za>
Date: Friday, 29 May 1998 11:56 am
Subject: Re: Query

Dear Sandra,

You are welcome to use our questionnaire, if you ever get it
published Simon and I would appreciate a reprint.

Good Luck,

Darren

ps I will try to get the questionnaire emailed to you in the
next week, you might have to remind me if you havn't received
it by then!

```
From:      Maxwell                                        C
To:        world:n.hart@wlv.ac.uk
Date:      Friday, 22 May 1998 9:14 pm
Subject:   Query
```

To: Nicola Hart
Psychology
University of Wolverhampton

I am a student at Natal University, Pietermaritzburg in
KwaZuluNatal, South Africa, studying for an M.Ed degree in
Psychology of Education.

I am also a lecturer at a college of education which has only
black African students, although theoretically it is open to
all races. We have no formal student counselling service but I
personally have been approached by students with difficulties.
I have chosen as the topic for my dissertation "The pastoral
role of the lecturer in colleges of education."

I recently read your article in the British Journal of
Guidance and Counselling, Vol. 24, No. 1, 1996, "The role of
the tutor in a college of further education", and would like
to conduct a survey on similar lines amongst our academic
staff.

We do not employ a trained counsellor, so I shall probably do
a comparison between our college and a nearby multi-racial
college.

I would appreciate it if you would allow me to use your
questionnaires. I may have to adapt them to suit our college.
It would also be interesting to compare my findings with
yours.

If you agree to allow me to use them, could you please e-mail
them to me, Sandra Maxwell, at maxwell@phil.unp.ac.za

Thank you in anticipation.
Sandra Maxwell


```
From:      <cs1819@wlv.ac.uk>
To:        Patrick Maxwell <maxwell@phil.unp.ac.za>
Date:      Thursday, 28 May 1998 12:46 pm
Subject:   Re: Query
```

Thank you for your interest in my article. Unfortunately I
will not be able to e-mail the questionnaire but if you send
me an SAE I can post you a copy.

Nicky Hart

UNIVERSITY OF NATAL, PIETERMARITZBURG

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

LECTURER QUESTIONNAIRE

Few lecturers in colleges of education have formal training in counselling, yet they find themselves giving time and attention to helping distressed students even when counselling services are available, which is not often the case. I would like to investigate lecturers' perceptions of their pastoral role.

This survey is being conducted for research purposes and is anonymous. Your responses will remain strictly confidential. Please return the completed questionnaire to **Sandie Maxwell** as soon as possible. Your co-operation is highly appreciated.

SECTION A

Please tick the appropriate answer:

1. Sex

Male	Female

2. Age (in years)

21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61+

3. Number of years in teaching

1 or less	2-5	6-10	11+

4. Position

Lecturer	Senior Lecturer	HOD

SECTION B

Please mark with a cross your responses to the following questions:

1. Do you think students are increasingly coming to lecturers for help with their problems?

        Yes   No   Don't know

2. Do you consider helping distressed students tackle their problems to be an important and valuable part of your work?

          Yes   No   Sometimes

3. Do you sometimes wish you knew more about how to help distressed students tackle their problems?

          Yes   No   Sometimes

4. Do you often feel dissatisfied with the help you are able to offer students who come to you in distress?

          Yes   No   Sometimes

5. Do you feel that you have enough knowledge about other sources of help for students in distress (e.g. helplines, counselling services, FAMSA, SANCA, etc)?

          Yes   No   Sometimes

6. Do you consider some discussion of students' personal problems to be part of your duty as a lecturer?

          Yes   No   Sometimes

SECTION C

Please indicate either "Yes" or "No" if you have "counselled" students on any of the following problems in the past year:

Problem	Yes	No
Financial problems		
Bursary problems		
Health problems		
Accommodation problems		
Career/course decision		
Examination anxiety		
Lack of confidence		
Overwork		
Death/bereavement		
Depression		
Relationships		
Homesickness		
Loneliness		
Other		

SECTION D

Please rate, on a four-point scale, how confident you feel in dealing with the following problems:

Type of problem	Not at all confident	Not very confident	Fairly confident	Very confident
Financial problems				
Health problems				
Academic problems				
Course guidance				
Careers counselling				
Attendance/discipline				
Conflict with staff				
Conflict with friends				
Family problems				
Relationships				
Pregnancy				
Drug abuse				

SECTION E

Please rank from 1 to 10 how important you feel the following skills are in the helping role, with "1" being the most important.

Skill	Ranking
Confidence	
Emotional expression	
Giving advice	
Training	
Being available	
Offering encouragement	
Reliable and confident	
Promoting self-understanding	
Instilling hope	
Understanding the problem	

SECTION F

Please estimate how often you use the following skills:

Skill	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Not at all
Questioning				
Clarifying and focusing				
Listening				
Understanding feelings				
Reflecting and paraphrasing				
Giving advice				
Modelling				
Promoting self-esteeem				
Teaching personal skills				

SECTION G

Please add any comments on the caring/counselling role of lecturers, the need for trained counsellors, etc.

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. . . .

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE

Sandra Maxwell
Jacqui Ackhurst

STATISTICAL DATA

The printouts of the statistical data are available from the
author via the Department of Educational Psychology,
University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg.