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THE EXPERIMENTAL IMPLEMENTATION OF A
TRAINING PROGRAMME FOR HIGHER PRIMARY
SCHOOL GUIDANCE TEACHERS

Submitted to

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING
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SUMMARY

Originating in a request by the Johannesburg Region of the Department
of Education and Training for the National Institute for Personnel
Research to undertake the training of approximately 280 Black higher
primary school teachers in Soweto and Alexandra, the present study
was aimed at determining the effectiveness of a training programme
designed to train these newly-appointed guidance teachers to teach
guidance as a school subject, with particular reference to the
'knowledge of guidance' of the teachers.

The sample comprised three groups : the group of guidance teachers
who underwent the training programme ($\underline{n}$ = 265); a group of untrained
guidance teachers ($\underline{n}$ = 91); and a group of subject teachers ($\underline{n}$ = 237),
from the same schools as the group of trained guidance teachers. Attempts
were made to match the last group on the variables of sex, age, level of
education and years of teaching experience with the first group.

A significant difference was observed between the scores of the trained
guidance teachers and those of both the untrained guidance teachers and
subject teachers with regard to 'knowledge of guidance'. No difference,
moreover, was found between the scores of the untrained guidance teachers
and the subject teachers, which rules out the possibility that guidance
teaching experience alone had accounted for the higher scores of the
trained guidance teachers. It was, therefore, concluded that the
training programme was able to raise the level of guidance knowledge
of those teachers who participated in the programme to an appreciable
extent.

OPSOMMING

Met die oorsprong in 'n versoek deur die Johannesburgse Distrik van die
Departement van Onderwys en Opleiding aan die Nasionale Instituut vir
Personeelnavorsing, om die opleiding van ongeveer 280 Swart hoër laer-
skoolonderwysers in Soweto te onderneem, is die huidige ondersoek gemik
om die effektiwiteit van 'n opleidingsprogram te bepaal, ontwerp om
hierdie nuut-aangestelde voorligtingonderwysers op te lei om voorligting
as 'n skoolvak te gee, met besondere verwysing na die "kennis van voor-
ligting" van die onderwysers.

Die steekproef is saamgestel uit drie groepe : die groep voorligting-
onderwysers wat die opleidingsprogram ondergaan het (n = 265); 'n
groep onopgeleide voorligtingonderwysers (n = 91); en 'n groep vak-
onderwysers (n = 237) van dieselfde skole as die groep opgeleide voor-
ligtingonderwysers.   Pogings is aangewend om die laaste groep op ver-
anderlikes van geslag, ouderdom, vlak van onderwys en jare van onderwys-
ondervinding met die eerste groep af te paar.

'n Beduidende verskil is waargeneem tussen die tellings van die
opgeleide voorligtingonderwysers en die van beide die onopgeleide
voorligtingonderwysers en vakonderwysers met verwysing na "kennis van
voorligting".   Geen verskil is verder gevind tussen die tellings van
die onopgeleide voorligtingonderwysers en die vakonderwysers nie, wat
die moontlikheid uitskakel dat voorligtingsondervinding alleen die hoër
punte van die opgeleide voorligtingonderwysers tot gevolg gehad het.
Daar is dus tot die slotsom gekom dat die opleidingsprogram geskik was
om die vlak van voorligtingskennis van daardie onderwysers wat aan die
program deelgeneem het tot 'n betekenisvolle mate te verhoog.

1.   INTRODUCTION

1.1   General background

Although guidance services in South Africa have been available in
White schools since 1943 (J van Niekerk, 1967), guidance services
for Black schools have, until recently, been conspicuous by their
absence.   In 1981, the Department of Education and Training, which is
responsible for almost all school education received by Blacks, intro-
duced guidance teacher posts in the Black schools to allow for specific
guidance syllabi to be dealt with from Standard 6 to Standard 10.   The
guidance teacher posts were filled by teachers, already on the staff,
who had been selected by their own principals.   They had had, almost
without exception, no previous training in or experience of teaching
guidance.   For this reason, the Regional Director of the Johannesburg
Region of the Department of Education and Training requested the
National Institute for Personnel Research (NIPR) to undertake the
training of approximately 100 newly-appointed secondary school
guidance teachers.   As far as can be established, this group of
teachers was the first ever in Black education in South Africa to
undergo a training programme geared specifically to teaching them to
teach guidance.   This training has been reported on in some detail
by Visser, Hall, Pretorius, Raubenheimer and Spence (in press) and
is also described in Section 2 of this report.

1.2   The need for the present study

In 1982 the Department of Education and Training introduced guidance
services in Black higher primary schools for Standard 5 pupils.
Once again, the NIPR was asked to undertake the training of the teachers
as a group.   They were similar to the teachers who had undergone the
NIPR training in 1981 in that they had also been selected by their
principals.   The large increase in the numbers of teachers who would
undergo the 1982 training (approximately 280 in comparison with 100 in
1981) as well as various problems encountered during the 1981 programme
(Visser et al., in press) led to the development of a revised training
programme for the higher primary school teachers (Spence, 1982).   This

programme is described in Section 4 of this report.

In view of the urgent need for guidance services for the Black population (Lätti, Visser, Hall, Makaula, Raubenheimer & Tabane, 1980) as well as the recency of the project, it was thought to be particularly relevant that the effectiveness of the 1982 training programme be investigated because of its implications for the training of guidance teachers in the future.

1.3   The aim of the present study

The aim of the present study was to determine the effectiveness of a programme designed to train newly-appointed Black higher primary school guidance teachers to teach guidance as a school subject, with particular reference to the 'knowledge of guidance' of the teachers.

2.   LITERATURE SURVEY

2.1   Need for guidance

In recent years Blacks in South Africa have been exposed to an increasing range of occupational activities (Cloete, 1981; Department of Labour, 1977, 1979; Erwee, 1981).   Furthermore, because of the relaxation of many job reservation policies (Bendix, 1979), suitably qualified Blacks are able to choose from a wide range of skilled and professional occupations (Cloete, 1981; Erwee, 1981). These developments are in sharp contrast to the situation in which until the early 1970's, Blacks had provided mainly cheap, unskilled manual labour (Biesheuvel, 1974).   South Africa has recently experienced a rapid technological development together with a concomitant need for manpower.   The training and manpower development efforts and expenses of industry may only, however, yield the desired results if effective careers guidance is available, for if young people can be channelled into careers compatible with their aptitudes, abilities and interests, they stand a better chance of finding satisfaction

and achieving success in their jobs. This in turn augments the
chances for increased productivity, economic success, continued
growth and better opportunities for people to develop and to
aspire to higher levels.

2.1.1   Survey of guidance facilities

The findings of the survey undertaken by the NIPR at the request
of the Manpower 2000 vocational guidance sub-committee, (Lätti,
Visser, Hall, Makaula, Raubenheimer & Tabane, 1980) are worth
commenting upon in some detail. Of the total population of over
one and a half million in the Johannesburg metropolitan area, 80%
of the Blacks have less than a Standard 6 education, while only 30%
of the Whites fall into this category. Malherbe (1977) noted that
in 1972 there were 9% matriculated Whites per 1 000 of the White
South African population compared with 0,5% matriculated Blacks per
1 000. These figures are supported by Lätti et al.'s (1980) finding
that in the Johannesburg metropolitan Black population of just on one
million, there are only 200 graduates (that is, 0,02%) while in the
Johannesburg metropolitan White population of just on half a million
there are 21 000 graduates (that is, 4%). These figures are also
comparable with those cited by Wispe, Ash, Awkard, Hicks, Hoffman and
Porter (1969) in an American study of Black graduates. Visser (1982)
makes the point that these figures underline

> The fact that the likelihood of Blacks being able to
> earn effectively in a sophisticated Western economy
> is severely limited (p. 130).

2.1.2   Career aspirations of Blacks

The unrealistic career aspirations of Blacks because of certain cul-
tural and political determinants have been well documented (Breger,
1976; Cloete, 1981; Erwee, 1981; Hall, 1978, 1980; Mojalefa, 1980;
Shannon, 1975; Visser, 1978). It would appear that lack of self-
knowledge (Cloete, 1981; Durojaiye, 1970;E.Smith, 1980; Visser, in
press), lack of contact with and knowledge of the working world (Cloete,

1981; Davidson, 1980; Durojaiye, 1970; Erwee, 1981; Mojalefa, 1980;
Nicholas, 1978), as well as lack of occupational knowledge in critical
areas such as university and college entrance requirements, availability
of bursaries and knowledge of the job market (Cloete, 1981; Erwee, 1981;
Mojalefa, 1980; Smith, 1975; Thomas et al., 1979; Visser, in press)
contribute to such unrealistic aspirations. The results of various
studies have indicated an almost inverse relationship between the per-
centage of students expecting to enter professional occupations and
the percentage actually employed at this level (Cloete, 1981; Erwee,
1981; Lätti et al., 1980; Visser, 1978). Lätti et al. (1980) further
observe that 85% of Black matriculants aspire to professional or semi-
professional occupations, yet only 1% are actually employed at this
level. Cloete (1981) also notes that there is a similar trend in the
skilled category where expectations also deviate significantly from
actual labour market opportunities.

2.1.3   Range of occupational choice among Blacks

The narrowness of the range of occupational preference expressed by
Blacks, with its emphasis on social service professions, has been well
documented (Biesheuvel, 1962 ; Breger, 1976; Cloete, 1981; Durojaiye,
1970; Erwee, 1981; Geber & Newman, 1980; Hall, 1978, 1980; Mojalefa,
1980; Obanya, 1978; Shannon, 1975; E. Smith, 1980; Sparks, 1980;
Thomas, 1970; Thomas et al., 1979; Tunmer, 1972, Visser, 1978; Watts,
1980; Williams, 1979). While Cloete (1981) observes that preference
for the social service occupations is due first, to inadequate occupa-
tional knowledge and, second, the ready availability of social service
jobs (for example, teaching and nursing), E. Smith (1980) has noted
the American trend where social science graduates are exceeding the
number of job openings in this field. Such a trend may well have
implications for the South African job market in the future. Cloete
(1981) believes that

> Integration of Blacks into the full spectrum of the
> labour market depends ... not only on the removal of
> legislative blockages, but also on the intention of
> Blacks to enter occupations in all the different
> sectors and levels of the economy (p. 53).

In order to accomplish this, comprehensive careers guidance is necessary at secondary school level at least (Burlew, 1980; Durojaiye, 1970; Gysbers & Moore, 1981; HRSC, 1981a) as an adjunct to the system of differentiated education prevalent in South Africa (Haasbroek, Beukes, Carstens & Bongers, 1978), but preferably as early as possible (Cloete, 1981; Cloete & Le Roux, 1979; Geber & Newman, 1980; HSRC, 1981b; E. Smith, 1980; Visser, in press). Even with the many opportunities now available to Blacks, the dearth of adequate guidance services in the schools (Cloete, 1981; Cloete & Le Roux, 1979; Durojaiye, 1970; HSRC, 1981a, 1981b; Lätti et al., 1980; Mojalefa, 1980; Nicholas, 1980; E. Smith, 1980; Smyth, 1982) will be sufficient to prevent the vast majority of young Blacks from ever developing their full potential.

2.1.4   Careers guidance facilities for Blacks

Of the total 'target group' of 400 800 of the population of metropolitan Johannesburg who are between the ages of 12 and 24 and who are classified as such because they are most in need of careers counselling, only 9% (excluding schoolgoers) have any access to individual careers counselling (Lätti et al., 1980).   When this percentage is broken down into its components, it is apparent that 32% of Whites, 2,1% of Coloureds, 2,8% of Asians and only 1,1% of Blacks have recourse to some kind of vocational guidance service. This is an alarming state of affairs for as Visser (1982) points out, these figures suggest that in the Johannesburg metropolitan area alone there are about 237 000 young people who receive no professional guidance at all!

2.1.4.1   Careers guidance facilities for Black schoolgoers

The figures cited thus far have excluded schoolgoers.   Lätti et al., (1980), however, further report that the enrolments in State and State-aided Black schools in the Johannesburg area in 1979 and 1980 were as follows (see Table 1):

Table 1

Enrolments in State and State-aided Black schools in the
Johannesburg metropolitan area in 1979 and 1980

	Year	
Group	1979	1980
Junior primary (Grade 1 - Standard 2)	95 313	92 538
Senior primary (Standard 3 - Standard 5)	51 920	54 454
Junior secondary (Standard 6 - Standard 8)	28 399	36 319
Senior secondary (Standard 9 - Standard 10)	3 433	9 626

Two major inferences may be made from these figures. First, there has
been a marked increase in the population of Black pupils at higher
educational levels, and second, there is a staggering proportion of
early school leavers. Before the introduction of guidance as a subject
into Black schools in 1981, guidance facilities for Black schoolgoers
were woefully inadequate (Barnard, 1977; Cloete & Le Roux, 1979;
Dovey, 1980a; Lätti et al., 1980), and even now many of those who have
been made responsible for guidance in the Black schools are apprehensive
and uneasy in their new roles, unsure of what their roles and functions
are and dreading that they are being used as pawns to peddle alien social,
religious and political ideologies to their young Black charges.
Dlamini (1982) expresses a view that is most probably representative of
the feelings of the majority of Black guidance teachers :

> Deep down I feel once more dragged along by dictates
> outside me -- to follow the new fad -- guidance, social
> guidance, career guidance, personal guidance, etc. Some-
> body somewhere has cooked up a curriculum based on an
> alien philosophy of life (his own), with stacks of litera-
> ture on guidance skills and techniques, schools of thought
> (remember he has been at it much longer whilst it was taboo
> to me), etc., and I am required to use these on my own
> people. I am being rushed from one crash course to the
> next to learn about guidance. I am to add this to my
> overloaded duties, but guidance there must be -- ill
> prepared, rushed, inadequate, ill defined, with no community
> involvement, parental involvement, etc., and I want to shout
> HALT!! (p.3)

It has been observed in both American(Dole, 1973; Griffith & London,
1980; June & Fooks, 1980; Mims, 1978; Pallone et al., 1970, 1973;
Prediger, Roth & Noeth, 1974) and South African (Cloete, 1981; Erwee,
1981; Mojalefa, 1980; Smyth, 1982) studies that the key influencers
of the occupational choices of young Blacks are not school counsellors,
or even teachers (although these are rated consistently more highly
than school counsellors!), but "parents -- who are often illiterate --
maintain the most important but possibly ill-informed influence"
(Mojalefa, 1980, p. 81). Mojalefa (1980) further observes that only
5% of her sample of Black first-year university students had been
influenced in their choice of study course by a vocational guidance
teacher, and Cloete and Le Roux (1979), in making the point that the
guidance problems of the Black student are immense, stress that in
their study, 73% of the first-year students expressed a need for help
with subject choice, 68% wanted information on careers to which dif-
ferent courses and subjects could lead, and that the vast majority
were first-generation university students who came from schools where
80% of the teachers have no degree qualifications or have never attended
a residential university.

2.2.   Nature of school guidance

The task ahead of Black guidance teachers is, indeed, immense and it seems logical at this point to develop a workable definition of just what school guidance is, with particular reference to Black schools. The American literature is of little relevance because the American school counsellor who usually holds at least a master's degree in counselling or guidance (Stefflre, 1962) bears little resemblance to the Black South African guidance teacher who, if fortunate, has matriculated and who has had little, if any, exposure to, let alone professional training in, counselling or guidance. It stands to reason that the roles and function of each will be vastly different.

2.2.1   American views on school guidance

Most American writers agree, however, that school guidance is a continuous, sequential, educative process (Shertzer & Stone, 1976), accountable to the general goals of education (Gysbers & Moore, 1981), aimed at helping the individual pupil cope with various phases of his development in his progress toward not only vocational but also life-style choice (Brammer & Shostrom, 1977). As such it is aimed primarily and systematically at the personality development of the individual and oriented toward co-operation, not compulsion.

> Guidance in education represents society's expression
> of concern for the individual

say Shertzer and Stone (1976, p.42). Some writers believe, however, that guidance is less 'society's expression of concern' than society's vehicle for combatting its manpower need problems (Berdie, 1960; Bowles, 1959; Mathewson, 1964; Patterson, 1971; Super, 1954, 1974) as, indeed, was the case when guidance was first introduced into America (Aubrey, 1977). Super (1974) has pointed out that four fundamental conflicts about vocational and educational guidance need to be resolved, and these centre on whether guidance should be directed toward efficient labour power utilization or toward facilitating individual human development; whether the focus should be on occupational

choice or on career development; whether counsellors should dis-
seminate vocational information or engage in counselling relationships;
and whether guidance should be the province of professional counsel-
lors or of lay people.   With regard to the first issue, particularly,
guidance counsellors have been condemned for pandering to the concern
about the manpower shortage in scientific and technical fields by
identifying talented individuals and routing them to special prepara-
tory classes for scientific or technical careers (Bowles, 1959).   The
issue became such a heated and controversial one that the American Per-
sonnel and Guidance Association was obliged to issue a statement (1958)
saying that only if an individual's interests and abilities warrant it,
should that individual be channelled into a scientific or technical
career. E. Smith (1980), however, expresses concern about the under-
representation of racial minorities in the hard sciences and engineering.
She believes that the job market for science and engineering graduates
in America is expanding rapidly, but that

> Racial minorities are continuing to pursue courses
> of study in which there is a dwindling job market, the
> salary is low, and the chance of advancement slim (p. 142).

2.2.1.1   The systems approach in American school guidance

Guidance in America is considerably more than a school subject. Much
attention has recently been given to developing a specific content
base for guidance (Aubrey, 1973; Gysbers & Moore, 1981; Sprinthall,
1971), which is accountable in terms of the general goals of education
(Gysbers & Moore, 1981).   Comprehensive, developmental guidance pro-
grammes have been devised which depend upon the systems approach in
order to ensure the development and implementation of an accountable
programme (Dunn, 1972; Ewens, Dobson & Seals, 1976; Hays, 1972;
Ryan, 1978; Ryan & Zeran, 1972) which is then treated as an integral
part of the educational programme.   Gubser (1974) has stressed,
however, that if guidance programmes are to be accountable, the
school system, too, must be accountable.

2.2.1.2   Careers guidance as a separate entity

Various writers (Cottingham, 1973; Dinkmeyer, 1966; Kehas, 1973;
Mathewson, 1962; Richardson & Baron, 1975; Zaccaria, 1965) have
stressed the need for developmental guidance programmes in which
attention is paid to aspects of human development other than pure
cognitive learning.   Richardson and Baron (1975) and Gysbers and
Moore (1981) actually propose two kinds of programmes in this
developmental model : social learning (including careers guidance)
to be transmitted primarily through subject teachers and the community;
and personal learning to be transmitted primarily through the school
guidance personnel.   Glanz (1964), Patterson, (1971) and Sprinthall,
in a recantation, (1980) believe that separating the guidance office
from the academic curriculum is unjustified.   Patterson (1971), in
agreement with Geber and Newman (1980) who have observed the fairly
consistent relationship between the school as a socializing agent
and the society within which it operates, argues for cohesion between
school and guidance and between careers guidance and personal guidance:

> It ... seems apparent that, as personal and social
> development must be the concern of education, even
> if the major objective of education be the develop-
> ment of the intellect, so must they be the concern
> of counselling, even if the major interest is in
> vocational and occupational counselling. As personal
> and social adjustment are important for good citizen-
> ship, so are they important for good workers (Patter-
> son, 1971, p. 21).

2.2.1.3   Guidance for Blacks

There is something of an ambivalence noticeable in the work of the
American writers dealing with the subject of guidance for Blacks.
Some, for example Vontress (1979), propose that cross-cultural
guidance be viewed in the light of an existential philosophy such
that there is understanding and acceptance of the fact that all
people are basically alike and that to suggest that

> ... people are different and therefore should be
> treated uniquely plays right into the hands of the
> in-group bigots who maintain that the out-groups
> are not only different but inferior (Vontress, 1979, p. 121).

Others, for example Smith (1977) and Williams (1979) disagree, and maintain that recognition of cultural differences in counselling Blacks is important as long as this recognition does not lead to stereotyping. Sue (1977, 1978) pleads for a differential approach, noting that what appears to be equal treatment in the counselling of minorities may well be discriminatory treatment, and Banks (1977) and Washington and Lee (1981) stress the need for the development of a systematic counselling theory which includes social, political and cultural issues. Griffith (1978, 1980) in an argument for differentiated guidance observes that whereas the process of vocational choice implies renouncing some ideal opportunity in order to arrive at a perceived, more realistic opportunity, the real and perceived opportunity structures for Blacks in America are qualitatively and quantitatively different from those available to Whites. Farmer (1978) believes that the role of the Black guidance counsellor entails not only functioning as an agent of social change, but acting as a repository of updated knowledge about changes in employment and training opportunities for Blacks. This dual role of the Black guidance counsellor is affirmed by Stikes (1978) and Smith (1974) in whose comments the recent trend towards militant Black consciousness in counselling is somewhat apparent :

> Remember, counseling for the sake of counseling is
> worthless unless placed in the context of a black life
> style directed toward self-determination, respect and
> justice. We need Blacks in the counseling business to
> inform the brotherhood when opportunities are open,
> to inform them when rules change, and to show them how
> special information can be used to promote their cause
> (Smith, 1974, pp. 491-492).

There has been a strong emphasis on 'action-oriented' career guidance programmes for Black youth in America (Dallas, 1973; G. Smith, 1980; Sue, 1978; White, 1979) rather than passive 'client-centred' programmes. It is believed that such programmes can provide a means of strengthening or modifying self-concepts and enabling individuals to confirm or reject tentative occupational roles (White, 1979).   Indeed, a number of writers argue that traditionally acceptable career development theories have very little relevance to Blacks (June & Pringle, 1977; Smith, 1975; Williams, 1972) and Ford and Ford (1978) note that although Super (1971) regards movement of an individual from one career family to another as 'floundering', such a process may be a necessary one for the young Black who cannot succeed by means of the 'career-ladder' approach. They propose a model of calculated job speculation which involves a systematic plan to increase the economic gains of Black people through planned job change.

2.2.2   South African views

There is a limited amount of literature on counselling in Africa and what does exist tends to focus on West African countries. Carter (1980) in a review of the literature notes that Africa has more than 50 countries, all independent, all having differing cultures, customs and environments, and that in attempting to evaluate the work done in African countries one must be careful not to over-generalise or to apply Western standards.   Ipaye (1982a), describing the introduction of group counselling methods into Nigerian secondary schools, concludes that :

> Experience thus far and available data both show unmistaka-
> bly that Nigerian schools need counselling service. With
> the gradual introduction of group and individual counselling
> in a few secondary schools, Nigerian counsellors are called
> upon to evolve counselling technique(s) that will deal effec-
> tively with those problems faced by the African child, but
> for which Western-formulated theories have no answer (p. 46).

2.2.2.1   School guidance for Whites

As far as school guidance for Whites is concerned, even though
it has been in existence in South Africa since 1943 (J van Niekerk,
1967), there is a relative paucity of literature available. The
schools have accepted government policy in this regard and a defini-
tion of school guidance such as that of Haasbroek et al. (1978) is
illustrative of the 'Christian-National' (Dovey, 1980a; HSRC, 1981b;
Malherbe, 1977; Watts, 1980) tone of guidance in South African
schools :

> School guidance can be regarded as accountable
> assistance and support by the school guidance
> officer to pupils who require assistance and
> support in making an educational and vocational
> choice, so that on the strength of careful self-
> evaluation they obtain such insight into their
> situation and master their assumption of a point
> of view with regard to their vocational future
> in such a way that they can make an educational
> and vocational choice on their own responsibility
> as a preliminary stage of task fulfilment when they
> are vocational adults (Haasbroek et al., 1978, p. 11)
> (underlining in the original).

Writers such as De Broize (1980), Dovey (1980a, 1980b) and Watts (1980)
have attacked the formal school guidance syllabus because there is no
single national syllabus (instead, there is a different syllabus for
each racial group); the aims of the syllabi are strongly individual-
istic, psychologically biased and manpower needs-oriented; there is
little opportunity for pupils to participate and explore the experiences
and issues of their own generation; and at least one provincial sylla-
bus actively encourages the psychological preparation of its youth for
war.

2.2.2.2   The commissioned investigation into education

Certainly the most comprehensive statement on the nature of school
guidance in South Africa is contained in the recommendations of the
De Lange Commission's Investigation into Education (HSRC, 1981a, 1981b).
The educational system of any country is always a product of its
peoples and the forces both supporting and threatening them. South
Africa is no exception as can be seen by the "specific challenges
facing education" (HSRC, 1981b, p. 5) which the Guidance Committee
(HSRC, 1981b) has chosen to emphasize when stating the purposes
of school guidance. These somewhat parochial 'challenges' are :

--   the 'knowledge explosion'

--   presentation of discrepant norms in the school, the home, the
      media and the 'outside world'

--   perception, by pupils, of great differences in opportunity, ac-
      cess and privilege in society

--   a decline in the influence of the home and, in some cases,
      abnegation by parents of their responsibilities

--   confusion over ultimate values

--   collective behaviour, social movements and terrorism
      (HSRC, 1981b, pp. 5-6)

Because the De Lange Commission's recommendations are expected to have
far-reaching consequences for education in South Africa in general,
it is worth commenting on them in some detail, especially as they
concern school guidance.   Most noteworthy is the recommendation that
no differentiation be made in the quality of guidance services for
any of the South African population.   Nine principles of school
guidance are set out, and it is worth quoting them in full as they
make the Commission's views about the nature of guidance abundantly
clear :

(1)   The State shall strive to ensure that every
pupil shall have equal access to a school guidance
programme of equivalent standard.

(2)   Values of different cultures and communities
shall be considered and respected in a school guidance
programme.

(3)   School guidance shall recognise positively the
freedom of individual pupils and their parents with
regard to educational and career choice.

(4)   School guidance shall in an educationally res-
ponsible way take account of the individual needs
of the pupil, as well as the social, economic and
manpower needs of the country.

(5)   The development of school guidance in its formal,
non-formal and informal respects shall involve joint
participation of parents, community organizations, the
State and especially the private sector, because of the
ultimate benefit this sector derives from school guidance.

(6)   The provision of formal guidance shall be the
responsibility of the State, provided that the individual,
parents and society shall have a joint responsibility, say
and choice in this regard.

(7)   There shall be overall co-ordination of school
guidance services whatever the extent of decentralization
of these services may be.

(8)   Registration of all trained guidance personnel in
schools and clinics through one central teachers' re-
gistration organization responsible for the evaluation
of qualifications, shall be provided for.

(9)   There shall be constant updating of careers information
and guidance methods, by means of ongoing evaluation and
research.   (HSRC, 1981b, pp. 7-9)

Of particular relevance to principles 4 and 8 is the recommendation
that "all advice-giving personnel should have had some teacher
training and likewise that all teachersshould have had guidance
training" (HSRC, 1981b, p. 8).   An attempt is also made to provide
an 'operational' definition of school guidance :

> It is a practice, a process of bringing the pupil
> into contact with the world of reality in such a way
> that he acquires life-skills and techniques which
> allow him to direct himself competently (i.e. to
> become self-actualising) within the educational,
> personal and social spheres and the world of work,
> in order to progress and survive effectively.
> (HSRC, 1981b, p.5)

2.2.2.2.1   Careers guidance as a separate entity

In order for school guidance as defined in the aforegoing quotation
to progress smoothly, the HSRC report further proposes a division
between 'careers' guidance and 'general' guidance, with professional
personnel separately responsible for each.   Even though at least one
provincial counselling society (Mackay, 1981) has protested against
this proposed division of services, the HSRC Main Committee has adopted
this proposal in its recommendations to the government (HSRC, 1981a).
Perhaps the main thrust of such a division would be to concentrate pro-
fessional effort on careers guidance, for the main report further re-
commends that

> ... there should be a move towards a balance between general
> formative preparatory academic education and general forma-
> tive preparatory career education, which relates better to
> the manpower needs of the country (HSRC, 1981a, p. 139).

While this recommendation smacks of the political tone to which
the American writers reviewed in section 2.2.1 object so vocife-
rously, the report is careful to stress that this

> ... does not imply any restriction on the realization
> of the possibilities open to learners, since in the
> great diversity of manpower needs there is ample
> scope for the realization of the individual's
> potential (HSRC, 1981a, p. 139)

The pleas of the report for the design of academic curricula which
encourage at as early an age as possible the mathematical, natural
science and technical development of pupils, are echoes of the pleas
of E. Smith (1980) in her assessment of the American Black situation,
for, as mentioned previously, she believes that this is where the most
lucrative job opportunities are. Visser's (in press) comment expres-
ses a useful and pragmatic point of view :

> Personally, as a counsellor, I do not believe that
> guidance should be used only as a mechanism for
> channelling people into occupations where there are
> gaps in the economy.   Nevertheless, it cannot make
> sense to encourage people to aspire to occupations
> where no openings exist.

2.2.2.3   'Guidance' versus 'counselling'

The essential nature of this controversy appears to have been
resolved by Rodgers (1981) in his examination of what he believes
to be the semantic confusion between the terms 'guidance' and 'counsel-
ling'.   He believes that 'guidance' ideally involves all school staff,
and that it is largely "cognitive, structured, didactic and teacher-
centred" (p. 8).   In practical terms, the school counsellor offers
a guidance service whenever he administers, scores, or interprets

psychological tests, arranges careers evenings, distributes
career information, conducts guidance lessons and liaises with
the school psychologist or social worker.   He is of the opinion
that 'counselling' is a function peculiar to the school counsellor,
and that it is "more affective, relatively unstructured, therapeutic,
pupil centred, personal and confidential than is guidance" (p. 8).
In practical terms, the school counsellor offers a counselling
service when he relates to pupils on a one-to-one basis or in
small groups and assists them through the use of his counselling
skills to understand and to deal effectively with their personal
concerns within a warm and trusting relationship.

2.2.2.4   School guidance for Blacks

There is almost no literature available on school guidance for
Blacks in South Africa, and to "move from consideraing careers
guidance for Whites to a discussion of careers guidance for Blacks
is to move from one world to another" (Watts, 1980, p. 77).   This
is hardly surprising since guidance was only introduced as a school
subject into Black secondary schools in 1981 and into Black higher
primary schools in 1982.   What literature there is (De Broize,
1980; Dlamini, 1982; Dovey, 1980a, 1982; Watts, 1980) tends to
suggest that guidance syllabi adequate for 'White' purposes may
not be adequate for 'Black' purposes because of the large gap
between ideal, perceived and real opportunity structures for
Blacks in South Africa.   Whereas Cloete (1981) suggests that
one of the tasks of careers guidance among Blacks is to take into
account the opportunities in the South African job market and to
work actively to lower the aspirations and expectations of young
Blacks accordingly, Watts (1980) warns that :

> Overt attention to careers guidance might have the
> effect of raising aspirations beyond the capacity
> or will of the political system to meet them.
> It might also focus undue attention on the limitations
> of the opportunity structure, thus opening these limita-
> tions to inspection and to question.   The dangers of this

are particularly acute in a place like Soweto, where
Black political unrest has been most visible and
most marked (p. 81).

He goes even further and predicts that the guidance services being
planned for Black youth will fall far short of their intended success
because there will be little opportunity for Blacks to develop and
express their awareness of the issues facing them :

In this context, careers guidance services that operate
within the conventional framework are likely to attract
suspicion and even hostility, and to be of little
value in relation to the basic issues which the
students have to confront in making their choices.
This is likely to be more generally true, for example,
of the guidance syllabus which is now being developed
for Black schools. If -- as is probable -- the
guidance curriculum places a strong emphasis on sociali-
sation to officially-approved social norms, it is likely
at the very least to be ineffective.   Even if students
go through the motions of acquiescence, it will be
regarded by them as just another lesson in which the
teacher is telling them what he thinks they should
know, only this time there is not even an examination
certificate at the end of it to make it instrumentally
worthwhile to play the rules of the game (p. 83).

It is worth noting that the presenters of a course designed to train
newly-appointed Black guidance teachers in secondary schools in
Soweto, while noting initially the fear, apprehension and frustration
expressed by Dlamini (1982), also observed an increasing respect and
enthusiasm among the trainees for the subject of guidance and the
effect that its introduction was having on their pupils (Visser,
Hall, Pretorius, Raubenheimer & Spence, in press).   Prophecies of
failure to the contrary, guidance in Black schools, particularly

where the teachers have been trained for their duties, is on the upsurge (Ipaye, 1982a; Mack, 1980; Mackay, 1981; Mathabe, 1982; Visser et al., in press).

2.2.2.4.1   Approaches in guidance for Blacks

Researchers in other African countries (Esen, 1972; Dlamini, 1982; Durojaiye, 1970; Ipaye, 1982a, 1982b) suggest that it would be both a mistake and an oversight to attempt to make guidance for Blacks exactly the same as that for Whites, for then much of the appreciation of their own culture, so necessary for the development of individuals with positive self-concepts (Dlamini, 1982; Dovey, 1980b; Esen, 1972; Luthuli, 1981) would be overlooked, and in any event, the current emphasis on both the possession of client-centred interpersonal skills and also the freedom and responsibility of the individual with regard to his choices in counselling for Whites would be out of place in the African context (Esen, 1972; Ipaye, 1982a, 1982b; Olaoye, 1974; Pulleybank, 1974; Van Zijl, 1977), for

> Africa's culture is (not only) a much more authori-
> tarian and adult centred culture in which most child-
> ren are not expected to participate in adult discussions,
> and many children cannot discuss their problems freely
> even with their own parents, (but also) there are some
> decisions the individual cannot make on his own without
> recourse to the family (Ipaye, 1982b, p. 35).

Sue (1978) further suggests that minority clients are more receptive to counselling skills which are 'action-oriented' -- giving advice, suggestions, directions -- as opposed to the more inactive -- re-flections of feelings, paraphrasing, summarizing -- ones. Both Stikes (1972) and Watts (1980) further note the reluctance of Black clients with regard to self-disclosure although Coetzer (1977) has

shown that self-disclosure among Black South Africans is dependent
on the nature of the relationship built up between counsellor and
client.   Watts (1980), taking a more political stance, warns that
the client-centred approach in guidance and counselling for Blacks
in South Africa could be dangerous :

> For in a place like Soweto, where schools are so
> much the focus of political attention, and where
> the fear of informers is rife, it will surely be
> impossible for students to explore in an open way
> their ideas and feelings about themselves and about the
> society in which they live.   Indeed, if the guidance
> curriculum encourages them to do this, without accep-
> ting its implications, it may become the object of
> real antagonism.   To dabble in the client centred
> language of guidance can be dangerous unless it is honest:
> if it is hypocritical, and is rumbled, it is likely to
> attract much more violent hostility than an openly
> authoritarian approach (p. 83).

In contrast with his earlier writings (Watts, 1979; Law & Watts,
1977), which are of relevance to White British persons, Watts (1980)
suggests that the best course for careers guidance within the cur-
riculum of Black schools in South Africa may be to restrict it to
the provision of information.   It is interesting to note that
should this be the case, guidance teachers in Black schools would
be performing only the 'guidance' services outlined by Rodgers (1981)
and shouldering no 'counselling' duties at all.

2.2.3   A definition of school guidance

It would appear from the aforegoing survey of the literature
on school guidance for Blacks in South Africa that there is con-
siderable controversy with regard to both the nature of school
guidance and the actual role of the guidance teacher. To an
area almost devoid of any significant writings, Ramsay (1982)
has contributed an operational definition of school guidance which
is accurate, succinct and of direct relevance to the present study:

> Choosing a career is often a conflict situation.
> For Black matriculants this conflict is further
> compounded by unrealistic vocational aspirations,
> the difference in the choice of subjects and/or
> level of education available at different schools,
> the variety of external constraints restricting
> freedom of choice, as well as lack of knowledge
> regarding careers and job opportunities. The role
> of the vocational guidance teacher or counsellor
> may be seen as (that of) helping to resolve conflict
> by providing an opportunity for realistic self-
> assessment, for discussing options and alternatives,
> and for providing relevant information (p. 141).

2.2.4   The characteristics of an effective guidance programme

In order for a guidance programme to be effective within the
confines of the academic curriculum, it should, ideally, possess
the following characteristics. It should be integrated into the
total educational process and be available to pupils at all levels
of education; it should help to develop and protect the individuality
of pupils; it should be life-long, dealing with developmental as
well as prescriptive and remedial concerns; and it should be eva-

luated periodically for effectiveness (Gysbers & Moore, 1981, pp. 67 - 68). Furthermore, the guidance teacher should have had adequate training for his duties, understand his role and function, be committed to his work and have a realistic case load (Shertzer & Stone, 1976, pp. 429-430). The programme itself should be based on pupil needs; be balanced, flexible and purposeful; and if there is a high morale among the staff and belief in the value of guidance, the guidance teacher can expect great co-operation from non-guidance colleages (Shertzer & Stone, 1976, pp. 431-434). Shertzer and Stone (1976) further emphasize, however, that the mere presence of these characteristics does not guarantee the effectiveness of a programme :

> A demonstrable relationship must exist between these (characteristics) and their meaningful impact upon the various facets of the school and the personnel and students within the school (p. 430).

2.3 The state of school guidance in countries other than South Africa

Guidance personnel in developing countries such as Bophuthatswana (Mathabe, 1982), India (Dave, 1974), Nigeria (Durojaiye, 1970; Esen, 1972; Ipaye, 1982a, 1982b; Olaoye, 1974, Pulleybank, 1974) and Latin America (Espin & Renner, 1974) seem to be experiencing the same problems with regard to unclarified concepts, inadequately trained counsellors and haphazardly planned guidance programmes which currently plague South African guidance. In addition, a notable re-luctance in the inhabitants of these countries to accept the notion of guidance because individuals commonly rely so heavily on their extended families has been observed. Cultural mores affect both the nature of guidance and the form it takes in countries which are not closely bound with traditional European mores. This is the case in Cyprus (Leventis, 1974) and Taiwan (Brammer, 1967; Scaff & Ting, 1972). Relatively sophisticated programmes of guidance are the

norm in countries such as Britain (Avent, 1974), Switzerland
(Stauffer, 1974), Norway (Hansen, 1965) and West Germany (Drapela,
1975) although numerous writers point out that in no country is
guidance as fully developed as in America (Avent, 1974; Deen, 1974;
Shertzer & Stone, 1976; Stefflre, 1962).   Sophisticated guidance
programmes using the sytems approach have been recent developments
in America (Campbell, Dworkin, Jackson, Hoeltzel, Parsons & Lacey,
1971; Campbell, Rodebaugh & Shaltry, 1978; Gysbers & Moore, 1981;
Hosford & Ryan, 1970; Jones, Dayton & Gelatt, 1977; McKinnon & Jones,
1975; Richardson & Baron, 1975) and numerous publications dealing
specifically, and at an advanced level, with school and careers
guidance and describing the need and procedures for developing
guidance programmes are available (Ballast & Shoemaker, 1978;
Campbell et al., 1978; Halasz-Salster & Peterson, 1979; Herr &
Cramer, 1979; Hilton, 1979; Patterson, 1971).   In contrast with
the situation in many other countries, there are a number of docu-
mented American studies which have focused special attention on the
development of guidance programmes for minority students (Burlew,
1980; Simmons, 1975; White, 1979;Woods, 1977). Elementary school
guidance in America has been at the centre of a controversy between
those who regard the elementary school as the logical place of
origin for guidance if it is to be viewed as a sequential, educative
process (Brown, 1977; Ciavarella, 1973; Dinkmeyer, 1966, 1973; Gys-
bers & Moore, 1981; Martinson & Smallenburg, 1958; Mayer & Munger,
1967; Mogull, 1978; Patterson, 1971; Stoops & Wahlquist, 1971) and
those who believe that neither counselling (Faust, 1968) nor careers
guidance (Ginzberg, 1973; Johnson, 1980) has any relevance for the
elementary school child.   More recently, however, the validity of
the need for elementary school guidance teachers has become esta-
blished (Dinkmeyer, 1973; Tuma, 1974) and particular emphasis has
been placed on guidance at elementary school level for those who
are unlikely to continue their education beyond the mandatory at-
tendance age (Mogull, 1978) and for socio-economically disadvantaged
Black children whose achievement motivation is probably low (Irelan,
1971; E. Smith, 1980).

2.4   The state of school guidance in South Africa

The provision of school guidance services in South Africa is not
ideal (HSRC, 1981b) although the services for Whites in the Cape
Province and Natal appear to be the most fully developed (J. van
Niekerk, 1967; Watts, 1980).   Among the 'non-White' communities,
guidance services in the Indian community appear to be particularly
well developed (Singh, 1982; Van Zijl, 1977; Watts, 1980) but,
until 1981, the services for Blacks were virtually conspicuous by
their absence (Dovey, 1980a, 1982; Watts, 1980).   Before this
time, guidance services in Black schools were restricted to

>   ... itinerant staff (whose) work consists mainly
>   of maintaining a superficial testing service.
>   These constitute a form of social book-keeping
>   used for statistical and research purposes
>   rather than guidance (Dovey, 1980a, p. 3).

Guidance as a subject formed part of the subject Social Studies
offered from Standard 5 to Form II (Barnard, 1977) and the ratio
of school counsellors to secondary school pupils was approximately
1 : 10 000 (Barnard, 1977).   With the introduction of guidance as
a subject into the Black schools in 1981, however, this ratio has
dropped to approximately 1 : 450 (Visser et al., in press).   The
problems which the HSRC Guidance Committee has identified as causes
of concern in the provision of guidance services (HSRC, 1981b)
while relevant for the education of all racial groups (Blumberg,
1977; De Broize, 1980; Dovey, 1980b; Schlebusch, 1977; Shields,
1974; Van Zijl, 1977; Watts, 1980), are particularly relevant
for Black education (Barnard, 1977; Mathabe, 1982; Visser et al.,
in press; Watts, 1980).   These include the negative attitude of
many school principals toward guidance; the inadequacy of the selec-
tion of guidance teachers; the lack of training and experience of
guidance teachers; the lack of physical facilities for guidance;
the lack of proper implementation of the guidance curriculum;
the overloading of guidance teachers; and the conflict experienced
by most guidance teachers between their teaching and guidance roles.

Although school guidance textbooks for Whites are freely available
(Bouwer, 1966; Engelbrecht, Fourie & Mollendorf, 1981; Esterhuizen,
1963; Lindhard & Africa, 1978; Nel & Sonnekus, 1959), and guide-
lines for teaching guidance in White secondary schools are plenti-
ful (Botha, 1967, 1972; Du Toit, 1967, 1977; Haasbroek et al.,
1978; Lindhard, 1982; H. van Niekerk, 1967), it is only recently
that any publications have become available which are of relevance
to Blacks (Engelbrecht et al., 1981; Lindhard & Africa, 1982;
Lindhard, Dlamini & Barnard, 1982).   Actual guidance programmes
have tended to focus on Whites.   Feinberg's (1979) highly specia-
lized guidance programme for pupils at a select White private
secondary school is a case in point. Guidance programmes for
Blacks have tended to be restricted to matriculants (Hall, 1978,
1980).   Of interest are the attempts by the NIPR (Visser, in press)
to overcome the problem which the vast numbers of young Blacks
needing guidance poses. NIPR careers counsellors have run two-day
careers workshops in Tembisa and Soweto during which approximately
ten counsellors have each handled 25 to 30 pupils per workshop.
Similar workshops have been run for Indian pupils in Lenasia and
the success of the method with both racial groups has been noted
(Visser, in press).   Such success in reaching a much larger number
of young Blacks notwithstanding, it is apparent that with an enrol-
ment in 1980 in the senior primary and secondary Black schools in
the Johannesburg metropolitan area alone of 100 399 pupils (Lätti
et al., 1980) careers workshops can make only a dent in the demand
for guidance services.   The provision of two guidance teachers for
each Black School appears to have been the answer, but

> ... the level of curriculum development in guidance
> is very primitive, and little help is given -- in
> terms either of materials or of training -- to help
> teachers in working out how best to tackle the var-
> ious topics they are required to cover (Watts, 1980,
> p. 73) (underlining in the original).

As far as elementary school guidance in South Africa is concerned, it has not seemed to figure largely in the literature on Whites. This is probably because Whites are prohibited by law from leaving school before the age of 16. The same legal prohibition does not yet apply to Blacks, and an examination of Table 1 should provide sufficient evidence of the large number of young Black pupils who leave school to seek employment with only a Standard 5 certificate. Indeed, the De Lange Commission's recommendation with regard to elementary school guidance, that it should cover

> ... the development of social awareness and social skills, coping skills for daily tasks, personal awareness and identity, and protective skills for personal safety (HSRC, 1981b, P. 15)

is of limited relevance to the Black child. The decision by the Department of Education and Training to regard Standard 5 as part of the junior high school phase and to provide guidance teachers for Standard 5 pupils is, therefore, a wise one.

2.5   Selection of Black guidance teachers in South Africa

Almost all the guidance teachers appointed in Black schools in 1981 and 1982 have been recruited from the teaching ranks. They are, therefore, teachers, first and foremost.

2.5.1. Teacher characteristics

O'Meara (1953), in a study of White student teachers, concluded that there is no evidence of a 'teacher type' and that the stereo-type of the teacher is derived not so much from the real personality make-up of the teacher, as from the role he must fulfil in society, the limitations imposed upon him by his work, and the status accorded to his profession. He did note, however, that only 41% of his sample had a favourable and positive attitude toward teaching; that the

remainder of the sample were training to be teachers because,
inter alia, they had not been able to raise money to pursue their
occupational choices and they saw teaching as a 'stepping stone';
and that the vast majority of the student teachers gave a high
rating to fondness for children, desire for leisure-time, preferences
for working with people rather than things, and a preference for the
manipulation of words and ideas as motivators for becoming teachers.
This does not appear to be the case among Blacks where, traditionally,
the role of the teacher is accorded a high status and where the
teaching occupation is perceived as one which offers opportunities
for security, leadership and social service (Griffith & London,
1980; Obanya, 1978; Mojalefa, 1980).   In agreement with the
American trend noted by Griffith and London (1980), Cloete (1981)
predicts that there will be a forthcoming decrease in the number
of Blacks in South Africa who enter teaching.   This will be due
to a greater awareness of and increased opportunities for alterna-
tive career choices.   The present position is that there are many
Black teachers who, like the Whites in O'Meara's (9153) study, are
teachers because there was nothing else to do, and, even if there
had been, there was no money available to finance any further study.
Such a position has grave implications for the development of the
young pupils who are the charges of such teachers.   These considera-
tions are of especial importance to those who agree with Shields
(1974) that all teachers are guidance teachers, and that the personal
example of the teacher in the development of interpersonal relation-
ships (Biesheuvel, 1978) and in the provision of an atmosphere in
which a pupil is free to learn (Agne & Nash, 1973; Patterson, 1971,
Rogers, 1969) is crucial.

2.5.2.   Guidance teacher characteristics

Controversy rages on the American front about whether or not coun-
sellors have obligations to attempt to bring about social change.
While writers such as Drapela (1974) disagree that counsellors
should be agents of social change, there is a growing movement
of militants who urge it strongly (Adams, 1973, 1974; Arbuckle,

1976a, 1976b; Beady, 1978; Gunnings, 1971; Gunnings & Simpkins, 1972; Smith, 1974, 1975).   While the argument has not yet reached the proportions of a controversy in South Africa, there are a number of writers who agree with the American insistence on the social change functions of the counsellor (De Broize, 1980; Dovey, 1982; Watts, 1980).   Another issue hotly debated is whether the roles of teacher and counsellor are uncomplementary and should not, there-fore, be vested in one person (Arbuckle, 1966, 1976b; Blocher, 1977; HSRC, 1981a, 1981b; Patterson, 1971; Ramsay, 1981; Visser, 1982), or whether teaching and counselling are actually not all that far removed from one another (Grant, 1967; Haasbroek et al., 1978; Kazalunas, 1978; Ivey, 1976; Shertzer & Stone, 1976). As pre-viously mentioned, however, the De Lange Commission (HSRC, 1981b) believes that all guidance personnel, who will ideally be solely responsible for guidance activities, should have been trained as teachers before assuming their guidance duties.   Whatever the position one accepts, it is apparent from the literature (Dlamini, 1982; Mathabe, 1982; Ramsay, 1982; Visser, 1982) that Black guidance teachers are experiencing teacher/guidance teacher conflicts as they struggle to understand and accept their new roles.   This situation has been aggravated by the poor selection process in the Black schools.   Although many are dedicated individuals, it is apparent that a significant proportion were made guidance teachers because they were failures as classroom teachers (Ramsay, 1982; Visser, 1982; Watts, 1980), a phenomenon which has also been reported in America (Dent, 1974; Patterson, 1971; Shertzer & Stone, 1976). In an effort to avoid similar errors in selection when the higher primary school guidance teachers were appointed in Soweto, the NIPR provided the Department of Education and Training with a 'thumbnail sketch' of the ideal guidance teacher, which is similar to that pro-vided by Mathabe (1982):

> (i)   Preferably a Social Studies teacher who has
> invariably to attend to the Vocational Guidance
> Section in the prescribed book; failing which,
> any suitable teacher.

(ii)   A teacher capable of upholding one of the most serious requirements of counselling, which is confidentiality.

(iii)   The teacher must show some keenness in the welfare of the students.

(iv)   The teacher must be a conscientious worker (p. 25).

A thorough, accurate job description and man-specification for the teacher-counsellor have been developed by Solomon (1982).   These could be of decided relevance in the light of the recommendations which the De Lange Commission has made concerning the selection of guidance teachers in South Africa.   The report states that suitable guidance personnel should have the following characteristics (HSRC, 1981b, p.39). Where these have been endorsed by other researchers, the references have been included in parentheses:

-- quality as a pedagogue (Botha, 1967; Haasbroek et al., 1978; Ivey, 1976)

-- quality as an educationist (Botha, 1967; Haasbroek et al., 1978)

-- quality as an expert in the field (Gysbers & Moore, 1981; Patterson, 1971; Shertzer & Stone, 1976)

-- a positive attitude of life with regard to the task in hand (Botha, 1967; Mathabe, 1982; Solomon, 1982)

-- health, fitness and energy (Botha, 1967; Solomon, 1982)

-- sound interpersonal qualities (Arbuckle, 1956; Botha, 1967; Hamrin & Paulsen, 1950; McPhillimy, 1973; Solomon, 1982)

-- emotional stability, self-control and maturity (Arbuckle, 1956; Hamrin & Paulsen, 1950; Mowrer, 1951)

-- sound moral qualities (Botha, 1967; Haasbroek et al., 1978)

-- leadership qualities (Botha, 1967; Haasbroek et al., 1978; Shertzer & Stone, 1976)

In addition, confidentiality, although omitted from the aforegoing list, is viewed as a desirable characteristic for guidance teachers (Dovey, 1980b; Mathabe, 1982; Wagner, 1981). Cottle (1953) has noted that mere listings of characteristics, while helpful, are generally unsatisfactory as they generally represent opinion and often fail to distinguish the guidance teacher from other teachers. Instead, it is the particular clusters or constellations of character-istics (Cottle, 1953) as well as the intensity of these (Kazienko & Neidt, 1962) that is important. Shertzer and Stone (1976), in a review of the literature pertaining to interests and personality characteristics and counselling effectiveness, note that the findings are inconclusive and often conflicting. Perhaps the best known works on counsellor characteristics are the research studies by Carkhuff and Berenson (1967) and Truax and Carkhuff (1967) which have identified three basic facilitative conditions for counsellor effectiveness. These are emphatic understanding or empathy, which involves an awareness of the client's experience of himself and his world by means of sensi-tive listening from an internal frame of reference; non-possessive warmth or respect (Egan, 1975) which involves unconditional acceptance of the client as a person; and genuineness, which implies that the counsellor is not thinking or feeling one thing and saying another.

While Rogers (1957) believes that these are necessary and sufficient conditions for therapeutic change, Egan (1975) and Truax and Carkhuff (1967) regard them as necessary but not sufficient. Egan (1975), furthermore, also regards concreteness, physical attending and psychological attending as important facilitative conditions. While Farson (1954) and McClain (1968) believe that such counsellor characteristics are those that society traditionally attributes to women -- tenderness, gentleness, receptiveness, passivity -- Carkhuff and Berenson (1969) disagree and point out that recent research portrays the counsellor as not only tender, gentle and loving but also active, assertive and able to confront and interpret immediate interactions when they occur. This observation is of relevance to Blacks who seem to favour an action-oriented rather than a client-centred approach when being counselled (Esen, 1972; Higgins & Warner, 1975; Ipaye, 1982a, 1982b; Sue, 1978). A number of writers are in agreement, however, that empathy is the single most important counsellor quality when counselling with minorities (Banks, 1976; Banks, Berenson & Carkhuff, 1967; Banks, 1969; Higgins & Warner, 1975; Vontress, 1967, 1970; Wittmer, 1971).

2.6   Training of Black guidance teachers in South Africa

In keeping with the relatively sophisticated role and function of the school counsellor, training standards for American school counsellors are considerably more advanced than elsewhere in the world (Association for Counselor Education and Supervision, 1967a, 1967b; American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1964; American Psychological Association, 1962; Patterson, 1971), and emphasis is laid upon adequate in-service training (Patterson, 1971; Shertzer & Stone, 1976). An effective selection programme is essential, however, and selection should be a continuous process throughout the preparatory training period (Mauer, 1980; Patterson, 1971; Shertzer & Stone, 1976). Neither Patterson (1971) nor Shertzer and Stone (1976),

moreover, believe that initial teacher training is essential for
the preparation of school counsellors (HSRC, 1981b).   In a some-
what tongue-in-cheek comment, Patterson (1971) notes the irrelevance
of current teacher training methods for teachers as well as counsellors:

> In fact, it might be said that to a great extent the
> preparation of teachers is irrelevant for teaching,
> since rather than preparing teachers to teach students,
> it prepares them to teach subject matter (p. 88).

The need for guidance personnel who are Black (Dean, 1977; Esen, 1972;
Ipaye, 1982a) and for special training for elementary school counsel-
lors (Ciavarella, 1973; Dinkmeyer, 1973; Patterson, 1971) is general-
ly acknowledged.   The inadequacy of guidance teacher training in South
Africa has been summed up by the HSRC : Guidance Committee (1981b,
p. 27) :

> Some universities offer courses in school guidance
> from undergraduate to doctoral level, while others
> offer no training. The best provision, although
> inadequate, is made for Whites and then for Indians.
> The training for Colouredsis totally inadequate while
> little or no training is available for Blacks.

The report further suggests that major effort should be directed
toward providing professional careers and general guidance in all
schools in South Africa and that the ordinary subject teacher
should only

> ... offer guidance at schools where better qualified
> staff are not available, for example, schools for
> Coloured and Blacks (HSRC, 1981b, p. 32).

It stresses that such a solution should be regarded as only an
interim measure and that concentrated effort be exerted to provide
all personnel responsible for either careers or general guidance
with training which is as professional and advanced as the previous
academic qualifications of the individual concerned permit. Full-
time training is regarded as the best form of training, and various
suggestions with regard to meeting the critical shortage of trained
guidance personnel have been proposed (HSRC, 1981b, p. 37). These
include the training of Blacks by universities for Whites in Black
areas; full-time in-service training which allows for appointment
to permanent staff from the first year of training with accompanying
salary and service conditions; and the recruitment and training for
one year of married women teachers who do not have posts in order that
these may be appointed as careers guidance teachers at schools for
Blacks.

2.6.1   Training programmes in America

It should be apparent that virtually none of the sophisticated
American standards for the training of school counsellors are of
relevance to the average Black guidance teacher in South Africa.
Although a few American studies have reported success with the
programmes designed to train ordinary Black or minority subject
teachers to assume guidance duties (Dent, 1974; Lindberg & Wrenn,
1962; Tamminen, Gum, Stanley & Peterson, 1976), at least one has
produced inconclusive results (Simmons, 1975), and yet another attri-
butes its success to the careful selection beforehand of teachers in
possession of the personality characteristics essential for performing
counselling and guidance functions (Lindberg & Wrenn, 1972). The
results of these studies would suggest that training efforts could
profitably be exerted in order to train carefully selected Black
subject teachers to teach guidance. It should be remembered, however,
that the average teacher (Black or White) in America is a college
graduate (Stefflre, 1962), while the average Black teacher in South
Africa has a matriculation certificate plus a secondary school

teaching certificate (if a high school teacher), and a Standard 8 certificate plus a primary school teaching certificate (if an elementary school teacher).   In the latter case, this implies that the elementary school teacher has generally barely reached matriculation level even when post-school qualifications are taken into account.   The dangers of extrapolating American results to the South African situation are, therefore, manifold.

2.6.2   Paraprofessional training

There is, however, another body of evidence which suggests that actual academic qualifications may not play a very great part in the training of lay people to perform some professional guidance functions.   This evidence may be found in numerous reports on the effectiveness of the paraprofessional training movement which is currently very popular in America.   Various researchers report both the need for, and the success obtained in, the training of lay persons with regard to guidance and counselling functions (Banks, 1977; Brammer, 1977; Brown, 1974; Carkhuff, 1968; Carkhuff & Truax, 1965; Delworth, Moore, Millick & Leone, 1974; Hoffman, 1976; Sawatzky & Paterson, 1982; Settles, 1976; Thomas & Yates, 1974) while stressing that the more the helper is like the client in certain demographic and socio-economic characteristics, the more successful the helping relationship will be (Settles, 1976). Indeed, it has been observed that in some areas, notably study skills and information giving, paraprofessionals may actually be more effective than fully trained professionals (Hoffman, 1976; Sawatzky & Paterson, 1982; Settles, 1976; Zunker & Brown, 1966), although a number of writers (Brown, 1974, Burck & Peterson, 1975; Hoffman, 1976; Sawatzky & Paterson, 1982; Warner, 1975) stress the need for continued evaluation of such training.   It appears that much of the success of paraprofessional training programmes accords with the findings of Lindberg and Wrenn (1972) that successful training is a function of the careful selection of the participants (Carkhuff & Truax, 1965;

Hoffman, 1976; Sawatzky & Paterson, 1982).   Indeed, Brown (1974)
suggests not only that paraprofessional training programmes tend

> ... to be homogeneous in their sharp focus on the
> competencies and attitudes needed to facilitate
> positive client change (p. 261)

but also that those responsible for such programmes tend deliberately
and carefully to select psychologically healthy persons, while many
professional training programmes emphasize selection on intellective
factors which may or may not correlate with effective interpersonal
functioning.   If one accepts the American definition of paraprofes-
sionals as

> ... individuals who (have) received at least some
> training preparing them to function in a particular
> guidance role, situation or task but have not received,
> nor are likely to receive, further training that would
> qualify them as professional helpers (Hoffman, 1976,
> p. 494),

it is apparent that Black teachers in South Africa, whose teacher
training could be regarded as having prepared them to function in
a guidance role, could be viewed as paraprofessionals and trained
accordingly.   Moreover, as Banks (1977), Carkhuff (1968), Hoffman
(1976) and Settles (1976) observe, paraprofessionals possess an in-
herent advantage, that of being peers of clients, or at the very
least, being more similar to clients than are counsellors, thus
enhancing their ability to enter into, emphathize with, and be
effective within a client's frame of reference.

2.6.3   Preliminary training attempts

There have been few attempts to train Black South African teachers
for their new guidance roles since theintroduction of guidance
into Black schools in 1981.   As far as can be ascertained, Guidance
has only been offered as a specialization at Black colleges of
education since the beginning of 1981, and most training programmes
have been limited to in-service orientation workshops of less than a
week (Mack, 1980; Mackay, 1981; Mathabe, 1982). These have tended
to concentrate on vocational counselling because it is believed that

> ... the idea of instructing in personal or social/
> educational counselling would be fruitless as the
> personnel to be trained (lack) the theoretical
> knowledge which underlies the counselling endeavour
> (Mack, 1980, p. 66).

2.6.4   The NIPR training programme for Black secondary school
guidance teachers

The largest training programme for Black guidance teachers was
undertaken in 1981 by the NIPR at the request of the Regional
Director of the Johannesburg Region of the Department of Education
and Training (Visser et al., in press). Although the teachers in
this pioneering study were secondary school teachers, the results
of the study are of direct relevance to the present study and will
be reported in some detail.   The programme involved the training
of some 104 secondary school teachers who had been appointed to
teach guidance in Black schools in Soweto.   It was, in many respects
a pioneering programme, the individual components of which have been
reported on by Ramsay (1982) and Visser (1982).   In the light of the
all-too apparent mistrust and apprehension of the new guidance teachers,
Visser (1982) has expressed her initial fears

> ... that we should never have had the temerity to
> attempt the training! Nevertheless, we did do a
> great deal of soul-searching before agreeing to it,
> because we <u>were</u> acutely aware of the cultural,
> social and political implications of guidance
> (p. 131), (underlining in the original).

With reference to Bauer's (1982) models for approaches to guidance
in developing, Visser (1982) believes that the approach adopted
by the NIPR was a 'hands-on' approach

> ... i.e. practical on-the-job training with a great
> deal of 'hand-holding' on both sides. We relied a
> lot on the teachers to tell us about their needs
> and problems and tried together to work out strate-
> gies that would meet them adequately (pp. 131-132).

Although a Department of Education and Training syllabus was
available, it was evidence of the same narrow conceptualization
of guidance noted by Dovey (1980a), Mathabe (1982) and Watts (1980).
Indeed, Visser (1982), somewhat tongue-in-cheek, remarks that :

> Unfortunately (the syllabus) was not available
> initially to the majority of the teachers; per-
> haps fortunately, on second thoughts, as the syl-
> labus refers to certain well-known psychological
> concepts in a somewhat esoteric way (p. 132).

A decision was made to use the syllabus only as a guide and to
focus more on informal, participative and experiential learning by
the teachers. The major training modules were

-- interpersonal skills (discussed in detail by Ramsay, 1982)

-- adjustment and achievement

-- the world of work

-- decision-making and career choice

The time allotted to the programme was a year, with one full orienta-
tion week and, thereafter, one afternoon per week during school terms
being devoted to training activities. The 'interpersonal skills'
and 'world of work' modules accounted for the lion's share of the
programme activities. All the teachers met at a centrally-situated
Soweto school made available for this purpose, and were divided into
small groups (rarely larger than 30) for lectures and discussion.
Because of the relatively large ratio of course presenters to parti-
cipants (1 : 104), except in the case of the interpersonal skills
programme (1 : 5), most of the modules were repeated or ran simulta-
neously so that smaller groups could be arranged. This implied that
there was little uniformity in what the entire group of 104 teachers
knew, or had experienced, at any one time, although by the end of the
year, everyone had been exposed to all the training modules. This
division of the participants, while generally not disruptive, had
a noticeably negative effect on those who underwent the interpersonal
skills training first (Ramsay, 1982). They were unprepared for expe-
riential learning, and the majority failed to see the relevance of the
module to their guidance duties. In essence, the provision of a client-
centred approach clashed with the need for a problem-solving approach.
This finding is similar to those observed in the studies by Esen (1972),
Ipaye (1982a, 1982b) and Sue (1978) which recommend an action-oriented
rather than a client-centred approach for Black clients. In an attempt
to obviate the same negative effects in those who would undergo inter-
personal skills training in the second half of the year, a micro-skills
counselling approach was adopted which resulted, in the opinions of the
trainers, in a more rapid acquisition of counselling skills (Ramsay,
1982). Hardly any attempts were made to assess the success of the
training programme and those attempts which are recorded are in the

line of subjective reactions to the various modules (Visser et al.,
in press).   Visser's (1982, p. 140) closing comment is both a
summary of what she believes was achieved by the training programme
and a direction pointer for further training courses :

> There was little time for theory or abstract concepts.
> Perhaps there was a lack of formality.   What we gained
> in variety, personal contact and spontaneity, we might
> have lost in continuity and structure.   Although we
> soon learned to provide as much written material in the
> form of printed notes as we could, these did not always
> follow the syllabus at all.   Teachers are used to formal
> structure; it is part of their training and daily routine
> and relates to their accountability.

3. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The need for adequately trained guidance teachers in South African schools has been firmly established. Nowhere is the shortage of trained personnel more critical than in Black schools. Indeed, an almost inverse relationship has been noted between the need for guidance among Blacks and the availability of trained Black guidance personnel. Effortsto train Black teachers for their new guidance roles have either been of minimal importance or else restricted to secondary school guidance teachers in the Johannesburg metropolitan area. With the introduction of guidance teachers for Black higher primary schools in 1982, the need for training these teachers assumes crucial importance, particularly in the light of the large number of Black pupils who leave school at the end of their Standard 5 year. What appears to be needed is a training programme suited to the needs of the personnel to be trained and which is able to profit from the mistakes made by training programmes which have preceded it. The aim of the present study is to investigate a group of Black higher primary school guidance teachers, with particular reference to their 'knowledge about guidance' after exposure to just such a training programme. An effort will be made to compare their scores on a guidance test with those of guidance teachers who have had similar experience of teaching guidance but who have had no training, and also with the scores obtained by ordinary subject teachers. In this way it is hoped that further information about 'knowledge of guidance' as a characteristic of Black guidance teachers can be obtained, and that, in so doing, some inferences may be made about the effectiveness of the training programme to which the guidance teachers have been exposed. The following hypotheses were formulated regarding 'knowledge of guidance' :

3.1 Hypothesis 1

The scores of a group of Black guidance teachers who have undergone a guidance training programme will be significantly higher on a measure of 'knowledge of guidance' than the scores of Black teachers who have not been trained.

3.2   Hypothesis 2

The scores of a group of trained Black guidance teachers on a measure of 'knowledge of guidance' will be significantly higher than those of a group of Black subject teachers.

3.3   Hypothesis 3

The scores of a group of untrained Black guidance teachers on a measure of 'knowledge of guidance' will be significantly different from those of a group of Black subject teachers.

3.4   Rationale for hypotheses 1 and 2

Generally-accepted didactic and pedagogic principles as well as the success reported by Banks (1976) lend support to these hypotheses.

3.5   Rationale for hypothesis 3

Although the group of untrained guidance teachers would not have been exposed to the NIPR training course (described in Section 4 of this report), they would, nevertheless, have been teaching the Department of Education and Training's Standard 5 guidance syllabus for six months at the time of testing. The subject teachers, however, would have had neither training nor experience in the teaching of guidance at the time of testing. Some difference in 'knowledge of guidance' between the two groups could, thus, be expected and was, therefore, hypothesized.

4.   THE NIPR TRAINING PROGRAMME FOR BLACK
      HIGHER PRIMARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE TEACHERS

Experiences during the 1981 NIPR training programme for Black
secondary school guidance teachers, which were noted by Visser
(1982), led to the development of a revised training programme
for the higher primary school guidance teachers.

4.1   Need for the development of a revised training programme

There were a number of differences between the teachers available
for the 1981 training programme and those available for the 1982
programme.   Recognition of these differences emphasized the need
for a revised programme.

4.1.1 Numbers

The sheer weight of numbers involved made a repetition of the
1981 training programme, which had been exceptionally labour-
intensive on the part of the NIPR, economically indefensible.
The 1981 programme had catered for approximately 100 teachers.
The 1982 programme would be required to cater for approximately
280 teachers -- almost three times as many.

4.1.2 Level of education of the teachers involved

The mean educational level of the teachers participating in the
1981 programme had been Standard 10 (Visser et al., in press),
whereas the mean educational level of the teachers in the 1982
programme was expected to be Standard 8. The assumption was made,
therefore, that the latter would not be able to derive maximum
benefit from the 1981 training programme which had been geared at a
relatively sophisticated level. The relatively unstructured and
informal parameters of experiential learning, particularly, were
thought to be inappropriate for the higher primary teachers.

4.1.3   Specificity of syllabus

Whereas the 1981 training programme had been intended to equip
the secondary school teachers to handle the guidance syllabi for
Standards 6 through 10, the 1982 training programme would be aimed
at equipping the teachers to handle only the guidance syllabus for
Standard 5.   This limitation in the scope of the training programme,
therefore, made the 1981 programme inappropriate.

4.1.4   Time available

The 1981 training programme had been taught during the course of a
full school year.   Because of the limited scope of the 1982 pro-
gramme, however, the Department of Education and Training requested
that the new programme be completed in half a school year.   The
length of the 1981 training programme had been something of a
problem in that it had been difficult to accommodate even 104 teachers
simultaneously (Visser, at al., in press).   A repetition of this
programme would have been impossible, therefore, not only because
it would have been virtually impossible to compress the year-long
programme into a six-month programme, but also because of the great
increase in the number of participants.

4.2   The revised training programme for 1982

A consideration of all the differences mentioned led to the devising
of a revised training programme which is different from the first
programme (Visser et al., in press) in a number of respects.

4.2.1 Orientation week

Comments from teachers who had participated in the 1981 programme
(Visser, 1982; Visser et al., in press) had established with some
certainty that the teachers' primary concern had been with the
actual guidance syllabi and how to translate these into effective
lessons.   The observation by Watts (1980), moreover, that guidance
services in Black schools in South Africa should be limited to the

provision of careers information, was borne in mind.   The diffi-
culties which the secondary school teachers had experienced in
understanding the relevance of the client-centred interpersonal
skills training module to their guidance teaching duties (Ramsay,
1982; Visser, 1982) had confirmed the findings of writers in other
parts of Africa and America who have noted the irrelevance of
client-centred approaches for Blacks (Esen, 1972; Ipaye, 1982a,
1982b; Olaoye, 1974; Pulleybank, 1974; Sue, 1978). Although
the NIPR shared the reservations about the Department of Education
and Training syllabi expressed by Dovey (1980a, 1982), Visser (1982)
and Watts (1980), it was reasoned that whether the syllabus was
adequate or not, it was the Department of Education and Training's
official policy that the teachers should work with it, and that it
made sense to train the teachers to cope with it. It was decided,
accordingly, that actual knowledge of the contents of the Standard 5
guidance syllabus and knowledge of the facts necessary to plan and
execute the lessons delineated in the syllabus would do much to give
the newly-appointed guidance teachers confidence in their new duties.
(A copy of the Standard 5 syllabus drawn up by the Department of
Education and Training may be found in Appendix A.)   The orientation
week was set aside for this task.   A workbook was devised which
posed questions on the four aspects of guidance (personal, social,
educational and vocational) which were of immediate relevance to
the Standard 5 guidance syllabus (Spence, 1982). Enough space was
left after each question so that answers could be written down.

4.2.1.1   Procedure

The total group of approximately 280 teachers was halved so that
approximately 140 teachers attended the first orientation week ses-
sion and the remaining teachers attended the second orientation
week session the following week. This was accomplished without
any undue difficulty because the total group comprised two teachers
from each school, and it was a simple matter to arrange for one to
attend during the first week and the other one during the second
week.

4.2.1.1.1   Sub-groups

The teachers attending the orientation week sessions were then
divided into six sub-groups of approximately 20 to 25 members per
group.   The composition of the sub-groups was not random but based
on the circuits to which the teachers' schools belonged.   Because
of the vastness of the Johannesburg metropolitan area it was reasoned
that constituting the groups in this manner would facilitate communi-
cation amongst those guidance teachers who were geographically close
enough to one another to maintain contact after the completion of the
training programme.

4.2.1.1.2   Programme presenters

Two NIPR presenters were assigned to each sub-group, although only
one presenter would generally be present per session.   It was hoped
that this would allow the presenters some relief from the exacting
demands of the training programme while still ensuring continuity
of presentation.   It was also believed that the sub-groups would be
able to accept two presenters, while still maintaining the sub-group
bonds which would probably form.   Wherever possible, the groups were
arranged so that programme presenters were responsible for both teachers
from any one school.   Although it may be argued that the various groups
may have profited from exposure to the teaching styles of other presen-
ters, it was decided that considerations such as uniformity of content
and structure overrode the advantage which variety might have repre-
sented.   Each programme presenter spent some time introducing himself/
herself to the sub-group concerned and allowing for introduction of the
sub-group members to one another.   He/she also structured the sessions
to follow by explaining what the aim of the orientation week was, what
activities would be attempted and how these were to be tackled.

4.2.1.1.3   Programme material

Each teacher received a file containing the Department of Education
and Training Standard 5 syllabus, a page detailing the contents of the
full training programme, and the programme workbook (Spence, 1982).
Each programme presenter received a file containing a copy of everything
handed to the teachers, as well as a 'presenter's handbook' in which

the aim of each activity was described and possible model answers were suggested for each activity (Spence, 1982).

4.2.1.1.4   The orientation week programme

The orientation week comprised six two-hour study sessions (excluding the introductory and concluding sessions devoted to formal Department of Education and Training activities).   Each sub-group functioned in a similar manner.   The individual sub-groups were further divided into smaller mini-groups of four to five teachers each to allow for discussion of the questions in the workbooks.   It was hoped that this method of work would encourage the participation of as many teachers as possible as well as set the pattern for inter-teacher discovery and communication.   It was the function of the presenter to circulate from one mini-group to another, controlling or leading the discussion where necessary. At the end of the discussion period (which might be anything from one minute to ten minutes, depending on the activity concerned), there would be a report-back from each mini-group and an attempt would be made to combine all of the ideas thus obtained into a 'model' answer which was then written into the work-books.   Such a procedure ensured that all members of a group received and recorded the same amount of information.   The 'model' answers in the presenters' handbooks, furthermore, ensured the uniformity of the information gained across all the groups, even though this might be expressed somewhat differently in each group.   It was also the function of the programme presenters to model the guidance teacher role throughout the orientation week and subsequent study sessions. No attempt, however, was made to teach any inter-personal skills (for example, listening, reflecting, summarizing, or paraphrasing) in a direct manner.

4.2.2. Afternoon sessions

Because the orientation week sessions catered only for knowledge of the guidance syllabus, it was decided that the teachers would need extra background knowledge in each of the four aspects of guidance. Accordingly, guest speakers were invited to lecture to the teachers on a variety of different topics. Each speaker was given a brief for the lecture and requested to list appropriate sources of more relevant information about the topic under discussion as well as appropriate agencies of referral, should this be necessary. The speakers were requested to provide full copies of their lectures which were then edited, typed and printed (Spence, 1982). Each teacher received a copy for his/her file.

4.2.2.1 Procedure

For the afternoon sessions, the total group of approximately 280 teachers was reconstituted, although the primary division into two groups of approximately 140 was maintained. Thirteen afternoon sessions, each two hours long, were planned. For the first hour, a full group of approximately 140 teachers attended the lecture by the guest speaker. At the end of the hour they dispersed into their sub-groups where they discussed the lecture as well as any problems they had been experiencing during the week. During the second hour, the guest speaker repeated the lecture for the second full group of approximately 140 teachers. This group spent the first hour in their respective sub-groups discussing the previous week's lecture as well as any problems which had cropped up.

4.2.2.2 Topics for the afternoon sessions

Since the aim of the afternoon sessions was to supplement the knowledge which the teachers had gained during the orientation week sessions, topics for the weekly afternoon lectures were chosen so as to be re-presentative of the four aspects of guidance comprising the syllabus (namely, personal, social, educational and vocational guidance). The titles of the lectures were :

-- The role and functions of the guidance teacher

-- Ideas on how guidance as a subject can be incorporated into the primary school

-- Subject choice and its implications

-- Study habits

-- Identifying and helping the pupil with learning problems

-- The Careers Centre and its relevance for the guidance teacher

-- The need for the development of specialized skills in a career

-- Career opportunities for school leavers

-- Specialized schooling available to the Black pupil

-- Identifying and helping the pupil with personal problems

-- The link between the guidance teacher and the social worker

-- Drug dependence and alcoholism

-- Extra-mural and leisure-time activities

5.   METHOD

In order to investigate the problem posed in Section 3, the follo-
wing method was adopted.

5.1   Sample

The sample comprised three groups of subjects.

5.1.1 Group 1

Group 1 initially comprised 277 Black higher primary school teachers
in the service of the Johannesburg region of the DET. All had been
selected by their school principals to be trained as guidance
teachers by the NIPR and to teach the subject Guidance to Std 5
classes. By the time the testing session took place, 265 teachers
remained.

5.1.2 Group 2

Group 2 comprised 237 Black higher primary school teachers in the
service of the Johannesburg region of the DET. None were guidance
teachers. They had been selected to attend the testing session
by their principals who had been asked to try and match them as far
as possible with the guidance teachers they had selected earlier in
the year. The variables of age, sex, level of education and teaching
experience were regarded as the most important for matching purposes.
(A copy of the actual memorandum sent to all the principals is con-
tained in Appendix B).

5.1.3 Group 3

Group 3 comprised 92 Black higher primary school teachers in the
service of an un-named region of the DET. It should be noted that
these teachers came from a semi-rural area, in contrast with the
teachers in Groups 1 and 2 who came from an urban area. All had
been selected by their school principals to teach the subject
Guidance to Std 5 classes. None had had any but the most cursory

training. There were no criteria for their inclusion as subjects
other than their status as guidance teachers.

A demographic description of the sample by means of percentages
and respondent groups is contained in Table 2.

5.2   Measuring instrument

5.2.1   Guidance Examination

A guidance examination, or 'knowledge of guidance' test, based
closely on the NIPR training programme (Spence, 1982), des-
cribed briefly in Section 4, was drawn up. The test consists of
30 open-ended items designed to assess each testee's 'knowledge of
guidance' as defined both by the DET Std 5 syllabus (see Appendix B)
and the contents of the NIPR 1982 training programme. At the end of
the test, five further items which could be labelled 'application of
guidance' were included.   Although these were not included in the
data analyses of the present study, they have been included in the
copy of the Guidance Examination, which is contained in Appendix C,
because it is believed that their inclusion during the testing
session may have had an influence on the final test scores.

5.3   Procedure

The test was administered as part of a larger study conducted by Spence
(in press)   in which tests of intellectual ability, personality,
vocational preference and vocational need were also administered.
The Guidance Examination was administered first. Groups 1 and 2
completed the tests at a testing session held in a school hall in
Soweto.   Although precautions were taken to cut disturbances down
to a minimum, testing conditions were less than ideal.   Only 15
invigilators could be obtained for 523 subjects in one hall; there
was no heating in the hall; and the acoustics were poor. Some of
the teachers (n = 12) in Group 1 were unable to attend the testing
session and completed the Guidance Examination only some days later.

Table 1

Demographic description of sample by percentages and
respondent group

Characteristic	Trained guidance teachers ($\underline{n}$ = 277)	Subject teachers ($\underline{n}$ = 237)	Untrained guidance teachers ($\underline{n}$ = 92)
Sex :			
Male	40,79	20,68	63,04
Female	59,21	79,32	36,96
Age :			
Under 20	0,00	0,42	0,00
20 - 24	10,10	10,97	15,22
25 - 30	37,55	42,62	43,48
31 - 35	24,19	24,89	17,39
36 - 40	12,99	8,44	5,43
41 - 45	8,67	3,38	6,52
Over 45	6,50	9,28	11,96
Level of education :			
Below Standard 8	1,08	2,95	2,18
Standard 8	63,54	54,01	46,74
Standard 9	16,97	27,85	27,17
Standard 10	18,41	15,19	23,91
Teaching qualifications :			
None	0,00	0,85	1,09
L.P.T.C. [a]	6,20	8,51	4,34
H.P.T.C. [b]	92,70	90,64	93,48
S.S.T.C. [c]	1,10	0,00	1,09
Home language :			
Zulu	24,45	21,19	25,00
Pedi	14,23	17,80	16,30
Southern Sotho	10,22	9,32	18,48
Tswana	21,17	19,49	15,22
Shangaan	1,82	2,54	0,00
Tsonga	7,66	5,08	4,35
Venda	3,30	4,24	2,17
Ndebele	0,73	1,69	2,17
Swazi	1,46	1,69	1,09
Xhosa	14,96	16,95	15,22
Marital status :			
Single	33,94	36,86	38,04
Married	60,58	59,32	54,35
Widowed	2,56	0,85	4,35
Divorced	2,92	2,97	3,26
Teaching experience :			
Less than 1 year	2,20	8,02	9,78
More than 1 but less than 2 years	5,48	2,11	13,04
More than 2 but less than 3 years	7,30	8,43	5,43
More than 3 but less than 4 years	4,38	10,13	5,43
More than 4 but less than 5 years	9,12	5,06	3,26
More than 5 but less than 6 years	7,66	8,02	11,96
6 - 10 years	30,66	27,43	28,27
11 - 15 years	15,69	14,35	6,52
16 - 20 years	7,66	7,17	4,35
More than 20 years	9,85	9,28	11,96
Present teaching rank :			
Assistant	79,71	93,25	78,27
Senior assistant	8,33	5,06	9,78
Department head	2,54	0,42	7,61
Vice principal	8,70	1,27	2,17
Principal	0,72	0,00	2,17

[a] L.P.T.C. = Lower Primary Teachers' Certificate
[b] H.P.T.C. = Higher Primary Teachers' Certificate
[c] S.S.T.C. = Secondary School Teachers' Certificate

Group 3, which comprised three smaller groups from different circuits, completed the test at three separate testing sessions, one for each smaller group.   The testing conditions for the smallest of these were good, but those for the remaining groups were very poor.   The testing took place in small, cold classrooms in the rural areas, with no electric lights and a smoking coal stove in the middle of the room.   Although by normal testing standards such physical standards are appalling it should be noted that these are normal teaching conditions for the teachers who were tested and that it is quite possible that they were not as adversely affected as may have been expected.

In all cases, the tests were administered by NIPR personnel, both Black and White, and scored manually by the researcher according to a memorandum which had been drawn up for the purpose.   The testees were assigned numeric codes and assured that they would remain anonymous in all documentation of the results.

6.   RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

6.1   Biographical variables

To determine whether the three groups comprising the total sample were sufficiently homogeneous to permit generalization of results, Pearson's Chi-squared statistics were computed.   The results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

The influence of certain biographical variables upon the homogeneity
of the total sample ($\underline{n}$ = 606)

Variable	χ^2	$\underline{df}$	$\underline{p}$
Sex	55,896	2	$< 0,000$
Age	19,411	12	Not significant
Level of education	16,818	6	< 0.01
Teaching qualification	7,201	6	Not significant
Home language	15,481	18	Not significant
Marital status	5,071	6	Not significant
Teaching experience	46,192	18	$< 0,0003$
Teaching rank	40,935	8	$< 0,000$

An inspection of Table 3 reveals that the three groups comprising the
total sample were significantly different in terms of three of the
four variables selected for matching purposes.

6.1.1   Sex

Although there is a larger proportion of female teachers in higher
primary schools in Soweto (Strydom, note 1), an effort was made,
wherever possible, to select one male and one female teacher from
each school for appointment as guidance teachers (Mahlaba, note 2).
The actual composition of Group 1, males (41%) and females (59%) in
comparison with Groups 2 and 3 may be seen in Table 2. Although
the principals in the semi-rural area appear to have placed a larger
proportion of males (63%) than females (37%) in guidance teacher posts
this observation may have been due to the fact that in many cases only
one guidance teacher from each regional school attended the testing

session.   It is probable that the teacher who did not attend
was female. Had both teachers attended, the composition of
Group 3 would probably have been more similar to that of Group 1.
Because of the relative shortage of male teachers in higher primary
schools, it proved impossible to match Group 2 with Group 1 on this
variable.   Indeed, during a preliminary session with the school
principals during which matching procedures were discussed, the
principals warned that this would be the case.

6.1.2   Level of education

The members of Group 1 appear to have been the least highly quali-
fied, with 64% having obtained their Std 8 certificates and only
35% having a post- Std 8 level of education.   Group 3 appears to
have been the most highly qualified with only 47% having obtained
their Std 8 certificates and 51% having a post - Std 8 level of
education.   This may be ascribed to the fact that, with regard to
Group 1, a deliberate attempt (Mahlaba, note 2) was made to select
guidance teachers who were not highly qualified or of a high teaching
rank, as the latter tend to leave teaching as their qualifications
improve.   In this manner it was hoped that teachers who were selected
and trained would have a relatively long tenure as guidance teachers
(Mahlaba, note 2).   No such restriction was placed on the selection
of guidance teachers in Group 3.   Furthermore, the significant
Chi-squared value observed for the variable of teaching rank is due
to the large proportion of Department Heads, Vice-principals, and
Principals in Group 3.   Their academic qualifications are obviously
in line with their teaching ranks. The level of education of Groups
1 and 2 appear to be similar.

6.1.3   Teaching experience

Group 1 appears to have been the most experienced group of teachers
with 65% of the group having more than 6 years of teaching experience
in comparison with Group 2 (59%) and Group 3 (52%).   The biggest dif-
ference apparent among the three groups is in the percentage of the
teachers with less than a year's teaching experience : Group 1 (2%),

Group 2 (8%) and Group 3 (10%). This may be ascribed to the fact that, with regard to Group 1, an attempt was made to select, wherever possible, guidance teachers who were already experienced subject teachers (Mahlaba, note 2). No such criterion was in operation for the selection of the guidance teachers in Group 3.

Although a data analysis of the personality questionnaire scores for males and females (not reported here) indicated that there was no significant sex effect, the fact that the three groups do differ significantly on a number of variables suggests that there may be interaction effects and that caution should be exercised in the generalization of results from one group to another.

6.2 Guidance Examination

In order to establish the reliability of the Guidance Examination, (see Appendix C), an item analysis (NP 50) using Gulliksen's (1950) index (Maughan-Brown, 1974) was performed. The results are presented in Table 4.

TABLE   4

Item-test correlations for Guidance Examination ($\underline{n}$ = 599)

Item	rx.sj	$\underline{rx}$
1	1,060	0,705
2	0,494	0,592
3	0,301	0,504
4	0,645	0,608
5	0,495	0,519
6	0,560	0,482
7	0,766	0,593
8	0,627	0,497
9	0,094	0,264
10	0,898	0,582
11	0,497	0,433
12	0,397	0,380
13	0,408	0,432
14	0,720	0,531
15	0,207	0,365
16	0,366	0,474
17	0,311	0,430
18	0,406	0,514
19	0,258	0,444
20	0,290	0,485
21	0,284	0,428
22	0,552	0,484
23	0,456	0,495
24	0,319	0,403
25	0,287	0,456
26	1,518	0,583
27	0,362	0,495
28	0,313	0,427
29	0,804	0,588
30	1,288	0,664

The mean, standard deviation and Kuder-Richardson reliability coefficients (Kuder & Richardson, 1937) for the Guidance Examination are shown in Table 5.

Table 5

Descriptive statistics and reliability estimates of Guidance
Examination ($\underline{n}$ = 599)

		Reliability	
		---	---
Mean[a]	SD	KR 20	KR 14
41,860	15,982	0,883	0,889

a
   Maximum possible score = 100

The item analysis of the Guidance Examination shows that the test has a high reliability as estimated by the KR 20 formula. It should be noted that KR 20 is a measure of internal consistency; tests, the items of which correlate highly with one another and with the total, generally have high KR 20 values relative to their lengths. It is possible, by constructing items which are virtual replications of one another, to obtain a spuriously high KR 20 value (Nunnally, 1978). This is not the case with the present instance as all items in the Guidance Examination were designed to be different. The fact that the KR 20 value of the Guidance Examination is nevertheless high suggests that the test is tapping a valid construct and that the assignment of one 'knowledge of guidance' score to the teachers on the basis of their achievement on this test is justified.

Although items 31 to 35 of the Guidance Examination (see Appendix C) were not included in the present data analysis, it is possible that they may have had an effect on the scores obtained in items 1 to 30.

The researcher noted, while hand scoring the tests, that although
most of Group 2 (the subject teachers) and Group 3 (the untrained
guidance teachers) completed all 35 items of the test, a relatively
large proportion of Group 1 (the trained guidance teachers) did not.
In addition, Group 1 displayed a tendency to complete items 31 to
35 (worth 25 marks) at the expense of items 1 to 30 (worth 100 marks)
which suggests that their total 'knowledge of guidance' scores might
have been higher had they not spent time on items 31 to 35.   Further
substantiation for this suggestion comes from the researcher's obser-
vation that Group 1 members tended to attempt the items 1 to 30 in
the Guidance Examination in the order in which they were printed,
and appeared to devote considerable attention to detail in the
answering of each item.   This resulted in many teachers failing
to complete the test within the allotted time which further suggests
that had the test had no time limit, the 'knowledge of guidance'
scores of Group 1 might have been considerably higher.   Because
virtually all the members of Groups 2 and 3 completed the test
within the alotted time, it is unlikely that extra time allowance
would have resulted in raised scores for these groups.

Hypothesis 1 stated that :

The scores of a group of Black guidance teachers who have undergone
a guidance training programme will be significantly higher on a
measure of 'knowledge of guidance' than the scores of Black guidance
teachers who have not been trained.

Hypothesis 2 stated that :

The scores of a group of trained Black guidance teachers on a measure
of 'knowledge of guidance' will be significantly higher than those
of a group of Black subject teachers.

Hypothesis 3 stated that :

The scores of a group of untrained Black guidance teachers on a
measure of 'knowledge of guidance' will be significantly different
from those of a group of Black subject teachers.

The results of the three groups on the Guidance Examination are contained in Table 6.

Table 6

Descriptive statistics of the performances of the three
groups on the Guidance Examination

Variable	Group		
	1 (n = 265)	2 (n = 242)	3 (n = 91)
Mean	53,430	29,054	31,440
SD	11,724	8,774	9,906
SEM	,720	,564	1,038
Maximum score[a]	82,000	56,000	54,000
Minimum score	2,000	3,000	11,000

[a]
Maximum possible score = 100

To determine whether the scores of the three groups on the Guidance Examination differed to any significant extent, a one-way analysis of variance was performed.   The results are presented in Table 7.

Table 7

One-way analysis of variance of Guidance Examination scores

Source	SS	df	MS	F Value
Between groups	83434,6249	2	41717,3125	389,82 *
Within groups	63675,6777	595	107,0179	
Total	147110,3027	597		

* p < 0,0001

In order to test the observed significance, Scheffé's post-hoc statistic was calculated. The results are presented in Table 8.

Table 8

Scheffé bounds for differences between the means of the three groups on the Guidance Examination

| | Group | | |
Group	1 (n = 265)	2 (n = 242)	3 (n = 91)
1			
2	10,301 x		
3	14,077 x	14,247	

x p < 0,05

The one-way analysis of variance (see Table 7) and Scheffé's post-hoc test for significance (see Table 8) indicate clearly that the scores of Group 1 (the trained guidance teachers) are significantly better than the scores of either Group 2 (subject teachers) or Group 3 (untrained guidance teachers). This suggests that the NIPR training course was able to improve the newly-appointed guidance teachers' 'knowledge of guidance' significantly. In addition, this observed increase in 'knowledge of guidance' cannot be ascribed to the six-month period of guidance-teaching experience which Group 1 had also enjoyed, for Group 3 had also had six months of guidance-teaching experience and their scores on the Guidance Examination were not significantly different from those of subject teachers who had had neither training nor guidance-teaching experience (see Tables 6 and 8).

Furthermore, if the training of Black guidance teachers does qualify as 'paraprofessional' training, then these results also reflect the observed American trend (Brown, 1974; Hoffman, 1976; Sawatsky & Paterson, 1982) that actual academic qualifications (or level of cognitive functioning) may not play a very great part in the training of lay people to perform some professional guidance functions. If

school guidance services for Blacks are to be restricted to the
provision of information (Watts, 1980), then the results of Group
1 (the trained guidance teachers) suggest that the training re-
ceived by this group of guidance teachers has equipped them with
at least a modicum of expertise in this regard.   These teachers
would be capable of performing many of the 'guidance' functions
outlined by Rodgers (1981).

The results of Group 3 (the untrained guidance teachers), however,
suggest that although these teachers are already performing guidance
functions, their 'knowledge of guidance' is limited.   This implies
that the effectiveness of their guidance teaching contributions
within the school system, if 'provision of information' is taken as
the criterion, is also somewhat limited.   This is even more apparent
when the scores of Group 2 (the subject teachers) and Group 3 (the
untrained guidance teachers) are compared, for there is no significant
difference between the two groups.   It should be borne in mind that
the Group 2 teachers were urban Blacks whose 'knowledge of guidance'
could have come about because of their greater opportunity for expo-
sure to an urban environment and the 'world of work' in the form it
takes in a big city such as Johannesburg.   The Group 3 guidance
teachers, coming as they do from semi-rural environments, do not
have the same opportunities for learning, and, consequently, being
able to teach their pupils, about urban environments and work oppor-
tunities.   Because there is no significant difference in 'knowledge
of guidance" between Group 2 and Group 3, it is probable that what
knowledge the Group 3 teachers do have is as a result of their
guidance teaching experiences.   When the scores of Group 1 (the
trained guidance teachers) and Group 3 (the untrained guidance
teachers) are compared, however, it is readily apparent that guidance
teaching experience is not sufficient in itself to enable a teacher
to become an informed guidance teacher even though the Group 3 teachers
have higher academic qualifications and more seniority.   The NIPR
training programme (Spence, 1982) appears to be able to achieve this
aim with some success.

Hypotheses 1 and 2 are, therefore, confirmed by the findings of the

present study.   As no significant differences exist between
Groups 2 and 3, hypothesis 3 is rejected.

7.   CONCLUSION

7.1   Major findings of the study

The significant difference with regard to 'knowledge of guidance'
observed between the trained guidance teachers and both the untrained
guidance and subject teachers is encouraging.   Although it is logi-
cal to assume that trainees will score well on a test based on their
training programme, it should nevertheless not be forgotten that the
guidance training programme in the present study was based on the
content of the Department of Education and Training's Standard 5
syllabus.   The untrained guidance teachers had not only had access
to the syllabus but had been working with it for six months at the
time of testing.   The lack of significant differences between the
'knowledge of guidance' scores of the untrained guidance teachers
and the subject teachers (who had had no access to the syllabus) is
an indication that the level of 'knowledge of guidance' observed in
the trained guidance teachers is probably a function of the training
programme.   Thus, even though the selection of the trained guidance
teachers was done in an unsatisfactory ad-hoc manner, it appears that
participation in the training programme is nevertheless related to a
higher level of guidance knowledge.   This suggests, moreover, that
teachers who have undergone the training programme will be able to
function more efficiently as guidance teachers precisely because
they know more about the subject they are meant to be teaching.

7.2   Limitations of the study

There were a number of flaws in the study which may have influenced
the results observed. In the discussion of these which follows,
an attempt has been made to suggest ways in which these limitations
could be obviated by future researchers.

7.2.1   Sample

No attempt was made to validate the selection by the Soweto
principals of the teachers comprising Group 1, (the trained guidance
teachers).   Although the principals were given guidelines on what
sort of teachers to select for guidance positions (Mahlaba, note 2),
their choices were accepted without question.   These choices may
well have reflected their personal biases (both positive and negative)
with regard to the introduction of guidance as a school subject, as
well as their attitudes (both positive and negative) towards the
teachers selected.   It is possible that different results on the
test battery may have been obtained had the members of Group 1,
(the trained guidance teachers) been chosen on the basis of a
scientific and systematic selection procedure.   A further limitation
of the total sample is that it comprised only some higher primary
school teachers in the Transvaal.   The results may not, therefore,
be generalized to Black higher primary school teachers in the other
provinces, nor may they be generalized to the Black population as a
whole.

7.2.2   Testing conditions

The testing conditions were considerably less than ideal, and the
results should, therefore, be interpreted with some caution.
Every effort should be made by future researchers to make sure that
testing conditions conform as closely as possible to those under
which the tests to be administered were standardized.   In particular,

attempts should be made to ensure an adequate number of invigilators
and to keep the numbers of subjects tested simultaneously to a maxi-
mum of about 200.   The distinct possibility exists that future re-
searchers, testing in standardized testing conditions, may obtain
results somewhat different from those observed in the present study.

7.3   Guidance Examination

If the Guidance Examination were to be used again it would be wise
to increase the time allowance to $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours and to separate the
'knowledge of guidance' items (1 to 30) from the 'application of
guidance' items (31 to 35), administering the latter as a separate
test.   It might be instructive to observe the effect of an added
time allowance on the means of group scores, and to establish
whether there is any correlation between 'knowledge of guidance'
scores and 'application of guidance' scores.   Although the item ana-
lysis of the Guidance Examination reported in the present study re-
veals that some items have an unsatisfactory item validity coefficient,
it is recommended that the items remain as they are and be subjected
to another item analysis after the test has been administered with
an extra time allowance and as two separate entities as outlined
earlier.   It is possible that the item analysis may yield different
results.

7.3   Implications of the present study

The results of the present study suggest that the NIPR training
programme (Spence, 1982) is able to raise the 'knowledge of
guidance' of a group of Black guidance teachers significantly.

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APPENDIX A

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING

GUIDANCE SYLLABUS (STANDARD 5)

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING

SYLLABUS FOR GUIDANCE

STANDARD 5

A. AIM

1. To assist the pupil in exploring and discovering, with the aid of the guidance teacher and other sources, his interests, special fields of ability, aptitudes and personality traits and to help him achieve a better knowledge of himself with regard to his potentialities and shortcomings.

2. To guide the pupil in regard to his further studies, choice of subjects and preparation and training for a future career with a view to his development into a happy, well-adjusted and useful citizen and member of the community.

B. INTRODUCTION

1. The task of the guidance teacher is mainly educative, for in addition to giving the pupil information, the teacher is also concerned with assisting him to find his own direction in life and to orientate him continually to the demands of a changing world.

2. The success achieved by the guidance teacher will depend largely on his knowledge of the prescribed themes. The study of pupils as persons comprises the exploration and discovery by the pupil and guidance teacher of the pupils' abilities, interests and other personality traits. This can be done,

inter alia, by means of the analysis of scholastic achievement and psychological test results as well as by means of personal interviews and the study of home and environmental circumstances.

3. Guidance as a subject is not different from any other school subject with regard to preparation of lessons, drawing up of schemes of work, evaluation and inspections.

4. One period per week is to be devoted to group guidance in each class. Where a pupil requires individual guidance, e.g. in regard to his personal problems or a possible future career, time should be devoted to interviews with individual pupils, and/or their parents possibly after school hours in accordance with arrangements made by the principal.

5. Problems to be dealt with by interviews and through individual guidance may vary in nature and may concern the choice of subjects, choice of institutions where studies should be undertaken, personal aptitudes and abilities, truancy, adjustment at school or in the home and emotional problems.

   Personal discussions offer the pupil opportunities to talk openly about his problems to someone who wishes to help him. The pupil should furthermore be aware that he has a sympathetic adviser who will ensure that interviews will remain confidential.

6. The figures in brackets indicate the number of periods that should be allocated to each section.

D. CONTENT

1. Why is the subject Guidance included in the
   curriculum?_____ (1)

   (a) To give assistance to pupils by supply-
       ing information in regard to educational,
       personal, social and vocational matters.

   (b) To induce pupils to be responsible, help-
       ful towards others, well-disciplined,
       obedient, a good example to others and
       generally well-behaved.

   (c) To give guidance to pupils in regard to
       furthering their studies and possible
       future careers.

2. What is personality? (1)

   Personality means the whole person - everything
   about a person. His face, his eyes, the way he
   walks, the way he sits, his voice, the expres-
   sion on his face, his habits, his character, what
   he believes and everything else about him.

3. The healthy personality . (2)

   The concept "healthy personality" is wide and
   flexible and implies growth. No-one arrives at
   the final goal of being a healthy personality.
   Healthy personality indicates the degree to which
   a person has learnt to cope effectively with life,
   i.e.

   (a) How you see yourself

       The first requirement for the healthy person-
       ality is that a person should know himself
       and see himself as others see him.

(b) How you like and care for yourself

Healthy individuals find it possible to
accept themselves and believe in themselves.

(c) How you use your abilities

Most people possess unused abilities which
they can change into skills. This can only
be done if people accept responsibility for
their lives. Healthy personalities do not
believe that they are controlled entirely by
circumstances and by the people around them.

(d) Why you need to control yourself

Self-control is part of the healthy person-
ality. Awareness of other peoples' needs
and consideration for other peoples' feelings
are part of the healthy personality.

(e) How to cope with your problems

Life is a continuing process of solving every-
day problems and the mentally healthy person
has the ability to make decisions and to solve
problems. Be prepared to think and try to
solve problems on your own.

(f) How you accept others

The healthy personality respects other peoples'
feelings and opinions. He accepts them as they
are without trying to turn them into what he
thinks they should be.

(g) How you live amongst others

Living amongst others simply means learning how
to do things in the way society expects, and at
the same time learning what you can expect from

society. It means independence within the
boundaries set by society. Caring for the
needs of others.

4. <u>Important character traits</u>   (1)

If an individual's personality is described, dif-
ferent aspects of his behaviour are actually des-
cribed. Different aspects revealed in this way are
called personality or character traits.

Friendship, school life and the work situation are
to a great extent based on an organized basis of
which a number of character traits are the fundamen-
tals. Some of these character traits are the fol-
lowing :

(a)   Self-discipline
(b)   Loyalty
(c)   Honesty
(d)   Responsibility
(e)   Religious attitude

5. <u>Important social relationships</u>   (3)

The identification of some principles of good human
relationships and important relationships.

(a)   Principles of good human relationships

Pupils want to know the <u>how</u> of good human
relationships. The following are some of the
principles of good human relationships :

(i)   Friendliness
(ii)   Good manners
(iii) Appearance (good taste in clothing)
(iv)   Character traits such as loyalty,
       honesty, dependability and self-
       discipline (see par. 3).

(b)   Social conduct   (1)

Man is a social being and must live as such
according to certain principles of living
which he must follow. The principles should
be applied :

   (i)   In the home situation
  (ii)   In the school situation
 (iii)   In public places
  (iv)   As a citizen

(c)   The following are important relationships to be
mentioned :

   (i)   The relationship between children and
their parents
  (ii)   The relationship with each member of
the family
 (iii)   The relationship with teachers
  (iv)   Relationship with friends
   (v)   The relationship between boys and girls
  (vi)   The relationship with members of other
cultural groups

(d)   Personal problems

Every person has to face personal problems
which can influence his social relationships.
Problems such as self-consciousness, stammer-
ing, etc. can be overcome if pupils realise
that they can face and solve these problems.

6.   Leisure time   (1)

(a)   What is meant by leisure time?

Leisure time is free time, in other words
those minutes and hours during which one does
not work or study.

(b) Why is leisure time given more consideration nowadays?

Working hours are gradually being shortened. Shortened hours result in more leisure time.

(c) Different ways in which leisure time can be spent to advantage.

Many ways exist in which leisure time can be spent, e.g. hobbies, reading, cultural activities etc. It is important, however, that all leisure time should not be spent in the same manner.

Leisure time should provide also for sport activities. Advantages of participation in sport include individual physical development, healthy competition between individuals or as a team between schools, development of certain character traits such as unselfishness, a healthy team spirit and adherence to the rules of the game.

The type of sport selected will be determined by facilities available and the pupils' abilities and interests.

7. <u>What is the value of education?</u> (1)

(a) Education develops personality, character and abilities.

(b) Pupils are trained for responsibility, good standards of conduct and exemplary behaviour.

(c) Education provides training and development of mental skills and stimulates logical thinking.

(d) Expands pupil's knowledge and stimulates inclination for further study. Prepares him for such studies.

(e) Equips one for the future and for earning a living.

(f) Teaches pupil how to be a useful citizen who will take his proper place in the community.

(g) Promotes religious outlook.

8. The difference between a primary school and a secondary school   (1)

(a) The primary school years represent a period of adjustment to the school situation and to the requirements of the secondary school stage.

(b) What is expected of the senior pupils of a primary school?

    (i) setting a good example to junior pupils in regard to behaviour and obeying school rules; co-operating with school staff and fellow-pupils;

    (ii) more independence and greater responsibility in work and school activities, e.g. homework, self-study, school competitions, sport.

(c) Secondary school offers choice of subjects; subject teachers as opposed to class teachers of primary standards; necessity of improving weak subjects to ensure good progress in secondary classes.

9. The school   (2)

(a) Rules: Specific rules of the school to be dealt with by teacher.

    (i) Why rules are necessary

       for orderliness, good discipline, good relationships, to ensure tidiness, e.g. school dress, classroom, buildings, school grounds.

    (ii) Why rules should be obeyed

to ensure healthy group behaviour; rules are conducive to good progress in education; cultivates good neighbourliness.

    (iii) Classroom rules

neatness of pupils, tidiness of classroom, silence in absence of teacher, politeness towards others, orderliness on entering and leaving classroom.

    (iv) Authority

recognition of the authority of prefects, teachers, principals and school controling bodies.

(b) Discipline: What discipline is and why should a school insist on discipline?

    (i) Lack of discipline leads to problems of behaviour.

    (ii) Discipline ensures good progress in school work.

    (iii) Discipline learnt at school also applies to the home and community.

    (iv) The aim of the individual should be to practise self-discipline in conduct, work and study.

(c) Behaviour: Why is good behaviour desirable?

    (i) Behaviour in the classroom, school, home and community.

    (ii) Behaviour towards other pupils, teachers, elders, strangers.

    (iii) Showing respect towards leaders in the community and superiors.

    (iv) Exemplary behaviour for sake of school's good name.

    (v) Good treatment of animals, property and community facilities (buses, trains, public conveniences).

    (vi) Care of environment. (Preventing veld fires, littering, contamination of water etc. Looking after trees and other plants).

(d)   Attendance: Why is regular attendance neces-
      sary?

> (i)   Essential for good progress at school.
>   Absence retards individual and class
>   progress.
>
> (ii) Regular attendance keeps pupils off
>   the streets and reduces vagrancy.
>
> (iii) Truancy breeds dishonesty and bad
>   company, e.g. telling lies, theft and
>   other forms of misconduct.

(e)   Homework: Why is homework necessary?

> (i)   To consolidate the work learnt at
>   school.
>
> (ii) To supplement school work.
>
> (iii) Additional examples (e.g. in Mathe-
>   matics) gives practice.
>
> (iv) Progress is stimulated (both indi-
>   vidual and class progress).
>
> (v)   Good study habits and work habits
>   are developed (independence, accept-
>   ing responsibility).

(f)   Homework should be done

> (i)   Homework should be a pupil's own
>   effort.
>
> (ii) Pupils should have a set time for
>   doing homework (planning).
>
> (iii) Where favourable facilities are
>   available, these should be fully
>   used for doing homework, e.g. in
>   classroom or library.
>
> (iv) Homework should be neatly done, as
>   with all school work.

10.   The use and purpose of the library   (1)

(a)   Reading is encouraged and good reading habits
      are cultivated.

(b)   Reading is done to gain information or to
      acquire knowledge.

(c) To expand one's vocabulary and increase one's speed of reading.

(d) Reading for pleasure and spending one's leisure time profitably.

Libraries for children :

(a) Public library.

(b) School library.

(c) Own or family's private library.

Library materials :

(a) Books.

(b) Non-book materials: newspapers, magazines, journals and others.

How to read:

With concentration and understanding. In good light. Correct posture.

11. <u>Tests and examinations</u>   (1)

(a) Tests: Why are tests in school work necessary?

   (i) Pupils are compelled to revise work done.

   (ii) Tests measure whether work was understood and observed.

   (iii) Learning process is stimulated. (Tests form part of teaching method).

   (iv) To ensure that content of syllabus is covered.

(b) Examinations

   (i) Necessity of proper preparation during the whole year.

   (ii) Pupils must get practice in technique of examinations.

   (iii) Necessity of having sufficient rest when preparing for examinations.

        (iv)   Rules applicable during examinations e.g. absolute honesty, no books or notes to be brought into examination room. Disadvantages of cribbing.

        (v)   Differences between external and internal examinations.

12.   Facilities for further education/training   (3)
     after higher primary certificate

   (a)   The role of aptitudes and interests in the choice of a career and of further training.

   (b)   Desirability of furthering education after primary school, e.g. better prospects of employment, higher wages and income, future security assured, greater contribution towards development and welfare of nation. Importance of development of technical skills.

   (c)   Differentiation in Education

        (i)   Difference between Trade and Vocational Schools, Secondary Schools with special directions of study (e.g. commercial or science subjects; Homecraft; agriculture) and colleges for Advanced Technical Education. (See information brochure on Trade and Technical Training, pamphlet 1 of the Std 8 syllabuses and E.T. 318 as well as Educamus).

        (ii)   Training facilities for girls.

        (iii) Names of the above institutions which serve the area of the school.

        (iv)   Admission requirements for each of the above types of schools and courses.

13.   Part-time studies   (1)

     (i)   Value of part-time studies.

    (ii)   Difficulties encountered when studying part-time.

   (iii) Opportunities for part-time study, e.g. extra-mural and correspondence courses, facilities such as evening schools and continuation classes.

     (iv)   Private candidates for Departmental Examinations: Std 8: refer to Pamphlet I of Std 8 syllabus; Senior Certificate: refer to Pamphlet E,T. 318(a).

     (v)   Adult Education

14. <u>Planning and money matters</u>   (1)

   (a)   Thrift

      (i)   The importance of thrift.

      (ii)   Planning how to spend money wisely.

      (iii)   The importance of saving money.

   (b)   Saving accounts

      (i)   How saving accounts work: interest or money invested.

      (ii)   How to open and use a savings account.

   (c)   School funds

      Why school funds are necessary.

15. <u>Vocational Guidance</u>   (1)

   (a)   What is Vocational Guidance?

      Vocational Guidance is the process of assisting the child to choose an occupation and to prepare for it. Vocational Guidance is concerned with helping pupils to make decisions and planning a career.

   (b)   The necessity of Vocational Guidance

      (i)   Differences between people and differences between occupations.

      (ii)   The complexity of society and the world of work.

      (iii)   The importance of work.

      (iv)   The importance of choosing the right career.

16. <u>The world of work</u>   (1)

(a)   How things have changed in the world of work

Occupations are changing with each new in-
vention. Machines and teccnology in the
world of work. Occupations change. Some
occupations become extinct, some remain,
but are greatly changed, while new occupa-
tions come into being.

Changes take place in every line of work and
today every worker must be ready to adjust
his plans as these changes in the occupation-
al world come about.

(b)   Where do people work?

(i)   Government departments.
(ii)   Industries.
(iii) Municipalities.
(iv)   Mining companies.
(v)   Private firms.
(vi)   Farms.
(vii) Own enterprise.

(c)   What do they earn?

(i)   Some occupations yield a higher in-
come than others.

(ii)   Salaries for experienced people are
usually higher than for beginners.

(iii) Unskilled and semi-skilled people earn
less than skilled people.

Choice of a vocation should not be
based on salary alone.

(d)   What is the correct attitude towards work?

(i)   One should not work merely to make a
living, but also for pleasure and
satisfaction.

(ii)   Constructive work develops character
and personality.

17. (a) <u>How to choose a career</u>

Knowledge of occupations

To be able to make the correct occupational
decision it is necessary to take notice of
new occupations and have a wide knowledge
of different occupations.

Supply and demand of labour

It is necessary to take notice of the demand
that exists for an occupation before such an
occupation is followed.

Decision-making

Before a decision is made the above should
be studied closely and one should be absolu-
tely sure that the occupation that one is
interested in is a suitable one.

(b) Sources from which self-knowledge can be
obtained

(i) Aptitude tests (S.A.T.B.)

Aptitude is the potential ability
that can be developed in the future.

Through an aptitude test it can be
determined at the very beginning
whether or not the person under con-
sideration has the capacity for doing
that which will be demanded of him
in a given situation. (After analysis
of test results the teacher could give
guidance to pupils as to what directions
should be followed).

(ii) Scholastic achievements

A pupil's scholastic achievements supply
a picture of his interests and abilities
and can be valuable information towards
deciding on a future career.

(c) The role of women

Great changes have taken place for women in
the world of work. The occupational field has
become open to women. Very few restrictions

exist on which occupations can be followed by women. Almost any occupation today can be followed by a woman.

18. <u>Levels of employment</u>   (1)

The level of an occupation depends on the skills involved and on the training required (formal education and special training).

(a) Unskilled

An unskilled occupation is one for which no further training is necessary, e.g. cleaner, dockworker, factory-hand, labourer. The chance for promotion in this kind of occupation is very low.

(b) Semi-skilled

A semi-skilled occupation is one for which a certain amount of basic educational training is required. Work opportunities, conditions of employment and wages are not very good in these occupations.

(c) Skilled

A skilled occupation is an occupation for which several years of training is necessary (a high level of dexterity is required). The following are examples of skilled occupations: the motor mechanic, the welder and metal worker, the electrician and the tailor.

(d) Professions

Occupational positions filled by academically qualified persons, usually graduates, who specialise in a certain direction, are called professions (doctors, attorneys, social workers, pharmacists, etc.).

19. <u>The work we do</u>   (2)

    (a) Work to fulfil our needs

         People do not merely work to make a living.
         They work to fulfil needs such as:

           (i) Biological needs for survival:
                food, shelter and security.

          (ii) Social needs: to join and be an ac-
                cepted member of a group.

    (b) Sources from which information on occupations
         can be gained

           (i) Educamus

                Monthly vocational guidance articles
                published.

          (ii) Progress

                Articles on vocations.

         (iii) University calendars

                Different courses that can be taken
                as well as the different subjects that
                must be taken for certain courses.

          (iv) Newspapers

                Advertisements of occupations as well
                as general vocational information.

           (v) Career guides

20. <u>Classification of occupations</u>   (1)

    (a) Work opportunities   (1)

         For the pupil who leaves school after Std 5
         only a limited range of unskilled occupations
         is possible, e.g.

         Houseworkers, office-hands, hotelmaids, mes-
         sengers, cleaners, roadworkers, dockworkers,
         railworkers, farmhands, artists, actors,
         musicians.

    (b) Study of occupations in which pupils in the
         class are interested.   (4)

A brief analysis of at least five suitable occupations.

The following scheme should be used: (See also the articles on vocational information in Educamus).

   (i)   Nature of the work.

   (ii)   Working conditions. (Is the work indoors or outdoors and what are the working hours?).

   (iii)   Training and entrance qualifications. (The required school qualifications and everything about training).

   (iv)   Qualities necessary for success.

   (v)   Importance of the work and the role it plays in society. (How does it serve society?).

   (vi)   Related occupations. (To which other occupations is the particular occupation related?).

21.   **How to find employment and how to apply for it**

   (a)   How to find work

      (i)   Help from working people. Working people will be able to supply the necessary information.

      (ii)   Advertisements in newspapers

           The "want-ad" sections of newspapers are popular places to look for information concerning occupations.

      (iii)   Employment agencies

           Employment agencies are special organizations that help people find work.

      (iv)   Advertising for work.

   (b)   How to apply for work

      The importance of the employment interview; letter of application, the completion of the application form.

22. <u>Requirements for success in any vocation</u>   (1)

   (a) The work situation

      (i) Time consciousness

         The employee should be punctual and make the best use of the time available.

     (ii) Devotion to study

         New techniques and methods should be studied by the employee and he should be willing to learn what is required of him.

    (iii) Willingness, sense of responsibility, dependability

         The employee should be absolutely willing to do what is required of him to the best of his ability.

     (iv) Thoroughness

         All work and duties to be performed should be done correctly, neatly and with precision.

      (v) Productivity

         As much work as possible should be done. The amount of work done should satisfy the needs of the employer.

     (vi) Motivation in a career

         It is necessary that the employee should strive for the best position and for promotion according to his ability.

   (b) Work relationships

      (i) Employer-employee

         A certain relationship should exist between the employer and employee. This relationship should always be one of politeness and mutual respect.

     (ii) Between co-workers

         Co-workers need each other, they can help each other. Co-workers form part of the social group with which you are going to be identified, they form central figures in your life.

(iii)   Outside relationships (public)

Members of the public who might come into contact with the employee should always be treated with respect, courtesy, politeness and helpfulness.

EVALUATION

This is not an examination subject.

APPENDIX B

MEMORANDUM TO ALL PRINCIPALS OF SOWETO

HIGHER PRIMARY AND COMBINED SCHOOLS

GUIDANCE TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAMME

By the end of May 1982, approximately 280 teachers of Guidance at the Higher Primary schools in Soweto (i.e. on the average of 2 per school) will have completed the Guidance Teacher Training Programme devised and presented by the National Institute for Personnel Research (NIPR) at the request of the Johannesburg Region of the Department of Education and Training.

The teachers who have been involved in this training programme, as well as the training programme itself, have been important pioneers in the introduction of the subject Guidance to the Higher Primary schools. Because Guidance as a subject and the quality of the person chosen to be a Guidance teacher are so important, it is essential that research be done as far as the selection and training of future Guidance teachers is concerned. The NIPR has undertaken to do this research.

In order to assist the NIPR with their research, the principals of the Higher Primary schools in Soweto are once again being asked for their co-operation. They are being requested to choose another two teachers from their staff, for <u>one morning only.</u> These two teachers should be as similar as possible to the two guidance teachers who were chosen at the beginning of 1982 with respect to four important characteristics.

(a) age

(b) sex

(c) level of education

(d) years of teaching experience

They should, however, <u>not</u> be Guidance teachers and, as far as possible, <u>not</u> be teachers who were considered as possible Guidance teachers.

These two non-Guidance teachers, <u>as well as</u> the two Guidance teachers, will be required to attend an evaluation session for one full morning on <u>Friday, 28 May 1982</u> at the <u>Jabulani Technical High School Hall,</u> beginning at 08h00.

The teachers should all be told that :

(a) they are going to complete questionnaires in connection with research into the selection and training of future Guidance teachers

(b) they will be busy with the questionnaires until approximately 13h00.

Your co-operation in the choosing of the non-Guidance teachers as well as your making available 4 members of your staff on one morning is very much appreciated. Should any of the principals be interested in the results of the full research programme, copies of the research report will be available to them free of charge, on request.

APPENDIX C

GUIDANCE EXAMINATION

NAME : _____   NUMBER : _____

<u>COUNCIL FOR SCIENTIFIC AND INDUSTRIAL RESEARCH</u>
<u>NATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR PERSONNEL RESEARCH</u>
<u>SOWETO HIGHER PRIMARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE TEACHER</u>
<u>TRAINING PROGRAMME GUIDANCE EXAMINATION</u>

<u>TIME LIMIT : ONE HOUR</u>

<u>INSTRUCTIONS</u> : Write your answers to the questions directly
onto this question paper. Answer <u>ALL</u> ques-
tions.

1. Name the 4 different types of Guidance.   (4)

    (a) _____
    (b) _____
    (c) _____
    (d) _____

2. Name the 2 different methods of giving Guidance
    to pupils.   (2)

    (a) _____
    (b) _____

3. Give 2 reasons for why Guidance has been introduced
    as a subject into our schools.   (2)

    (a) _____

         _____
    (b) _____

         _____

4. Name 4 characteristics of a good Guidance teacher. (4)

    (a) _____

         _____

(b) _____

_____

(c) _____

_____

(d) _____

_____

5. Name any 4 areas in which a person should know
    himself in order to be able to say that he has
    "self-knowledge".   (4)

    (a) _____

    (b) _____

    (c) _____

    (d) _____

6. Describe 2 ways in which a Guidance teacher can
    help a pupil to learn to know himself.   (4)

    (a) _____

    _____

    (b) _____

    _____

7. Name any 4 characteristics of the "healthy
    personality".   (4)

    (a) _____

    _____

    (b) _____

    _____

    (c) _____

    _____

    (d) _____

    _____

8. Name any 4 "roadblocks" to effective counselling/
    communication with a pupil.   (4)

    (a) _____

    _____

(b) _____

_____

(c) _____

_____

(d) _____

_____

9. Describe 2 situations in which it is <u>not</u> advis-
    able for a Guidance teacher to attempt to deal
    with a pupil's personal problems.   (2)

    (a) _____

    _____

    (b) _____

    _____

10. Name 4 important social relationships in the life
     of a Standard 5 pupil.   (4)

    (a) _____
    (b) _____
    (c) _____
    (d) _____

11. Name 2 ways in which a social worker might be
     able to relieve the Guidance teacher's work
     load.   (4)

    (a) _____

    _____

    (b) _____

    _____

12. Give 3 reasons for why a pupil should <u>not</u> become
     involved in unwholesome (destructive) leisure-
     time activities (e.g. stealing, vandalism).   (3)

    (a) _____

    _____

    (b) _____

    _____

    (c) _____

    _____

13. Describe 2 ways in which the Guidance teacher could encourage pupils to become involved in wholesome (constructive) leisure-time activities. (4)

(a) _____

_____

(b) _____

_____

14. Name 5 symptoms to look out for when attempting to identify a child with a drug or alcohol problem. (5)

(a) _____

(b) _____

(c) _____

(d) _____

(e) _____

15. Describe a method of teaching pupils about drugs and alcohol. (2)

_____

_____

_____

16. Give 3 reasons for why a pupil should do homework and tests regularly. (3)

(a) _____

_____

(b) _____

_____

(c) _____

_____

17. What is an "underachiever"? (2)

_____

_____

18. Give 2 reasons for why a pupil might be under-achieving. (2)

(a) _____

_____

(b) _____

_____

19. What is a learning problem? (2)

_____

_____

_____

20. Name 2 learning problems which pupils may ex-perience. (2)

(a) _____

(b) _____

21. Describe a method of helping a pupil with a learning problem. (2)

_____

_____

_____

22. Name any 4 causes of poor concentration and memory in a pupil. (4)

(a) _____

(b) _____

(c) _____

(d) _____

23. Describe any 2 methods of helping pupils to learn good study habits. (4)
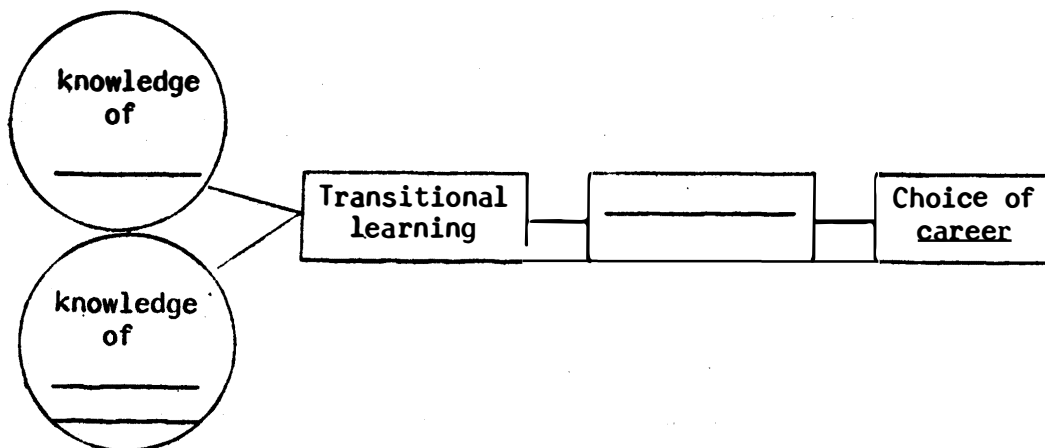
(a) _____

_____

_____

(b) _____

_____

_____

24. Name 2 ways in which incorrect or inappropriate
     subject choice could affect a pupil.   (2)

(a) _____

_____

(b) _____

_____

25. Complete the following model of the career
     choice process.   (3)

26. Name 2 kinds of employment which could be obtained
     with each of the following levels of education.   (8)

(a) Junior primary schooling

(i)   _____

(ii) _____

(b) Senior primary schooling

(i)   _____

(ii) _____

(c) Junior secondary schooling

(i)   _____

(ii) _____

(d)   Senior secondary schooling

    (i)   _____

    (ii) _____

27.   What is a "specialized skill"?   (2)

_____

_____

_____

28.   Give 2 reasons why pupils should develop special-
    ized skills before attempting to find jobs.   (2)

(a)   _____

      _____

(b)   _____

      _____

29.   Name the 4 types of specialist schooling avail-
    able to pupils.   (4)

(a)   _____

(b)   _____

(c)   _____

(d)   _____

30.   Name 3 sources of information for the Guidance
    teacher who wants to give his/her pupils accu-
    rate careers information.   (6)

(a)   _____

(b)   _____

(c)   _____

In the following extracts of conversation the Guidance
teacher's last response has been left blank. Read the
extracts carefully and in each case fill in the res-
ponse you would make. Each extract counts 5 marks. (25)

31.   Guidance teacher : Moses, this is the third time this
                            week that you have come late to
                            school. Would you like to tell me
                            why?

Moses   : It's my own business.   I don't have
to tell you anything!

Guidance teacher : _____

_____

_____

32.   Guidance teacher : Themba, your class teacher tells me
that after coming first in class
last year, you have failed three
subjects this term.   What do you
think could be the reason?

Themba (crying)   : I don't know ... I just can't study
properly any more ...

Guidance teacher : _____

_____

_____

33.   Guidance teacher : Daniel, your class teacher tells me
that you were involved in a knife-
fight during break today.   Would you
like to tell me what happened?

Daniel   : (silent, refuses to say anything,
won't look at the teacher)

Guidance teacher : _____

_____

_____

34.   Guidance teacher : Mary, your school fees have not yet
been paid.   Your class teacher says
that your mother told him that she
gave the money to you two weeks ago.

Mary   : Why should I say anything?   You won't
believe me ... everybody's always
against me!

Guidance teacher : _____

_____

_____

35. Guidance teacher : Simon, I hear that you want to leave
                        school at the end of Standard 5.
                        Would you like to tell me why?

    Simon (hesitantly): My father says that I should ... but
                        I ... (silent)

    Guidance teacher : _____

    _____

    _____

                                    GRAND TOTAL : 125 MARKS