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FOREWORD

African Ministers of Education have long been aware of the growing number of social problems which affect the lives of young Africans, particularly girls, and determined some time ago that their education systems had to play a much more active and positive role in promoting the growth and development of the young people entrusted to their care.

Before taking action they took into account the declarations and recommendations of the Pan African Conference on the Education of Girls (Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso, 1993), and the Fourth Conference on Women (Beijing, China, 1995), and other international gatherings on matters related to women. They then convened a series of technical meetings in English and French-speaking countries, at both the regional and the national level, to decide in greater detail what should be done. The consensus reached was that Guidance and Counselling should be an integral part of the education of children and should be included in the teacher training programmes.

This co-ordinated effort resulted in the establishment in April 1997, of a Board of Governors, made up of African Ministers of Education, who would be responsible for policy decisions and for establishing procedures in the development of the Guidance and Counselling Programme. In preparing the programme African countries would collaborate so that it would benefit from the best of African expertise. It was also agreed that ‘The Guidance Counselling and Youth Development Centre for Africa’, designed to provide training for teacher trainers and youth and social workers from all over the continent, would be set up in Malawi. While this programme was intended for use with boys and girls, its content and organization are such that special attention is given to the needs and requirements of girls.

Assistance is being given by a number of international and regional agencies such as UNESCO, UNICEF, UNFPA, FAWE (the Forum for African Women Educationalists), DANIDA, the Rockefeller Foundation, and from countries such as Finland and USA.

A Training Package on Guidance and Counselling has been prepared by African specialists from various countries in consultation with other competent persons. It consists of eight training modules – Guidance, Counselling, Social Work, Behaviour Modification, Gender Sensitivity, Guidance and Counselling Programme Development, Adolescent Reproductive Health, and Workshop Administration and Conduct Guidelines. The modules encourage the use of non-threatening approaches, particularly with regard to sensitive issues, and are accompanied by charts, transparencies and video films as teaching aids. Supporting materials are also drawn from relevant programmes being implemented in the respective countries. Although intended for use in the training of trainers, the suggested activities are also generally suitable for use with school-age children. Each module is comprised of units and sets out objectives and activities for small and large groups. Because of the shortage of appropriate relevance materials for Guidance and Counselling, each module includes additional reading.
This Module on ‘Counselling’, prepared in Zambia, gives a definition of counselling and deals with it from the point of view of Africa. The aims and fields of counselling, the various approaches used, and the skills needed are all described in detail. Special consideration is given to peer counselling and self-help groups in addition to conventional counselling techniques. The importance of ethical behaviour on the part of the counsellor is also highlighted.

Colin N. Power
Deputy Director-General for Education
UNESCO

Acknowledgements

Mr Thomas Syamujaye is the specialist in Counselling in the School Guidance Services Unit in the Ministry of Education in Zambia. He took over this part of the programme and produced the final version of the training module. His experience in the field of counselling is evident in the quality of the module. He has been consistent at the task and is the trainer in Counselling in the regional programme for trainers of trainers that is held in Malawi every year.

I wish to take this opportunity to thank Mr Syamujaye for his support to the programme and I hope that he will continue to serve his region with the dedication that is needed for progress.

I must say thanks to the Danish International Development Agency (DANIDA), UNICEF, UNFPA and UNDP for their contributions, both in cash and in kind, to the development of this module.

I also wish to express sincere regret at the passing of Mr Penyani, late Head of the School Guidance Services in the Ministry of Education, who was among the founders of the programme. May his soul rest in peace.

Winsome Gordon
Programme Co-ordinator
UNESCO
Counselling is a concept that has existed for a long time. We have sought through the ages to understand ourselves, offer counsel and develop our potential, become aware of opportunities and, in general, help ourselves in ways associated with formal guidance practice.

In most communities, there has been, and there still is, a deeply embedded conviction that, under proper conditions, people can help others with their problems. Some people help others find ways of dealing with, solving, or transcending problems.

In schools, if the collaboration between teachers and students is good, students learn in a practical way. Young people develop degrees of freedom in their lives as they become aware of options and take advantage of them. At its best, helping should enable people to throw off chains and manage life situations effectively.

Unprecedented economic and social changes have, over the years, changed the ways in which we manage our lives. Consequently, not all the lessons of the past can effectively deal with the challenges of modern times. Effective counselling, especially in institutions of learning has now become important. Boys and girls, and young men and women, need to be guided in the relationships between health and the environment, earning skills, knowledge, and attitudes that lead to success and failure in life.

The need for counselling has become paramount in order to promote the well-being of the child. Effective counselling should help to improve the self-image of young people and facilitate achievement in life tasks. Counselling should empower girls and boys to participate fully in, and benefit from, the economic and social development of the nation.
Development of Counselling Rationale

RATIONALE

Counselling, in different forms and with different interpretations, has existed in societies for a long time. Counselling has now become institutionalized. Schools, for example, have to a large extent taken over the task of providing psychological support to boys and girls.

The differences and contradictions in present-day counselling have their origin in the social and historical forces that have shaped modern culture. People in all societies, and at all times, have experienced emotional or psychological distress and behavioural problems. In each culture, there have been well established ways and methods of helping individuals with their problems.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

By the end of the unit, you should be able to:

• explain what giving advice entails;
• explain the role of learning in African societies;
• trace the history of counselling in western countries;
• describe the purpose of counselling in educational systems;
• explain the role of counselling in improving the well-being and achievement of girls, and children in general;
• discuss the different fields of counselling;
• describe the three stages of the helping model.
**CONTENT**

This unit includes the following:

Topic 1. Counselling in Africa  
Topic 2. Definition of Counselling  
Topic 3. Aims of Counselling  
Topic 4. Fields of Counselling  
Topic 5. Three Stages of the Helping Model

**Topic 1.  
COUNSELLING IN AFRICA**

Most sub-Saharan African societies have, in the past, been held together by elements unique to the region. The most outstanding of these elements are:

1. the extended family system, including the clan and the tribe;  
2. chieftaincy;  
3. taboos;  
4. various forms of initiation; and  
5. close links with ancestors and elders.

The village is the focal point of society. While each one of these elements is important, only a few are used to illustrate the role of counselling in present-day sub-Saharan African societies.

Basically, traditional chiefs had multiple roles which included serving as a symbol of authority and as a regulator. Since these roles were accepted and respected by all, there was a clear direction in the day-to-day affairs of society. The elders, the chief included, were a valuable source of guidance and counselling for boys and girls.

In most cases, the chiefs were regarded as a vital link between ancestors and the present generation. This link was strengthened by the rituals, ceremonies and taboos attached to them. It was easy to guide and counsel the young, since the rituals or ceremonies were also aimed at preparation for adult roles in society.

The extended family, the clan, and the village, made society supportive. No individual regarded him/herself as alien. Counsel was readily sought and provided.
At present, sub-Saharan African countries experience many changes, which in turn have resulted in the weakening of the structures of society. The most outstanding examples are:

1. a gradual shift from the extended to the nuclear family unit, or single parent family unit;
2. a heavy reliance on a cash economy in poor countries;
3. political demands and expectations;
4. a rapid rate of urbanization with a high unemployment rate compounded by a high illiteracy rate;
5. a high population growth rate, which leads to large classes in schools;
6. the infiltration of foreign culture through films, television, videos, live performances, and magazines, which are counter-productive;
7. wars, political instability and epidemics, leading to increased numbers of orphans and refugees; and
8. moral decay due to elements from within and outside the nation.

Forms of Counselling in Traditional African Societies

In traditional African societies, counsel was given in various forms, the most common of which were giving advice and sharing wisdom.

1. Giving Advice

Giving advice has been a common way of providing help for other people. The advice offered was frequently instrumental in helping people to consider their future. In many instances, the extended family was the main source of advice for girls and boys. There was usually no shortage of people willing to share their wisdom with others.

Giving advice often promoted the dependence of the young person on the advice given. In most cases, it was largely subjective and did not promote the personal development of young people.
Activity 1.1: Giving Advice

For class discussion:
1. Identify situations in the school where direct advice is given.

Group Work:
1. One person can play the role of a student with a personal problem; another can act as a teacher trying to help without giving advice.
2. After playing the role, hold a group discussion.
   a) How effective was the teacher at avoiding giving advice?
   b) What methods or means did the teacher use to avoid giving advice?
   c) How could the teacher have helped the student more effectively?

2. Wisdom

Wisdom generally refers to experience and knowledge about life and using them judiciously. In African societies, it was considered the responsibility of elders to provide wisdom or counsel to young boys and girls. The wisdom provided by elderly men and women was part of the counselling function of the family or society for boys and girls.

Another aspect of wisdom is sharing proverbs or folk stories. A well-known African proverb is, ‘When elephants fight, the grass suffers.’ Folk stories about the ‘hare’ are told in many parts of Africa.

Activity 1.2: Wisdom

1. Think of some wisdom you received from a family elder which had a positive effect on you.
2. Think of a proverb told in your vernacular. Translate it into English to the best of your ability.
3. Break into groups with 4 people in each group and share these experiences with one another.
Counselling in the Educational System

The ever growing complexity of society, coupled with social problems like HIV/AIDS and the rapid development of science and technology, place heavy demands on education. The school, as an important social institution, is required to adapt quickly to changing patterns, and help prepare citizens for tomorrow's challenges. Counselling in the educational system should help boys and girls alike, to develop their capacities to the full. These include intellectual, social, physical and moral capacities.

Education and Counselling of Girls

Disparities in gender, social and cultural practices, beliefs and perceptions, are widespread in many societies. Unless there are systematic interventions to remove the gender gaps in education, half of the human resources in most countries will be underutilized. Socio-cultural beliefs and practices in schools often discourage girls from learning and subsequently lower their aspirations. The provision of effective counselling should help to improve the self-image of girls and boys, and broaden their educational and occupational ambitions.

Activity 1.3: The Education and Counselling of Girls

1. List five socio-cultural beliefs and practices that discourage girls from learning.
2. How best can you change the situation and/or offset the negative effects of these beliefs and practices?

Topic 2.
Definition of Counselling

It is difficult to think of a single definition of counselling. This is because definitions of counselling depend on theoretical orientation.

Counselling is a learning-oriented process, which occurs usually in an interactive relationship, with the aim of helping a person learn more about the self, and to use such understanding to enable the person to become an effective member of society.
Counselling is a process by means of which the helper expresses care and concern towards the person with a problem, and facilitates that person's personal growth and brings about change through self-knowledge.

Counselling is a relationship between a concerned person and a person with a need. This relationship is usually person-to-person, although sometimes it may involve more than two people. It is designed to help people to understand and clarify their views, and learn how to reach their self-determined goals through meaningful, well-informed choices, and through the resolution of emotional or interpersonal problems. It can be seen from these definitions that counselling can have different meanings.

Counselling is provided under a variety of labels. For example, there are instances where counselling is offered when a relationship is primarily focused on other, non-counselling concerns. A student may use a teacher as a person with whom it is safe to share worries. In such a situation, the teacher uses counselling skills, but does not engage in an actual counselling relationship. The teacher counsels but is not a counsellor.

Activity 1.4: Definition of Counselling

Group Work:
1. Brainstorm in your groups and present at least three differences between a counsellor and a teacher who counsels.
2. Present the results of your discussion to the class.

Topic 3.
Aims of Counselling

The aims of counselling are broad. They may depend on the situation and the environment, and on training. The basic aims of counselling include the following:

1. To help students gain an insight into the origins and development of emotional difficulties, leading to an increased capacity to take rational control over feelings and actions.
2. To alter maladjusted behaviour.
3. To assist students to move in the direction of fulfilling their potential, or achieve an integration of conflicting elements within themselves.
4. To provide students with the skills, awareness and knowledge, which will enable them to confront social inadequacy.

In a school, boys and girls face many difficulties and problems which may be expressed in the following ways: withdrawal, unhappiness, annoyance, anger, inability to meet needs, lack of knowledge, partial or total failure, inability to realize aspirations, anxiety and hyperactivity. Added to these is the problem of HIV/AIDS for which a great deal of psychological support may be required for boys and girls, particularly those already infected, or who are orphans as a result of this disease.

Young boys and girls are a large segment of the population. It, therefore, makes strategic sense to target them through guidance and counselling.

Counselling is important at this stage, because this is when boys and girls develop positive sexual attitudes and practices. It is when students begin to understand who they are, and how they can contribute to healthy relationships. They start to develop attitudes of respect toward members of the opposite sex, and see how each community member can contribute to development.

Personal and social counselling should also assist in awakening students to educational and vocational opportunities. The image of a girl in most African communities is that of a passive, submissive person, who remains in the background. Generally these girls have a negative self-image and a feeling of inferiority. This is increased by the attitudes of parents, teachers and society. Personal counselling empowers girls, and teaches them to develop positive attitudes towards themselves, and is marked by an ability to acknowledge areas of expertise and to be free to make positive choices.

Activity 1.5: Aims of Counselling

1. Do all the difficulties or problems listed above carry the same weight, or are some more destructive than others?
2. What are the three greatest drawbacks to the growth of young people today? List them and describe how to minimize their effects.
1. **Educational Counselling**

A term first coined by Truman Kelley in 1914 (Makinde, 1988), educational counselling is a process of rendering services to pupils who need assistance in making decisions about important aspects of their education, such as the choice of courses and studies, decisions regarding interests and ability, and choices of college and high school. Educational counselling increases a pupil's knowledge of educational opportunities.

2. **Personal/Social Counselling**

Personal counselling deals with emotional distress and behavioural difficulties, which arise when individuals struggle to deal with developmental stages and tasks. Any aspect of development can be turned into an adjustment problem, and it is inevitable that everyone encounters, at some time, exceptional difficulty in meeting an ordinary challenge. For example:

- Anxiety over a career decision
- Lingering anger over an interpersonal conflict
- Insecurities about getting older
- Depressive feelings when bored with work
- Excessive guilt about a serious mistake
- A lack of assertion and confidence
- Grief over the loss of a loved one
- Disillusionment and loneliness after parents' divorce

3. **Vocational Counselling**

Vocational counselling is defined as individual contacts with those counselled, in order to facilitate career development. This definition and category encompasses counselling situations such as these:

- Helping students become aware of the many occupations to consider
- Interpreting an occupational interest inventory to a student
- Assisting a teenager to decide what to do after school
- Helping a student apply to a college or university
- Role-playing a job interview in preparation for the real thing
Topic 5.  
Three Stages of the Helping Model

I.  The Present Scenario

a)  Help clients to tell their stories.

In telling the story, clients reveal and discuss their problems and missed opportunities. Some clients are articulate while others may be mute. Some will be reluctant to reveal everything that is bothering them, while others do so easily. The story needs to be told either at the beginning of the helping process, or in bits and pieces.

For this to happen, counsellors need to develop an effective helpful relationship with clients. They need to assess rather than judge their clients. They need to assess such things as the nature and severity of the problem, other problems that are not discussed, the impact of the clients' environment on problems, the personal and interpersonal resources available to clients.

b)  Help clients become aware of, and overcome, their blind spots and develop new perspectives about themselves and their problems.

Many people fail to deal with problems, or fail to exploit opportunities, because they do not see them from new perspectives. They lock themselves in self-defeating patterns of thinking and behaviour.

Using imagination and brainstorming as a means of problem management and opportunity development is one way in which counsellors can empower clients. Challenging blind spots is not the same as telling them that what they are doing is wrong. It is helping them to see themselves, others, and the world around them, in a more creative way.

c)  Help clients search for leverage.

Clients should be helped to identify and work on problems, issues, concerns or opportunities that make a difference. Leverage includes three related activities.

First, the cost of the problem has to be considered in terms of the effort and time spent on it. Secondly, if clients, when telling stories, reveal a number of problems at the same time or if the problem is complex, then criteria are needed to determine which concern is to be dealt with first. Lastly, the problem, issue, and concerns, need to be clarified in terms of specific experiences, behaviour and affects (feelings, emotions).
2. **The Preferred Scenario**

   a) **Help clients develop a range of future possibilities.**

   If a client's state of affairs is problematic and unacceptable, then he/she needs to be helped to imagine, conceptualize, or picture, a new state of affairs, that is more acceptable. Ask future-oriented questions like:

   ‘What would this problem look like if I managed it better?’
   ‘What changes in my present life style would make sense?’
   ‘What would it look like if it were better?’

   Clients should be helped to find appropriate and realistic models. Another way could be to review better times or become involved in new experiences. The use of writing fantasy and guided imagery has also proved beneficial for many clients.

   b) **Help clients to translate possibilities into viable agendas.**

   The variety of possibilities constitutes the possible desired outcomes of the helping process. The client is helped to choose the possibilities that make the most sense, and turn them into an agenda, i.e. a set of goals that need to be accomplished.

   c) **Help clients identify the kinds of incentives that enable them to commit themselves to the agendas they prepare.**

   Ideally the agendas a client chooses are appealing. If not, then the incentives for commitment need to be discovered. The goals that are set in the agenda need to be accepted and appeal to the client. It is better if they are chosen from among a number of options. The focus should be on those that reduce crisis or pain.

   Challenging goals should not be avoided. The counsellor can help clients see ways of managing the obstacles that stand in the way of goal attainment. Contracts can help clients to commit themselves to choices, and the client needs to be helped to identify strategies for accomplishing goals.

3. **Strategies (Getting There)**

   a) **Help clients brainstorm various strategies for implementing their agenda.**

   Clients are helped to ask themselves questions like, ‘How can I get where I want to go?’ Strategies tend to be more effective when chosen from among a number of possibilities. A strategy is the action needed to achieve a goal.

   If the strategy is complex, then it needs to be divided into a number of interrelated outcomes or accomplishments. Each of these sub-goals then has its own set of strategies. This divide and conquer process can lead to the achievement of what once seemed impossible.
One reason why people fail to achieve goals is that they do not explore the different ways by which a goal can be reached. Brainstorming plays a role by suspending judgement, producing as many ideas as possible, using one idea leading to others, removing constraints to thinking, and producing more ideas by clarifying items on the list.

b) **Help clients choose a set of strategies that best fits their environment and resources.**

‘Best’ here means one strategy, or a combination of strategies, that best fits the clients' needs, preferences, and resources, and that is least likely to be blocked by the factors present in the client's environment. They should be clear and specific, tied to the desired goal, realistic, effective, accepted by the client, and in keeping with his or her values.

c) **Help clients formulate a plan, a step-by-step procedure for reaching each goal.**

A plan has strategies for reaching goals, divides them into workable bits, puts the bits in order, and prepares a time-table.

Formulating plans helps clients find useful ways of reaching goals, that is, even better strategies. Plans provide an opportunity to evaluate the realism and adequacy of goals. They tell clients something about their strategies. Clients are also helped to discover obstacles to the reaching of goals.

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**Summary**

People have provided help to one another from time immemorial. Much of this help has been in the form of giving advice or wisdom. In school, counselling helps boys and girls learn to deal with the problems they encounter in their daily lives and equips them to become adults.

Counselling aims to give students an opportunity to explore, discover, and clarify, ways of living that are more satisfying and resourceful.

People's concerns or difficulties are mainly social and personal. It is here that men and women, boys and girls, require counselling.
Key Terms

Advice
Wisdom
Gender
Counselling
Elder
Theory
Client
Empowerment
Behaviour change
HIV/AIDS

Evaluation

1. Discuss the role of advice in families and communities.
2. Identify areas where counselling must be provided for young boys and girls.
3. Discuss how traditional African ways of helping young boys and girls can still be used.
4. How can you assist the achievement of girls through the provision of guidance and counselling?
5. Explain what counselling is.
6. Explain the purpose of personal and social counselling.
7. Identify an institution in your area which may be providing ‘counselling’. Describe the counselling which it offers.
RATIONALE

How do counsellors counsel? What do they say, think, and do? And how do their actions influence the person counselled?

The ‘hows’ of counselling are many. Each approach is one (or more) helper's attempt to construct a set of procedures and methods based on a personality theory, or a set of hypotheses about human functioning, which is effective and different from earlier approaches.

Some major counselling/psychotherapy approaches have been selected for presentation in order to illustrate and explain the ‘hows’ of counselling.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

By the end of the unit, you should be able to:

• explain the different theories of counselling;
• describe how to translate theory into counselling practices;
• explain a list of theoretical terms and concepts routinely used in talking about counselling;
• form a personal theory of counselling.

CONTENT

This unit includes the following:

Topic 1. Client-Centred or Person-Centred Theory
Topic 2. Rational-Emotive Theory
Topic 3. Behavioural Counselling
The name of Carl Rogers is associated with client-centred counselling, for he was its founder and leader, having devoted his entire professional life to the practice, teaching, research, and refinement of the approach. It is still one of the most important approaches to counselling.

The core of the theory is that humans have an inherent self-actualizing tendency, a movement towards developing capacities in ways which serve to maintain and enhance the individual. By following this innate drive, people can meet their needs, develop a view of themselves, and interact in society in a beneficial way. This may not occur without distress or ‘growing pains’, but theoretically, if humans can be helped to follow their nature, they will move towards a state of relative happiness, contentment, and general psychological adjustment (Patterson, 1980).

Problems in the personality development process arise when significant people in our lives, (for example, parents, teachers, peers), place a condition of worth upon us, rather than accept us unconditionally. They value us only if we meet certain conditions and expectations. Because humans need the regard of others in order to have self-respect, we strive to meet the expectations of others, though this often requires us to suppress, or ignore, our self-actualizing tendency and the opportunity to accept and value ourselves unconditionally. A false self-image is created, based on meeting the conditions of worth, and we then distort and deny reality, in the quest to confirm our maladjustment.

The key to healthy personality development and self-generated rehabilitation of psychological problems, lies in the ‘necessary and sufficient conditions of personality change’ (Rogers, 1957). These conditions consist in the counsellor expressing, and the client perceiving, unconditional positive regard, empathetic understanding, and congruence, or honesty. When clients interact with counsellors who behave in this manner, they begin to share their experience; the self-actualization tendency is activated; they question and cast off conditions of worth, and move towards unconditional acceptance and respect.

**Case Example**

Jack is 27 years old and is employed as a carpenter. His wife, Karen, is a full-time homemaker with three youngsters to look after. When Jack and Karen were first married, they both had jobs, but for the last three years of their marriage Jack has provided the sole income. Rising inflation, increasing family expenses, and a wage that cannot be raised, have placed Jack and Karen in financial difficulties. Worse is the strain on their marriage that has arisen from their practical problems. These concerns are related by Jack in part of an initial interview with a professional counsellor.

**Excerpt from First Session**

Jack: The bills are just killing us. It seems, as the children get older, they need more and more. I don't know how other families do it!
Counsellor: Yes, it is hard to see how others make ends meet when your pay cheque doesn't go far enough.
Jack: I work harder than most people, and still there's not enough money to meet expenses. It just is not fair. And now Karen is pushing me to enter a partnership with my father. He is a small contractor here in the city, but I don't want to leave carpentry. It's my work!
Counsellor: You'd like to be a carpenter, but it just doesn't seem to pay enough, and now you feel as though you are being pushed into something you don't want.
Jack: Yes… but if I don't get a better paid job … (shakes head back and forth). I just don't know what to do.
Counsellor: …. It seems you can't win either way…
Jack: Yes (sigh).
Counsellor: How does Karen react to the situation? You did say she was pushing you towards the partnership…
Jack: Oh, she thinks the partnership would be a solution to all our problems, and my father wants it too.
Counsellor: So they both want you to do it … but … you'd have to give up something you love … a kind of work that is part of you.
Jack: I am one of the best carpenters around here. Lots of people say so!
Counsellor: And you don't want to lose that skill, something which you do so well.
Jack: Yes, and damn it, I shouldn't have to give it up. They don't understand!
Counsellor: Karen and your father don't understand how much carpentry means to you. Yet, you feel that they are pressuring you to give it up? Is that how it is?
Jack: Yes. My work, what I want to do, doesn't seem to matter.
Counsellor: How have they told you or shown you that they don't care about your interest in carpentry?
Jack: Well, I've been at the job for over five years. They ought to know by now how much I love it.
Counsellor: They ought to know, but do they? Have you talked this over with Karen?
Jack: She wouldn't understand, anyway!
Counsellor: You don't think she would understand your feelings.
Jack: I don't know, maybe … but I hate to cry on her shoulder!
Counsellor: That's what it would seem like to you?
Jack: And besides, I don't want to burden her.
Counsellor: If she knew how you feel, she'd be burdened?
Jack: Yes, she'd worry.
Counsellor: I think you're right. If she cares for you, she might be concerned about your unhappiness.

Jack's financial problems were not solved in the first counselling session. Indeed, the counsellor chose to respond more to Jack's feelings and attitudes than address his practical problems. Not surprisingly, after the first session, Jack expressed his feelings to Karen and a healthier line of communication was established. Jack related this experience to the counsellor in the second session, and another aspect of Jack's financial problems was revealed.
Application to the Case Example

Client-centred counselling attempts to enact Rogers' facilitative conditions. The counsellor genuinely accepts the person counselled, whatever his thoughts, feelings and behaviour. An unconditional respect is transmitted through the counsellor's words and non-verbal behaviour, and deep empathetic understanding is communicated through reflective responses.

In terms of skill or technique, the client-centred counsellor is a master at listening and reflecting on the intra-personal and experiential domain. On receiving such counselling, clients explore themselves and describe experiences, feelings and attitudes which they denied, and of which they became aware. A re-organization of the self takes place, and a more authentic person emerges, free of previous defences, disturbed emotions and disordered behaviour.

In the case example, an excerpt from the first counselling session demonstrated client-centred techniques. Most of the counsellor's responses were reflective, attempting to mirror feelings and meanings, and convey acceptance, respect and honesty. From this feedback, the client would gain self-awareness and self-acceptance, perhaps leading him to clarify the pressures and conflicts he felt, to realize that he had not talked over his concerns with Karen, and that she could not be expected to understand his innermost feelings unless he expressed them. It is also likely that the first session helped Jack accept his feelings, rather than feel guilt for not wanting to enter a partnership with his father.

Topic 2.
RATIONAL-EMOTIVE THEORY

Rational-emotive theory was developed by Albert Ellis, a clinical psychologist. Underlying the practice of rational-emotive theory and its applications to counselling, is a set of theoretical hypotheses about the emotional-behavioural functioning of humans and how it can be changed (Ellis, 1977). At the centre of these hypotheses is the concept that events do not force people to have emotional behavioural reactions. It is rather their interpretation or thoughts about events that precipitate emotion and behaviour. Therefore, the target for change in psychotherapy is those thoughts, attitudes, beliefs and meanings, that create emotional-behavioural disturbance.

Ellis theorizes that humans have the capacity to interpret reality in a clear, logical and objective fashion, and avoid unnecessary emotional-behavioural upsets, but also says that humans are predisposed to irrational interpretations. They are susceptible to crooked thinking, draw illogical conclusions which are not objective, and are cognitive distortions of reality.

An irrational interpretation of reality, such as the foregoing, usually has two or three standard characteristics (Ellis, 1979): (1) it demands something unrealistic of the world, other people, or yourself; (2) it exaggerates the awfulness of something you dislike; (3) it concludes that you cannot tolerate the thing you dislike; and (4) it condemns the world, other people, or yourself. These characteristics are expressed in specific irrational ideas and beliefs, such as the following:
1. I must be loved or approved by everyone I consider significant.

2. I must be thoroughly competent and adequate in everything I do. I should not be satisfied unless I am the best.

3. Some people are inherently and totally bad, wicked and evil. They should be severely blamed and punished.

4. There is something that is not to my liking, and it's awful! I can't stand it!

5. My happiness is caused by events and other people. One's fate determines one's happiness. I have little ability to control my sorrow and upsets.

6. There are dangers and calamities just around the corner, and I must constantly look out for them and stay on guard in case they happen.

7. There are difficulties and responsibilities that are best avoided, because it would require too much discomfort and effort to deal with them.

8. It's best to do what others want, let them have their way, so that I can depend and lean on them to help me out.

9. Because of the earlier influences in my life, I am what I am, and I will always be this way. I can't change.

10. There is a proper and perfect solution to all problems, and I must find it in order to be happy and solve my problems.

For example, an irrational interpretation occurs when (a) parents scold a child because of spilt milk; (b) the child concludes ‘I am a bad and inept person’ and consequently (c) feels threatened and hurt and withdraws from the scene.

**Case Example**

Use the same example of Jack after he has related his experiences with Karen to the counsellor in the second session.

**Excerpt from Second Session**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Counsellor:</th>
<th>Jack, it seems as if you and Karen had a really good talk about the situation. And she did understand!</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jack:</td>
<td>Yes, and we discussed a number of things we could do to improve our financial situation. We ruled out Karen going back to work, at least while the children are small. And we ruled out changing jobs. Karen wants me to stay with carpentry so long as it is what I want to do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counsellor:</td>
<td>Talking cleared the air then between the two of you.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jack:</td>
<td>Yes, but no easy solutions turned up. There was only one thing that made sense, but I want to think it over.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counsellor:</td>
<td>What was that?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Jack: Well, Karen thought maybe I could get a foreman's job with my father's company, you know, overseeing the inside carpentry work for his projects. It would probably pay better than my present job but … (sigh)

Counsellor: I hear hesitancy in your voice … as if you have reservations?

Jack: Well, Dad is bossy and a perfectionist, and I've never been able to please him. We've had conflicts.

Counsellor: And you've really tried to please him?

Jack: All my life!

Counsellor: And when you don't please him, you sometimes feel hurt? Later, maybe angry? (Jack nods.) Then a conflict boils up.

Jack: You've got it! Is this common? You sound as though you know about it.

Counsellor: Yes, it's not unusual to have conflicts with a parent. In your case the conflict seems to stop you from considering doing business with your father.

Jack: You know, if I could get along with Dad, it would be a terrific opportunity. And I think he would like to have me as a partner. But getting along with him … and presenting the partnership idea to him … I just don't know.

Counsellor: If you like, we could work out how to improve your interaction. And then you could decide if you want to pursue the idea with your father.

Jack: OK, but I am warning you, I really get mad at him.

Counsellor: Let's start right there. In what kind of situation do you get angry with him?

Jack: When I do something for him, or do something I'm proud of, and he makes a critical comment or doesn't have one good word to say.

Counsellor: And you think he should say thanks or be complimentary.

Jack: Well, at least a word or two!

Counsellor: Jack, why should he give you that word or two?

Jack: Because any father would do that…

Counsellor: … if he truly cared for his son? Is that how it seems?

Jack: (Silence, head nod, downcast eyes.)

Counsellor: So, when you look to your father for approval for work well done, and he doesn't give it, you say to yourself, 'He doesn't care for me. If he did he'd show it. He ought to pay me compliments…'

Jack: Something like that.

Counsellor: Jack, let's think that through. Does your father's lack of praise and his critical comments show conclusively that he has not, and never will, care for you?

Jack: No, but… it would be nice to have it sometimes.

Counsellor: Right. It would be nice, but is it a necessity? Must you have praise from Dad to feel OK about yourself, to know you've done a good job, and so on?

Jack: No, I guess not.

Counsellor: Why isn't it necessary? How will you know you are a worthwhile person and son, and that your work is of quality?

Jack: (Long silence) I guess… from other people… and… I can think for myself!

Counsellor: Let's try out some independent thinking… Suppose you are a foreman, and supervised and helped to complete the interior work on a house… and you did a good solid job. But
your father says to you, ‘Why didn't you do it differently here and there? It doesn't look like the work my previous foreman did.’ How would you ordinarily feel and act?

Jack: Usually I would be a little miffed. I'd feel like saying, ‘Do it yourself!’

Counsellor: You would feel angry and what thoughts would be behind that anger?

Jack: Uh… why doesn't he let me do my work?

Counsellor: Or perhaps, ‘He should accept me and my work without comment. He should appreciate a good job and since he doesn't, he's a louse of a father!’

Jack: (Laughing) Yes, that's close!

Counsellor: Those attitudes bring on anger and resentful behaviour, but what could you think to keep your cool, to feel only irritated?

Jack: Uh … ‘That's just the way Dad is, a crank.’ And… ‘I think it's a good job even if he doesn't.’

Counsellor: Right! Does this crankiness mean he dislikes you?

Jack: No, I guess he can care for me and still be cranky… as we said before… there's no rule that he should be complimentary, even though it would be nice.

Counsellor: How do you feel when thinking about these new attitudes?

Jack: A lot better, still a little peeved, but OK.

In this second excerpt, the counsellor and client have the goal of improving Jack's relationship with his father. Specifically, this means decreasing Jack's feelings of hurt and anger towards his father, thus freeing him to deal more effectively with the problem.

The counsellor's style has changed and is now more directive and confrontational. The Counsellor's responses force Jack to examine the thoughts and attitudes that underlie his anger and hurt. Other verbal leads ask Jack to examine logically his understanding and dispute what does not make sense. For example, father should give me approval. I am not worth while unless Dad says so.

In the last part, Jack is helped to establish more acceptable attitudes towards himself and his father. These new attitudes, and a lowering of emotional distress, prepare Jack to develop assertive behaviour when interacting with his father.

Application to the Case Example

The process of rational-emotive counselling passes through four stages (Grieger and Boyd, 1979), the first being an exploration of the client's emotive-behavioural difficulties, and an identification/diagnosis of those irrational interpretations that create problems. Next the counsellor helps the client to gain insight into his or her irrational ideas, and the ways in which they upset emotions and behaviour. The irrationalities are then challenged and restructured into more rational interpretations, and a re-education process is followed, so that clients use their rational thinking to adapt new life patterns of emotion and behaviour.
In the excerpt from session two in the foregoing example, the rational-emotive approach is evident. The counsellor targets Jack's demand for his father's approval, helps him see how he bases his own self-worth on his father's praise, and then encourages him to dispute (think through) his irrational ideas. The counsellor uses interpretative and confrontational techniques to foster insight and self-responsibility. Jack quickly lessens his anger and hurt by thinking more rationally and, with further counselling and work at home, he could make these changes permanent.

**Topic 3.**
**BEHAVIOURAL COUNSELLING**

A general definition of behavioural counselling is that it ‘consists of whatever ethical activities a counsellor undertakes in an effort to help the client engage in those types of behaviour which will lead to a resolution of the client's problems’ (Kouomboltz, 1965). This definition is perhaps too general to portray fully the character and colour of behavioural counselling, but it highlights two important facts: (1) there is no end to the variety of methods, used in behavioural counselling, and (2) the goals of counselling - to resolve the client's problems - can be stated in behavioural terms.

The methods and procedures of behavioural counselling are based on social-learning theories - theories about how people learn and change their behaviour. Forms of learning, such as operant conditioning, classical conditioning, modelling, and cognitive processes, are used to help persons counselled change unwanted behaviour, and/or develop new, productive behaviour.

Some methods and techniques of behavioural counselling can be grouped into these categories:

- Changing and controlling the antecedents of behaviour.
- Changing and controlling the reinforcement of behaviour.
- Using models to recognize unwanted behaviour and to learn desirable behaviour.
- Using imagery to extinguish and/or practice behaviour.
- Learning social skills.

**Stages of Behavioural Counselling**

1. The counsellor helps the clients to explore their concerns, and a behavioural analysis and assessment is conducted through questions and, perhaps, a questionnaire or survey instrument.
2. The two parties set mutually-acceptable goals, stated in behavioural terms.
3. Developing and implementing goal-oriented strategies on learning theory principles (i.e., any set of ethical procedures that helps clients to engage in behaviour that resolves their concerns).

4. Accountability, when client feedback indicates that the strategy was effective in promoting target behaviour and problem resolution.

**Case Example**

Use the same case example of Jack

**Excerpt from Third Session**

Jack: Our second session helped me see that I can handle a professional interaction with Dad, that I can control my anger, but it's not easy.

Counsellor: Yes, it's difficult to change attitudes and feelings that have been a part of you for so long. This kind of change takes time and a lot of work. Can you keep working at it?

Jack: Yes, I'll keep working at it. But - this may sound silly - I am still unsure about how to present this partnership idea, or what to say to him at those times when he is unfairly bossy.

Counsellor: You're not accustomed to doing that, so it's not surprising that you are unsure. Would it help us to develop some basic assertive methods to get you started?

Jack: Yes, just some things I could say, so I'm not lost for words.

Counsellor: After this session I'll recommend some reading that will give you a lot of assertive techniques but, for now, what is one situation we could work on?

Jack: Asking Dad about entering the business as a foreman.

Counsellor: OK, let's decide on what you want to say to him, and then we can practise through role-playing. (Later in the session.)

Counsellor: Jack, I'll play you and you play your father. So, here we go. ‘Dad, I've been doing some thinking about my future in carpentry, and I'd like to explore an idea with you.’

Jack: What kind of idea?

Counsellor: Well, I really enjoy interior carpentry, particularly finishing work, and I'd like to stay in it. But I'd also like more responsibility, such as a supervisor's job. I think I could handle a job like that…

Jack: Yes, yes, but what you really ought to do is go into building as an owner or partner. There is more future in that than being a supervisor.

Counsellor: I can see why you say that - builders make more money than supervisors, and I suppose there's financial security in owning your own business - but I'm too good at interior carpentry and I want to stay with it - at least for now. I just don't enjoy the management and paper work of a contractor.

Jack: But don't you see how much better off you'd be?

Counsellor: Financially better off but unhappy, and maybe not doing a good job. But I don't want to argue. What I want Dad, is to ask if your company has a supervisor's job I could apply for.
Jack: (Breaking the role-playing.) I'll never remember to say those things.

Counsellor: I wasn't outlining a speech for you, Jack, just expressing the motives and desires you've said you want to express. When we try role-playing again, why don't you play yourself and try a few assertive statements? Just be spontaneous, and gradually build up how to say what you want to say.

Jack: I see, I'm just not in the habit of saying what I want or how I see things. I need to work on this.

For the rest of this third counselling session, Jack continued to learn and practise some assertive techniques - the behaviour of standing up for his rights, expressing his desires, stating differences of opinion, making requests, resolving conflicts, and so on. As this new behaviour was developed, Jack also assessed his attitudes and emotions, working through obstacles to assertion. With readings in assertive techniques, practice, and effective counselling, Jack could reach his goal of improving the interaction with his father, and securing a financially desirable job.

Application to the Case Example

The excerpt from session three of the example is behavioural counselling. Jack wanted to improve his communication with his father. He wanted to express himself assuredly and not be ‘lost for words.’ His behavioural goal was to ask his father for the type of job he wanted.

The strategy for reaching this goal was assertion training - that is, learning to communicate assertively with his father. Role-playing was the primary training method because it contains multiple means of learning. The person counselled can play the father's role and gain empathy for his position. He can observe and model the counsellor's assertion techniques, criticize the role-playing and make it realistic, perform assertive techniques in a life-like situation, receive constructive feedback and reinforcement from the counsellor, and practise assertive behaviour until it is proficient and comfortable.

Activity 2.1: Theories of Counselling

1. Which counsellor sounded like the type of counsellor you want to be? Why? What did you value in that counsellor's performance?
2. Which counsellor would you choose to help you with a problem? What is there in that approach that you want when you have a problem?
3. What was the ‘real concern’ of the person counselled?
4. What was the outcome of each approach? Which one was most effective?
5. How would an RET or behavioural counsellor have handled the first session
Summary

Though similar to helpful conversation and psychotherapy, counselling has its own identity. It helps individuals with developmental, career, and personal adjustment problems, and where there are no problems, counselling can foster healthy human development by increasing self-awareness and resourcefulness.

How is counselling done? Through many different approaches, methods and techniques. The three approaches reviewed focused on the affective domain (client-centred), the cognitive or ideational realm (RET), and the behaviour (the behavioural approach) of the person counselled.

There are numerous other approaches and methods that influence these three realms of human functioning, and aspiring counsellors have many to choose from. Ultimately, one's ‘how’ in counselling consists of a unique and idiosyncratic manner of helping others, combined with the skill and knowledge acquired from approaches such as the three reviewed.

Key Terms

- Theory
- Person counselled
- Personality
- Therapy
- Self-actualization
- Innate
- Irrational
- Cognitive domain
- Affective domain
- Ethics
RATIONALE

Many children do not respond to talking in counselling sessions for a variety of reasons. In Africa, children are expected to be submissive to authority. Girls and boys may not have been encouraged to express their feelings, or lack the experience of having an adult who listens to them. They may, therefore, react with suspicion or resistance to a teacher who is a counsellor. Consequently, children require structured or action-oriented approaches to facilitate counselling.

Effective counselling practice is highly dependent on the skills and techniques of the teacher. Though people can learn by reading, writing and talking about counselling, if they are to become competent counsellors, they have to learn by doing it. Trainees also need to develop their skills in practical groups, prior to being given responsibility for their own students.

It is in the light of this that unit three has been written.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

By the end of the unit, you should be able to:

• describe the various counselling techniques;
• apply the counselling techniques by demonstrating them in an interview.

CONTENT

This unit includes the following:

Topic 1. Skills Needed in Counselling
Several skills need to be brought into a one-to-one counselling session. These include:

1. attitudinal skills;
2. listening skills;
3. verbal communication skills; and
4. giving leads.

1. **Attitudes**

   There is probably nothing which has a greater impact on the outcome of a counselling session than the helper’s attitude. Attitudes can be positive or reactive. Attitudes are included in this unit on skills because good attitudes can be learned and practised. They include the following:

   a) respect
   b) guidance/congruence
   c) unconditional positive regard
   d) empathy
   e) self-disclosure
   f) confrontation

   a) **Respect**

   It is one of the most important human attitudes required. It normally begins with respecting one’s self, so that others respect you in turn. It is having good intentions and warm regard for students. Respect the students and avoid imposing your values on them. Avoid judgment.

   Many times, respect demands praising the individuality of each student, supporting each one’s search for him/herself, and structuring the counselling to the needs, capacities and resources of the individual student. The teacher needs to ensure that the student accepts the problem and the solution as his/her own.
Activity 3.1: Respect

Study the following teacher responses and decide who is more respectful.

Student: There are a lot of things that greatly affect my daily studies, but I find it hard to talk about them.

Teacher A: O.K, you mentioned something earlier related to your relationship with your boyfriend. What kind of trouble does it create, and how did it start?

Teacher B: Well, let's talk for a moment. I feel that if I ask a lot of questions, I will get a lot of important information that you might think is important. But I am not convinced that it would be important for you. I think you find it painful to begin.

b) Genuineness/Congruence

Genuineness is at times referred to as congruence. It is the consistency or harmony between what you say, and what you are, as a teacher. This condition reflects honesty, transparency, and trust. This element is basic to a counselling relationship. Once it is established, open communication, warmth and respect for the client gradually develop.

c) Unconditional Positive Regard (Warmth)

You may have experienced situations where a student approached you with a concern, and you blamed the student, or acted as if the student bothered you. These are negative attitudes which are ineffective in counselling.

Unconditional, positive regard makes students feel welcomed and valued as individuals. An example to illustrate this warmth is the following:

‘Hello, Jane. Can I help you?’

Not
‘I am sorry, I am very busy. I prefer you to be very brief.’
‘Hello. Can I help you? I am sorry I am very busy and prefer that you be brief.’
d) **Empathy**

Empathy is your ability, as a teacher, to understand what your students experience, and communicate this kind of feeling. Carl Rogers (1980), defined it as perceiving the internal frame of reference of another person. Gerald Egan (1990), explains it as entering the private perceptual world of the client, and being sensitive to his/her feelings, whether good or bad.

As a teacher, you need to be empathetic. You need to be responsive to both the content and the feelings expressed by students. This attitude helps you to assess students' concerns and understand them better.

### Activity 3.2: Empathy

Read the conversation below between a student and a teacher at the Shimoni Teachers' College in Uganda.

Student: And so here I am, three months pregnant. I did not want to be pregnant. I am not married. I do not even love my boyfriend. To tell the truth, it happened by accident. Oh! Jesus, I do not know what to do. I think I am dreaming, but it is real that I am pregnant.

Teacher: You think that is impossible to believe.

Student: I am stupid for getting myself into this mess.

Teacher: You are angry with yourself because of the mess you are now in.

Now answer the following questions:

1. Discuss in groups the words used that illustrate empathy.
2. Role-play in small groups a conversation which illustrates empathy.

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e) **Self-Disclosure**

Self-disclosure helps your student to communicate easily. It is one of the attitudes that helps your student to reveal something about him/herself. It helps to create mutual trust, and disarm the student, so that he/she feels free and talks openly.

This is equally important for both parties in the counselling session. It promotes a relationship through increased communication and better understanding of the student. It also helps the student to understand him/herself better, and help him/her get rid of the burden of guilt.
This is a first step in behavioural change. Opening with self-disclosure helps the student to talk about his/her problems more concretely and realistically, and allows him/her to act accordingly. Disclose only what is necessary.

\textbf{f) Confrontation}

This is when you use your student's behaviour, or words, to point out inconsistencies between what is said and what is done. When handling a response, confrontation, or challenging attitudes, is a healthy development in counselling. For example, a student may say he/she hates a particular teacher and, in another instance, may say that he/she likes her. This is inconsistent.

You could draw the attention of such a student to such inconsistency by saying, ‘You said that you did not like the teacher. Now you are saying that you like her. What exactly do you mean?’ Remember to bring this out in a ‘feeling’ and not in a threatening way. You will, in this way, initiate action in your student.

\textbf{2. Listening}

Effective listening is more complicated than it seems, since it involves a teacher's own level of self-awareness, as well as his/her awareness of the spoken and unspoken cues of the other person. Furthermore, a teacher needs to be able to respond to the student in such a way that he/she feels understood. Being a good listener entails receiving and sending appropriate messages. In counselling this is important, because it means meeting the needs of the students.

Listening to students is not just a matter of receiving what they say, but also receiving how they say it. Sometimes how they communicate is much more revealing that what they actually say, which may be more concealing than revealing.

Listening skills are basic to all human interaction, whether the purpose is for getting information, conducting in-depth interviews, or offering informal help. Listening is considered to be the most important counselling skill.

\textbf{3. Verbal Communication}

The use of words in counselling is a skill which, like any other skill, requires practice to master. Verbal communication takes place first in the literal or content phase. If inappropriate vocabulary is used, rapport and understanding will be hindered. When this happens, miscommunication occurs. Even common words can be misunderstood due to the multiple meanings they carry. Look up any common English word in an unabridged dictionary, and you will find several different definitions of this word. So the potential for miscommunication is great.
In addition to the literal phase of verbal communication, there is also the emotional phase. This refers to other attributes involved in vocal interactions, such as volume, the emotional edge, and other non-verbal cues such as gestures. Picture a student saying, ‘I don't care’ while angry, or while indifferently walking away from you, or while weeping with his head in his hands. Although the words are the same, the message conveyed is vastly different. As helpers, we must be sensitive to both the literal and emotional phases of verbal communication.

In addition to the two general phases of communication that we have just discussed, there are five more levels of communication. Each of these levels is valuable in different contexts. The five levels of communication are:

a) cliches;
b) facts;
c) beliefs;
d) emotions; and
e) intimacy.

a) Cliches

This is a French word which has been adopted by English speakers to mean a trite, well-worn phase. A universal example is the greeting, ‘How are you?’ ‘I'm fine. How are you?’

In some African languages, a formal greeting may take ten minutes and yet nothing new is communicated. Everybody is always good or fine, because that is the pattern the greeting takes. This is communication at the most superficial level, but an important social obligation is met.

b) Facts

Facts are pieces of information that we pass on to others. They include comments on current events like, ‘The morning news mentioned that the President is coming to town tomorrow,’ or making conversation on the weather e.g., ‘Those clouds look as if they could bring rain this afternoon.’

The communication of facts may transmit valuable information from one to another, but little interaction takes place.

c) Beliefs

Beliefs include any part of an individual's value system. They may communicate insights and choices, or facts which are value-laden. The sharing of one's person begins at this level, and the risk of rejection increases. The sharing of beliefs may include subjects which are considered ‘forbidden’ in some cultures, such as sex, politics, or religion.
d) Emotions

Emotions include communicating personal feelings. ‘I am thrilled that I was invited to the party’, or ‘That teacher is rude, he annoys me’. Communication at this level is difficult for most men and women. It requires a great deal of vulnerability to share feelings with someone else, and more so when feelings about another are shared.

This is the optimum level for counselling to take place. If the student talks to the teacher at an emotional level, and the teacher responds at the level of facts or beliefs, counselling may be derailed. A miscommunication may occur.

Guidance may take place at the facts or beliefs level, but effective counselling rarely does.

e) Intimacy

Although sometimes used as a euphemism for sexual intercourse, intimacy is more accurately defined as the intercourse of the soul. At this level, the self becomes united to another person. This is a level of communication that many individuals never experience. Indeed there is some debate as to whether such a level is even desirable, since the self may be compromised.

In counselling, this is an inappropriate level, since it may encourage the dependency of the student on the helping teacher and thereby inhibit the student's personal growth.

Summary

Each of these levels of verbal communication is valuable in an appropriate context. When riding in a taxi, it is inappropriate to share emotions with the stranger beside you, while a cliché would be appropriate. Likewise, for a husband and wife to communicate only clichés or facts would be inappropriate, since by nature the marriage relationship is emotional and intimate.

As helpers, we need to be willing to communicate appropriately at the emotional level for the good of the students, even though that proves uncomfortable. This helps the students to divulge their own feelings and get the help that they really need.
4. Leads

Leads may be defined as statements that counsellors use in communication with the clients. Leads have been classified into categories of techniques, namely:

a) Restatement of Content
   Attempts to convey understanding by repeating or rephrasing the communication.

b) Questioning
   Seeks further information and asks the person counselled to elaborate a point.

c) Reflection of Feeling
   Understanding from the client's point of view and communicating that understanding.

d) Reassurance
   Serves as a reward or reinforcing agent. It is often used to support the client's exploration of ideas and feelings or test different behaviour.

e) Interpretation
   Explains meaning behind the client's statements.

Example

Below is a statement by a client immediately after seating herself in the counsellor's office. The counsellor had not met the student before. Different leads or counsellor responses are given and classified.

‘Miss Musonda told me to come down here to talk to you. I don't know why. She said I couldn't go back to class until I have learnt to stay awake. I work at a restaurant until one o'clock every morning in a part-time job, and I am tired. Anyway, who could stay awake in there? She bores you to death!’

Among some of the responses the counsellor could make are the following:

1. ‘You were bored and fell asleep, and Miss Musonda asked you to leave the class.’
   restatement of content = understanding

2. ‘What does she do that you find boring?’
   questioning = investigating

3. ‘You feel put off.’
   reflection of feeling = understanding
4. ‘I am sure that something can be worked out between you and Miss Musonda in this situation.’
   
   reassurance = supporting

5. ‘Do you think that you might be disowning responsibility for what has happened?’
   
   interpretation = interpreting

---

**Activity 3.3: Leads**

Break into groups and role play a counselling situation which uses leads.
RATIONAL

This kind of counselling is found amongst people with similar problems, who meet together without the assistance of a professional leader. A professional leader may, in some cases, be called in to help the group get started, either by taking a pro-active role within their organization, or because people within the group seek guidance about where to meet and how to proceed.

Another reason for peer counselling is that people who participate in it appreciate the experience of talking to others, who ‘know what it feels like’ to have a drink, or a sexual, or financial problem.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

By the end of the unit, you should be able to:

- describe the various group counselling populations;
- discuss the purposes of the group;
- demonstrate the skill of forming a group;
- discuss the stages of the group process.

CONTENT

This unit includes the following:

- Topic 1. Group Counselling Population
- Topic 2. Purposes of Groups
- Topic 3. Forming a Group
- Topic 4. Stages of the Group Process
Topic 1.
GROUP COUNSELLING POPULATION

Groups offer particular advantages for working with a variety of people, for groups can be
designed to meet the needs of children, adolescents, young adults, middle-aged persons and the
elderly.

1. Children

In the school setting, group counselling is often suggested for children who display
behaviour problems, such as excessive fighting, chronic tiredness, violent outbursts, extreme
withdrawal, inability to get along with peers, and a neglect of appearance.

In small groups, children have the opportunity to express their feelings about a wide range
of personal problems. Children frequently experience learning difficulties in school as a result of
inner turmoil. Some of these children suffer from anxiety over broken homes and disturbed
family relationships. If the group is structured properly, these children can receive psychological
assistance at an early age, and will stand a better chance of dealing effectively with the tasks they
face later in life.

2. Adolescents

For most people, adolescence is a difficult period. It is characterized by paradoxes. Adolescents strive for closeness, and yet fear intimacy and often avoid it. They rebel against
control, and yet want direction and structure. While they push and test the limits imposed on
them, they see limits as a sign of caring. They are not treated as mature adults, and yet are
expected to act as though they had gained complete autonomy. They are typically self-centred and
pre-occupied with their own worlds, and yet are expected to deal with social demands and expand
their horizons. They are asked to face and accept reality and, at the same time, many avenues of
escape are available in the form of drugs and alcohol.

With adolescence come some of these conflicts: dependence/independence struggles, acceptance/rejection conflicts, identity crises, the search for security, pressure to conform, and the
need for approval. Because of the stresses of the adolescent period, these years can be lonely, and
it is not unusual for an adolescent to feel that there is no-one who can help.

Group counselling can be useful in dealing with these feelings of isolation, because it gives
adolescents the means to express conflicting feelings, explore self-doubts, and realize that they
share these concerns with their peers.
A group allows adolescents to question openly their values, and talk freely about their deepest concerns. In the group, adolescents can learn to communicate with their peers, benefit from the modelling provided by the leader, and can safely experiment with reality and test their limits.

A unique value of a group is that it offers adolescents a chance to be instrumental for one another's growth and change. Because of the opportunities for interaction in groups, the members can express their concerns and be genuinely heard, and they can help one another gain increased self-acceptance.

3. Adults

A wide variety of special interest groups can be developed for adults of all ages. For example, groups can be formed for couples, single parents, parents who want to explore problems they have relating to their children, middle-aged people who return to college or change careers, and adults who want to explore developmental concerns, such as the search for identity.

On college campuses, groups have become increasingly popular as a way of meeting the diverse needs of students, who range from young adults to the elderly. Such groups can be created for relatively healthy students who experience a developmental crisis, or students who want to talk openly with others about their concerns. The purpose of these groups is to offer participants an opportunity to explore ways of changing certain aspects of their lives.

In group situations, college students of all ages deal with several different issues. They may include issues regarding career decisions, male/female relationships, the need for, and fear of, love, sex-role identity issues, educational plans, the meaning of life, challenging one's value system, and the meaning of work. There are also issues regarding feelings of loneliness and isolation, learning to form intimate relationships, exploring marital conflicts, and other concerns related to becoming a self-directed adult.

4. The Elderly

As people grow up, they face feelings of isolation, and may struggle with the problem of finding a meaning to life. Some of these older persons may resign themselves to a useless life, for they see little in their future. Like adolescents, the elderly often feel unproductive, unneeded, and unwanted by society. Another problem is that many older people have uncritically accepted myths about ageing.

Themes that are more common to the elderly than other age groups, include loneliness, social isolation, losses, poverty, feelings of rejection, the struggle to find a meaning to life, dependency, and feelings of uselessness, hopelessness and despair. There are also fears of death and dying, grief over another's death, sadness over physical and mental deterioration, depression, and regrets over past events.
Older people have a need to be listened to, and understood. Respect is shown by accepting them. Acceptance can be through listening to their messages, and by not patronizing them. These individuals need support and encouragement, and the chance to talk openly about what they feel, and about the topics which concern them.

A counselling group can do a lot to help the elderly challenge the myths they may have that limit their lives. It can also help them to deal with the developmental tasks that they face. Like any other age-group, they must be able to face them in such a way that they retain their self-respect. Groups can assist the elderly to break out of their isolation, and encourage them to find a new meaning in life.

**Topic 2.**

**PURPOSES OF GROUPS**

The following are the goals and purposes of groups:

- To grow in self-acceptance and learn not to demand perfection.
- To learn how to trust oneself and others.
- To foster self-knowledge and the development of a unique self-identity.
- To lessen fears of intimacy, and learn to reach out to those one would like to be closer to.
- To move away from meeting other's expectations, and decide for oneself the standards by which to live.
- To increase self-awareness, and increase the possibilities for choosing and acting.
- To become aware of choices and to make choices wisely.
- To become more sensitive to the needs and feelings of others.
- To clarify values and decide whether, and how, to modify them.
- To find ways of understanding, and resolving, personal problems.
Topic 3.
FORMING A GROUP

Where to Begin: Formation of the Group

In forming a group, the place to start is by clarifying the rationale for it. It is well worth devoting considerable time to planning, for if planning is done poorly, and if members are not carefully selected and prepared, groups can flounder.

Announcing a Group and Recruiting Members

If you are successful in having a proposal accepted, the next step is to find a practical way of announcing it to prospective participants. How a group is announced influences the way it will be received by potential members, as well as the kinds of people who will join the group. Personal contact with potential members is one of the best methods of recruiting members. The leader can, through personal contact, enthusiastically demonstrate that the group has potential value for someone.

Screening and Selecting Members

The group leader conducts a pre-group interview with each prospective member for the purposes of screening and orientation. He then selects group members whose needs and goals are compatible with the established goals of the group, who will not impede the group process, and whose well-being will not be jeopardized by the group experience.

Some questions that can be productively explored in a half-hour interview with each candidate are these:

- Why does this person want to join the group?
- How ready is the person to become actively involved in the process of self-examination that will be part of the group?
- Does the candidate have a clear idea about the nature and purpose of the group? Does he, or she, have a view of what is expected?
- Are there any indications that the person might be counter-productive to the development of cohesion in the group? Might this group be counter-productive to the person?
Some Practical Considerations in Group Formation

In selecting members for a given group, there are some basic factors to keep in mind.

1. How large should the group be?
   The ideal size of a group depends on the age of the members, your experience as a leader, the type and purpose of a group, and whether you have a co-leader. For instance, a group with elementary school children might be kept to four or five members, while a group of adolescents might have eight to ten. The group should be big enough to give ample opportunity for interaction, and small enough for everyone to feel involved in the group.

2. How often should a group meet, and for how long?
   With children and adolescents, frequent short meetings may suit their attention span better. If the group is taking place in a school setting, the meeting times can correspond to regularly scheduled class periods. For a group of well functioning adults, a two-hour weekly session might be preferable. The frequency and duration of a meeting should suit your style of leadership and the type of people in the group.

3. Where should the group meet?
   Physical arrangements and setting contribute to, or detract from, the climate of a group. Privacy and freedom from distractions are essential. Group leaders sometimes think that meeting outdoors is a good way to promote informality, but generally such a setting lacks privacy and is a source of distractions.

4. Will membership be voluntary or involuntary?
   Although it is ideal to have a group composed only of those who want to be part of the group, some groups consist of clients who are required to attend. Attending a group because one has been ordered to go by someone else greatly curtails the chances of success.

   The key to successful participation lies in carefully orienting members, and preparing them for being a part of the group, as well as in the leader's belief that the group process has something to offer to prospective members.

5. Should the group be open or closed?
   An open group is one characterized by changing membership, while a closed group adds no new members during the lifetime of the group. Closed groups have some distinct advantages, as trust can be developed and work accomplished. If membership changes from week to week, as in some open groups, productive work as a group may be difficult to achieve.
Conducting a Pre-Group Session

Once the members have been screened, and the group formed, it is useful to conduct a preliminary or pre-group session with all the members selected. The pre-group meeting can be an extension of the individual screening process, for it is an ideal way to present basic information, help members get to know one another, and help them decide whether to commit themselves to the group or not.

Depending on the nature of the group, certain ground rules will have to be established early on. For example, the following ground rules could be presented to most types of groups at the preliminary session, in the form of a written contract that members can sign.

- Members are not to use drugs during the session, and are not to come to a session under the influence of drugs, or alcohol.
- Members are expected to come to the sessions on time, and be present at all the meetings, since absences affect the entire group.
- Members must avoid sexual involvement with others in the group throughout its duration.
- Members may not smoke during the group sessions.
- Members must maintain the confidences of others in the group.
- Members are not to use physical violence in group sessions, nor are they to be physically or verbally abusive of others in the group.
- Members will be given a list of their rights and responsibilities, so that they know what is expected of them before they join the group.
- For groups of children or adolescents, written consent must be given by parents or guardians.
- If members decide to leave the group, they are expected to bring this up for discussion with the group before they go. Abrupt departures can be detrimental to the member leaving as well as to the others.
STAGES OF THE GROUP PROCESS

Stage 1: Characteristics of the Initial Stage

During the early stages, the central process involves orientation and exploration. At this time, members get acquainted, learn how the group functions, develop spoken and unspoken norms that govern in-group behaviour, discuss fears and hopes pertaining to the group, clarify their expectations, identify personal goals, and determine how safe this group is for them.

Whether or not members actually verbalize some of their thoughts and feelings, questions that are a part of their awareness early in the group's history include the following:

• Will I be accepted or rejected?
• Can I really say what I feel, or do I have to say what I think others expect?
• Am I like the others in this group?
• Will I really get anything from this group?
• Will I be pressured to perform and meet the expectations of others? If so, will I handle this pressure?
• What kind of risks will I take here?
• Who can I trust? Is there anyone I do not trust?
• Can I reveal the sides of myself that I generally keep hidden?
• What if I discover aspects of myself that I do not like?

Ways of Creating Trust in the Initial Stage

There is not a single technique, or set of techniques, that creates trust. You can be your most important technique in fostering trust.

• The person that you are, the attitudes and the way you behave, may be the most crucial factors in building trust. Teach through example.
• Trust and have faith in the members' capacity to make significant changes in themselves.
• Listen non-defensively and respectfully.
• Be genuine and willing to engage in appropriate disclosure.
• Accept others for who they are.
• Avoid imposing your values on others.

One of the best ways of creating a trusting climate is for the leader to encourage members to express openly any feelings of mistrust, or absence of trust, they might have. If work is to
proceed, mistrust must first be recognized, and then dealt with in the group. If it is not, a hidden agenda develops, the lack of trust is expressed in indirect ways, and the group ceases to progress.

**Helping Members Define Goals**

As a group leader, one of your tasks at the initial stage is to help members establish their own goals. Some members typically come to the group with unclear and abstract goals, e.g., ‘I just want to be able to communicate with others,’ or ‘I hope I can get in touch with my feelings.’ These vague ideas need to be translated into specific and concrete goals. Narrow down some statements, e.g., ‘I would like to learn to express my feelings.’ The leader might ask, ‘What are some particular feelings that you have the most difficulty in expressing? With whom do you experience problems in expressing feelings? What are the situations in which you find it most difficult to express a certain feeling? How would you like to be different?’

Developing contracts, both orally and in writing, can help members develop concrete goals that guide their participation in the group. This need not be done in one meeting, and it might well take several sessions to develop realistic contracts for all members.

**Major Member Functions and Possible Problems**

Some of the functions of the members are the following:

- Taking active steps to create a trusting climate in the group.
- Learning to express one's feelings and thoughts, especially with regard to in-group reactions.
- Being willing to express fears, hopes, expectations, reservations and personal concerns regarding the group.
- Being willing to make oneself known to others in the group.
- Being a part of the creation of group norms.
- Establishing specific and personal goals that govern group participation.
- Learning the basics of the group process, especially how to involve oneself in the interactions in the group.
- Recognizing and expressing any negative reactions, and learning to pay attention to one's own resistance.

These are problems that can arise with members:

- They might wait passively for ‘something to happen.’
- They might keep feelings of mistrust or fears regarding the group to themselves, and thus entrench their own resistance.
- They might choose to keep themselves hidden and reveal only parts of themselves.
• There is the danger of slipping into a problem-solving and advice-giving stance with other members.
• They may be content to put up with superficial interactions.

**Major Leader Functions**

The major tasks of group leadership during the initial stage of a group are these:

• Teaching participants some general guidelines that increase their chances of having a productive group, and continuing to teach them ways of participating actively.
• Developing ground rules and norms, and helping members see how these are related to an effective group.
• Assisting members to express their fears and expectations, and working towards the development of trust.
• Modelling basic conditions such as genuineness, respect, attentiveness, concern, acceptance, active-listening, support, and caring confrontation (or challenge).
• Being open with members, and being psychologically present for them.
• Clarifying the division of responsibility.
• Assisting members to establish concrete and meaningful goals.
• Helping members see how they might practise what they learned in the group, in and out of group situations.
• Dealing openly with members' concerns and questions.
• Providing a structure that neither increases member dependence nor promotes excessive floundering
• Assisting members to share what they are thinking and feeling regarding what occurs within the group.
• Helping members learn basic interpersonal skills, such as listening and responding non-defensively.
• Assessing the needs of the group, and meeting them.
Stage 2: The Transition Stage

Characteristics of the Transition Stage

Some groups remain stuck at the transition stage, because resistance is by-passed or conflict is ignored or passed over. At this point in the evolution of a group, feelings of anxiety and resistance to this anxiety are common, and members often are:

- Experiencing anxiety over what they think of themselves if they open up, as well as concerned at other's acceptance or rejection.
- Testing the leader and other members, to determine how safe the environment is.
- Struggling with wanting to play safe, or risk going beyond safety and becoming involved.
- Experiencing a struggle for control and power. Conflict among members, and between members and leaders, is common.
- Being challenged with learning how to work through conflict and confrontation.
- Being reluctant to become fully involved in working on personal concerns, because they are not sure that others will care.

Anxiety

Anxiety grows out of a fear of letting others see us on a level beyond the public image. Anxiety also results from a fear of being judged and misunderstood, from a need for more structure, and from a lack of clarity about goals, norms and expected behaviour in the group. As participants come to trust the other members and the leader more, they become increasingly able to share, and this openness reduces their anxiety about letting others see them as they are.

Common Fears Associated with Resistance

If fears are kept inside, then all sorts of avoidance occur. Although group leaders cannot pry, and force members to discuss fears that could inhibit their participation, leaders can invite members sensitively to recognize these fears. Fears often include the fear of making a fool of oneself, the fear of rejection, the fear of hanging, the fear that one will not like what is discovered, the fear of self-disclosure, the fear of being attacked and being left without defences, and the fear of becoming intimate with others.

It is important that the group leader understands, and appreciates, the anxiety and resistance of members. Resistance must be respected, for it is to be expected that members have doubts, reservations, and fears. The central task of the leader at this time is to help the members recognize, and deal with, their resistance and defences against anxiety.

Learning to Recognize and Deal with Conflict
The transition stage is characterized by conflict, and the expression of negative feelings. Members challenge other members and the leader. Some statements that indicate inter-member conflicts are, ‘Why do we focus so much on the negative in this group?’ ‘I don't belong here because my problems aren't as great as most of the others in here.’ ‘Some people in here sound as if they are all together.’ ‘I feel threatened by Sally.’

Conflicts with leaders are not uncommon at the transition stage, for a key task of members is to learn how to challenge the leader in a direct and constructive manner. This can be a sign that the members are moving towards greater independence. The way the leader handles this challenge is crucial to the future of a group. If leaders are excessively defensive, and refuse to accept criticism, they inhibit the members from confronting each other in a constructive manner, thus impairing the level of trust within the group.

At this stage of the group's development, the leader's major function is to help members move from conflict to a level of relating openly to one another. Some other tasks are:

- teaching members the value of recognizing, and dealing with, conflict;
- teaching them to respect, and work with, their resistance;
- providing a model for members by dealing directly with any challenges they receive; and
- encouraging members to express their reactions to what is happening within the group.

Stage 3: The Working Stage

During the initial stage, the group is characterized by tentativeness, for the members are finding out what the group is about and their place in it. During the transition period, there is an expression of feelings regarding interactions within the group, as well as individual personal problems. The working stage is characterized by the commitment of members to explore significant problems they bring to the sessions.

One of the main characteristics of the working stage is that participants have learned how to involve themselves in group interaction, rather than wait to be invited to interact. In a sense, there is a sharing of group leadership functions, for the members are able to assume greater responsibility for the work that is done in the group.

A central characteristic of the working stage is group cohesion, which results when members are willing to become transparent with one another. Some indications of the level of cohesiveness (or ‘togetherness’) in a group, are the extent of co-operation among group members, the degree of initiative shown by the participants, attendance rates, punctuality, the level of trust shown, and the degree of support, encouragement, and caring that members demonstrate in their interaction.
How does group cohesion come about? Group cohesion and authentic positive feelings within a group occur after negative feelings are recognized and expressed, for expressing negative feelings is one way of testing the freedom and trustworthiness of the group. Participants soon discover whether this group is a safe place to disagree openly, and whether they are still accepted in spite of their negative feelings.

Cohesion occurs when participants open up and take risks by making themselves known. Cohesion, which is a process of bonding, and genuine trust, are things that the group earns by a commitment to be honest. At this stage the members are able to see common problems, and are struck by the universality of the issues.

For example, it becomes apparent that there are common human themes that members can relate to personally, regardless of age, social/cultural background, and line of work. Although in the earlier stages members are likely to be aware of their differences, and at times feel separated, these differences recede into the background as the group achieves increased cohesion. Members comment more on how they are alike rather than how they differ. Some factors that indicate that the group came together for a common purpose, and that its members are engaged in productive and meaningful work, are as follows:

- Communication within the group is open and involves an accurate expression of what is being experienced.
- Leadership functions do not rest solely with the group leader, for now the members interact freely and directly, and they initiate the direction they want to go, rather than rely on the leader for direction.
- There is a willingness to risk dealing with threatening material, and make oneself known in significant ways, and members bring personal topics to the group for discussion.
- When conflict is present, it is recognized and dealt with directly and effectively, and hence hidden agendas and indirect expressions of hostility do not become prominent.
- Feedback is given freely, and is received in a non-defensive manner.
- Confrontation occurs without members making judgements on others.
- Members are willing to work and practise outside the group to achieve behavioural change.
- Participants are willing to risk new behaviour, for they feel supported in their attempts to change.
- Members are willing to offer both challenges and support to others, and they engage in self-confrontation.
- Participants continually assess their level of satisfaction with the group, and they take active steps to change matters if they see that the sessions need changing.
- Members feel hopeful that they can change if they are willing to take action, and they do not feel hopeless.
Stage 4: The Final Stage

During the final stage a number of characteristics can be expected, all of which are associated with the successful accomplishment of the difficult process of consolidation and termination. These include the possibility of sadness, and anxiety over the reality of separation, a tendency of members to pull back and participate in less intense ways in anticipation of the ending of the group, a concern over one's ability to be able to implement in daily life what one learned in the group, and decisions about what courses of action to take, and the development of action programmes. And there may be talk of follow-up meetings or a plan for accountability, so that members are encouraged to carry out their plans to change.

The final stages of group evolution are vital, for during this time members have an opportunity to clarify the meaning of their experiences in the group, consolidate the gains they have made, and revise their decisions about what newly-acquired behaviour they want to transfer to everyday life.

As group members sense that their group is approaching its end, there is a danger that they will begin to distance themselves from the group experience, and fail to examine closely the ways in which their in-group learning might affect their out-of-group behaviour.

Other problems that occur at this time include the tendency for some members to avoid reviewing their experience, and failing to put it into some cognitive framework, thus limiting the generalization of what they have learned to their everyday existence. Furthermore, members might consider the group an end in itself rather than a laboratory for interpersonal learning. For these reasons, group leaders must learn to help participants put into a meaningful perspective what has occurred in the group.

Some specific functions of group leadership, and some tasks that need to be accomplished during the final stage, are as follows:

- Members can be encouraged to face the inevitable ending of the group, and discuss fully their feelings of separation.
- Members can complete any unfinished business they have with other members or leaders.
- Members can be taught how to leave the group, and how to carry with them what they have learned.
- Members can be assisted to make specific plans for change, and take concrete steps to put into effect in their daily lives, the lessons they have learned.
- Leaders can help members develop specific plans for follow-up work, evaluations can be made, and leaders can help members create their own support systems after they leave a group.
**Follow-up and Evaluation**

There are techniques and strategies that can be used after the termination of a group, for the purpose of follow-up to assess outcomes. Some of these are:

1. **Follow-up Interviews**
   
   Leaders can try to arrange a private interview with each group member a few weeks, or months, after the group ends. Such an interview can be beneficial to the member and to leaders, as a way of evaluating the effectiveness of the group.

2. **Contact with Other Members**
   
   Members can contact another member of the group periodically after termination by way of support.

3. **Follow-up Group Session**
   
   A follow-up meeting can take place a couple of months after the end of the group, to assess the impact of the group on each member. Such a session is a way of maximizing the chance that members will receive lasting benefit from the group experience. Many people reported that simply knowing that they would get together as a group in the future, after the group's termination, was the motivation they needed to stick to their commitment to carry out their action programmes.

**Activity 4.1: Group Counselling**

1. When you think of group counselling or group therapy, what comes to mind? Discuss with others in your group things you have heard about groups, possible misconceptions, and any experience you have had with groups.

2. What values can you think of which pertain to the use of counselling groups with children? adolescents? college students? middle-aged adults? the elderly? What are the advantages, if any, of using group approaches over individual counselling approaches?

3. Assume that you want to organize a group with people you are working with, and assume that you begin by developing a proposal for such a group. Discuss some of the things you will consider when setting up such a group, including how you might structure the group, the topics to be covered, the methods of screening and selecting members, and how you might begin the group.
**RATIONALE**

Neither the client nor the counsellor is free of ethical views of life. Effective counselling deals with ethical understanding, legal responsibilities and moral realities.

Counselling does not take place in a fantasy world, but in a world of reality where people are required to make ethical choices and decisions. Adherence to professional ethical standards protects both the public and the counsellor.

**LEARNING OUTCOMES**

By the end of the unit, you should be able to:

- describe unethical behaviour;
- discuss ethical codes.

**CONTENT**

This unit includes the following:

- Topic 1. Unethical Behaviour
- Topic 2. Ethical Codes
**Topic 1. UNETHICAL BEHAVIOUR**

1. Incompetence, that is, inadequate knowledge and the absence of skills necessary for professional behaviour.
2. Lack of integrity, moral commitment and sound professional judgement to adhere to acceptable standards of right and wrong action.
3. Violating confidences. Information presented in a counselling relationship is confidential.
4. Exceeding the level of professional competence. Counsellors must recognize their strengths and limitations in serving their clients in the most competent manner - or refer them to other experts.
5. Imposing values on clients. It is a responsibility of counsellors to be aware of his/her values and of their impact on others.
6. Creating dependence on the part of the clients to meet the counsellor's own needs, e.g., sexual relations and social interactions.
7. Improper advertising, especially advertising that presents the counsellor as one who has the skills, competence and/or credentials, that he, or she, does not actually possess.
8. Charging fees for private counselling to those who are entitled to free services through the counsellor's employing institution, and/or using one's job to recruit clients for a private practice.

**Topic 2. ETHICAL CODES**

Ethical codes, or standards, are designed to provide guidelines for behaviour.

Ethical codes serve several purposes:

1. They protect members from practices that may result in public condemnation.
2. They provide a measure of self-regulation, thus giving members a certain freedom and autonomy.
3. They provide clients a degree of protection from cheats and the incompetent.
4. They help to protect counsellors from the public if they are sued for malpractice.
Activity 5.1: Ethics and the Counsellor

Questions for Discussion:

1. Were ethical standards devised to restrain, or aid you, in your professional development?
2. Have you accepted the standards because they were always there, or because you decided that they are consonant with your own value system?
3. What would you be willing to do for money? For example, would you continue a client relationship when you are aware you can no longer be of any help?
4. On what are the rewards and payments, that you obtain from your work as a counsellor, based?
5. Under what circumstances would you lie to a client?
6. To what extent would you attempt to provide services for which you are not properly trained or experienced?
7. When would you find it necessary to divulge confidential information?
8. How tolerant are you of the unethical practices of your colleagues? Under what circumstances would you take action against an unethical act?
9. How often do you use the counsellor/client relationship to satisfy your own needs?
10. How do you evaluate your effectiveness?
11. To what extent do your own personal problems interfere with your work as a counsellor?