

**EDUCATORS' IN-SERVICE TRAINING PROGRAMME TO MANAGE STUDENT
DRUG ABUSE AT A COLLEGE IN LIMPOPO**

by

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DECLARATION

I declare that **EDUCATORS' IN-SERVICE TRAINING PROGRAMME TO MANAGE STUDENT DRUG ABUSE A COLLEGE IN LIMPOPO** is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.



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ABSTRACT

Drug abuse has become a public health issue throughout the world as well as in South Africa. Drug abuse amongst students has serious consequences to the student. The purpose of the study was to develop an outline for an educators' in-service training programme at a college to manage student drug abuse. A quantitative descriptive design was used in the research. Using the census sampling method, the entire population (N=337) was included in the study, and 186 (55.1%) respondents return the online completed questionnaires. Data were collected by means of a web-based developed questionnaire. The International Business Machines (IBM), Statistics Product and Service Solution (SPSS) version 23 programme and Microsoft Excel were used to analyse the data. The results showed the training needs of educators at a college regarding the management of students' drug abuse and suggestions for an outline for an in-service training programme for educators at a college to manage students' drug abuse were made. Developing an outline for an educator's in-service training programme on the management of student drug abuse could assist with the development of an in-service training programme for educators.

Key concepts

Drug abuse; educator; in-service training; manage; student; training college; training programme; outline.

DEDICATION

This research is dedicated to Almighty God and to the Lord Jesus Christ for His wisdom, grace and strength given to me during the course of this research.

Also, to my beloved parents, Mr. Mathew Ayinde and Mrs. Christianah Ayinde, my lovely husband, Mr. Odion Taiwo Ezomo, our blessed children and my siblings.

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“Because you are my help, I sing in the shadow of your wings.” Psalm 63:7

Glory to the highest God, the one who made it possible for me to achieve this in my career development. I seize this opportunity to express my appreciation to all the people who encouraged and motivated me in countless ways in making my dream a reality.

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LISTS OF ABBREVIATIONS

AMERSA	Association of Multidisciplinary Education and Research Substance Use and Addition
CREC	College Research Ethics Committee
CNS	Central Nervous System
CUD	Cannabis Use Disorder
DHET	Department of Higher Education and Training
DSM	Diagnostics Statistical Manual of Mental Disorder
EBSCOhost	Intuitive Online Research Platform
HSREC	Health Studies Research Ethics Committee
IBM	International Business Machine
ICD	International Statistical Classification of Disease
ISP	In-service Training Programme
NATED	National Accredited Technical Education Diploma
NCV	National Certificate Vocational
NDMP	National Drug Master Plan
NIDA	National Institute on Drug Abuse
NUPM	Non-prescribed Medication
SA	South Africa
SAMP	South African Master Plan
SAPS	South African Police Service
SD	Standard Deviation
SPSS	Statistics Product Service Solution
SUD	Substance Use Disorder
UN	United Nations
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Emergency Fund
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNEVOC	International Centre for Technical and Vocational Education
UNISA	University of South Africa
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
UNWDR	United Nations World Drug Report
TVET	Technical Vocational Education and Training
WHO	World Health Organisation

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CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Drug abuse has become a public health issue throughout the world, including South Africa (Zulu 2018:1; Tshitangano & Tosin 2016:1). According to the United Nations (UN) (2018:7), illicit drug use affects slightly less than 5.6% of the world's population; among drug users, at least one drug is used by any person aged between 15 and 46 years. It was estimated in 2017 that one in 53.4 million people used one drug (World Drug Report [WDR] 2018:7). United Nations World Drug Report (UNWDR) (2014:13) indicated that 7.1% of the South African population abuses narcotics of some kind, while one (1) in fourteen (14) people is a regular abuser.

The rapid expansion of international air links, combined with South Africa's geographical position, inter-channel telecommunication, the long, porous and poorly controlled borders had made the country a natural target for drug traffickers (Carina 2016). South and East Africa are recognised by the UN as a regional hub for drug trafficking and the region is the largest transit zone for illicit drugs in Africa (WDR 2018:15). Drug abuse is noticeable in South Africa: regardless of society, race, language, religion and gender orientation (South Africa 2015:1). According to Amadi and Akpelu (2018:21), students constantly abuse drugs such as tobacco, locally made dry gin, Indian hemp, alcohol and marijuana. These drugs affect the student's state of body and mind by altering the central nervous system (Amadi & Akpelu 2018:21), student memory, attention and learning (Ta, Greto & Bolt 2019:845), which later result in poor academic performance (Amadi & Akpelu 2018:21).

Factors that contribute to drug abuse in students are environmental, biological, psychological, family, peer pressure and social class (Maithya, Okinda & Mung'atu 2015:632).

According to Maithya et al (2015:633), the impact of substance abuse on academic activities indicated that it interferes with the physiological, psychological and emotional functioning of the student (Chukwu, Pius, Fiase, Haruna, Terkuma & Evangeline

2017:44; Uchenedu & Ukonu 2016:62). Students abusing drugs tended to present with a lack of concentration (Uchenedu & Ukonu 2016:62), have poor academic performance (Williams & Brands 2019:3), and come late to lectures (Chukwu et al 2017:44). Students also presented with delinquent behaviour (Mohammed, Mohammed & Awang 2018:25), poor interpersonal relationships (Walton, Avenant & Schalkwyk 2016:4) and were inclined to have unnecessary arguments with classmates (Maithya et al 2015:638).

A training college is an educational institution where tertiary and vocational education is offered (South Africa 2015; Kinanti, Ritchi & Handoyo 2020:2). According to United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) International Centre for Technical and Vocational Education (UNEVOC), a training college focuses on the study of technologies, acquisition of practical skills and knowledge related to various sectors of the economy. Colleges in South Africa need to be in line with international trends and standards of education, programmes offered, qualifications, skills development and training, and to enhance their own and national competitiveness (Motala & Vally 2014:2). Educators at colleges might be subject experts (Van der Bijl & Oosthuizen 2019:205), but do not necessarily have an education qualification. These educators are expected to teach content and also manage education-related activities (Manyau 2015:22). Rudman and Meiring (2018:88) state that attention is being given to colleges' challenges on a macro level but little to educators' daily classroom challenges that include student behavioural problems. Educators are often confronted with student behavioural problems which could be related to drug abuse (Mohasoa & Mokoena 2017:109) and feel ill-equipped to handle them in the classroom (Al-Zboon 2017:3).

Most of the colleges' in-service training programmes focus on teaching and learning strategies. A meta-synthesis done by Dunst, Bruder and Hamby (2015:1731) indicates that effective in-service training of educators should follow a planned programme.

Rudman and Meiring (2018:88) introduced a developmental programme for educators (lecturers) in the Eastern Cape using a humanistic pedagogical approach to day-to-day lecturing activities. Nathako (2020:2) states that improved communication skills between educators and students enhance good performance. Educators play an

important role in determining university students' ability to manage drug-related problems (Al-Zboon 2017:4).

1.2 BACKGROUND TO RESEARCH PROBLEM

Drug and alcohol abuse remain undesirably high amongst students at universities and colleges (Tesfai 2016:7; Mekonen, Fekadu, Mekonnen & Workie 2017:1). Vorster, Gerber, Van Der Merwe and Van Zyl (2019:6) found that at a South African institution of higher education 78.4% of second years and 82.8% of third year students reported using some kind of a drug which affected their academic performance (Mdluli 2017:77). Mekonen et al (2017:7) reported that the abuse of drugs by students negatively affected their mathematical scores and led to violent behaviour (Arora, Kannan, Gowri, Choudhary, Sudarasanan & Khosla 2016:101).

An educator is regarded as a gatekeeper to college students in the prevention of drug abuse (Waghachavare, Chavan, Gore, & Dhumale 2017:37). In fulfilling this role, they are in the ideal position to identify mental health problems (Long, Albright, & Price 2018:652) which are closely related to drug abuse (Claro, De Oliveira, Bourdreaux, Fernandes, Pinho & Tarifa, 2015:1173). However, educators are not adequately equipped to identify problem cases and refer such students (Long et al 2018:652). They (Long et al 2018:652) conducted an intervention study using online simulation role-play to enhance educators' ability to act as gatekeepers to students and found that it improved their ability to protect students from harm.

The Limpopo Department of Social and Development reported in their study that 54.8% of the youth abused substances such as cannabis (49%), inhalants (39%), wine (32%) and beer (30%) (Limpopo Department of Social Development 2013:16). A similar trend was reported by the college selected for this study in Limpopo Province (Govender, Nel, & Sibuyi 2017:1). Educators at colleges do not all have an education qualification (Van der Bijl & Oosthuizen 2019:208). Maithya et al (2009:110) and Manyau (2015:85) propose that college educators need to receive training to improve the teaching and learning process and prepare them to manage students' drug abuse. In-service training programme available to educators on how to manage students drug abuse is limited and in the Limpopo province there are none that the researcher could

identified. Establishing the training needs of educators regarding the management of students drug abuse could assist the researcher to develop a in-service training programme outline for for educators on the management of student drug abuse.

1.3 RESEARCH PURPOSE

The purpose of the study was to develop an outline for an educators' in-service training programme at a college to manage student drug abuse.

1.3.1 Research objectives

The research objectives of this study were to:

1. Explore and describe the training needs of college educators regarding the management of student drug abuse.
2. Make recommendations on topics to be included in an in-service training program for educators at a college to manage students' drug abuse.

1.3.2 Research questions

The research questions identified were:

1. What are the training needs of educators at a college regarding the management of student drug abuse?
2. What topics should be included in the in-service training programme for educators at a college to manage student drug abuse?

1.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The information on the training needs of educators at colleges will allow the development of an outline for an in-service training programme for educators, empowering them to manage students' drug abuse. If students are supported, they may decide to stop abusing drugs which would consequently improve their academic

performance and educators could focus on their teaching and learning more effectively.

1.5 DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS

1.5.1 Drug abuse

Drug abuse is the habitual use of drugs not needed for therapeutic purposes, solely to alter one's mood or affect one's state of consciousness (Galindo-Aldana, Murillo-Macias, Cedano-Gasca, Padilla-Lopez & Garcia-Leon 2019:674).

1.5.2 Educators

Educators are persons who demonstrate, instruct, lead or teach students, families, patients or clients (Van der Bijl & Oosthuizen 2019:204). In the context of this research, educators were referred to as persons who have practical skills and knowledge to teach students at a college.

1.5.3 Illicit drug use

An illicit drug is a drug that is illegal to have e.g. heroin or the non-medical use of drugs that are legally available such as pain killers or sleeping tablets (Degenhardt 2012). The use of prescribed drugs without a prescription (Asharani, Hombali, Seowe, Ong, Tan & Subramaniam 2018:2). In the context of research illicit drugs were referred to as non-medical use of prescribed medication and illegal drugs.

1.5.4 Indian hemp

A photochemical cannabinoid which has an intoxicating effect (Burton, Andres, Cole, Cowley & Augustin 2022:1). In the context of this research Indian hemp is a plant Cannabis, which is illicit and sanctioned by law.

1.5.5 In-service training

In-service training denotes the totality of educational training and personal experiences that contributes to individual professional competency at a site of employment (Bliss, Mark, Johnes & Dorkenoo 2018:50). In this research, in-service

training refers to a programme organised for educators to increase their competency regarding the management of students drug abuse.

1.5.6 Manage

Manage is to forecast, plan, organise, implement, control and evaluate (Tovmasyan 2017:20). In this study, manage was the capability of educators to care for students who are suspected of drug abuse appropriately. It includes being knowledgeable in implementing the correct procedures on what to do if the educator suspect the student abuse drugs and what to do in a class setup.

1.5.7 Nyaope

An illicit substance which are addictive and deadly, mostly abuse in South Africa, it is a mixture of dagga and heroine and also known as “ Whoonga” (Khanyi and Malesa 2022:31). In the context of this research nyaope is referred as a most dangerous addictive substances.

1.5.8 Outline

An outline refers to the characteristics, features and contents identified as important for in-service training of educators to be effective (Dunst et al 2015:1732). In this study context, an outline referred to features and proposed contents for an in-service training programme to prepare educators to manage students who are suspected of abusing drugs.

1.5.9 Regular abuser

A person who constantly abuses drugs without stoping even when the drugs are harmful to the body (Olebuezie and Okonkwo 2021:245). In the context of this research regular abuser is an addicive person.

1.5.10 Student

A student is a person who is studying at a university or other institution of higher education (Abdullah 2018:31). In this context, a student is a person aged 18 years and above, studying at a college to obtain a National Certificate Vocational (NCV) or Vocational and National Accredited Technical Education Diploma (NATED) certificate.

1.5.11 Substance abuse

Substance abuse is defined as the concurrent use of substances that are harmful to the brain and body in general (Olebuezie and Okonkwo 2021:245). Johns Hopkins Medicine (2022) defines substance abuse as the medical term used to describe the use of substances (drugs) that causes challenges or danger to the person who uses them. Substance abuse refers to the abuse of illegal substances such as marijuana, and cocaine or legal substances such as alcohol or prescription drugs (Johns Hopkins Medicine 2022). According to World Health Organisation (2021) refers to substance abuse as the use of harmful and hazardous use of psychoactive substances including alcohol and illicit drugs. In this study, substance abuse was referred to as the persistent use of substances which includes substances such as drugs, and alcohol by students and was used interchangeably with drug abuse.

1.5.12 Substance withdrawal

Substance withdrawal occurs when a person who abuses drugs suddenly discontinued the use of substance abuse (Amardeep 2022:828). In this study, substance withdrawal is a group of symptoms that are developed suddenly in a person that stops consuming drugs after a long period of consumption.

1.5.13 Training college

A training college is an institute of higher education where educational services are provided to the student for a specific range of skills and to the community as a whole

(Kinanti et al 2020:2). A training college is a college institution where vocational and occupational education is received by students through training for a specific range of jobs, employment opportunities and further education in their field of study in a specific region of the Limpopo Province.

1.5.14. Training programme

A training programme refers to a programme designed for training in specific skills (Aldahmash, Al-Shamrani, Alshaya & Alsarrani 2019:164). In this study, a training programme was referred to as a programme provided to train educators, following a multi-disciplinary approach to managing students' drug abuses.

1.6 OPERATIONAL DEFINITION

1.6.1 Dependent variables

The dependent variables are variables that cause and influence outcomes, also called predictor variables. The following are the dependent variables in the course of this research (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2018:728; Salkind 2018:29).

1.6.1.1 *Management of student drug abuse*

Management of student drug abuse is the process to follow to assist with student drug abuses (Al-Zboon 2017:4).

1.6.2 Independent variables

The independent variables are variables that do not depend on dependent variables; they are the outcome or result of the influence of the independent variables, also known as response variables (Cohen et al 2018:728). The independent variable in this research was an educators' training programme outline.

1.6.2.1 *Educators' training programme outline*

Educators' training programme outline designed for educators based on their needs and the expectation to support and manage students' drug abuse (Joao, Henriques & Rodrigues 2019:31).

1.7 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHOD

The description of the research design is how the research setting will be arranged to yield the desired data with the least possible error by intervening variables (Nieswiadomy & Bailey 2018:317). The methodology focuses on the processes, tools and procedures that will be utilised in the research study (Brink, Van der Walt & Van Rensburg 2018:81), which include the data collection, study population, sampling method, measures of reliability and validity, and ethical considerations (Cohen et al 2018:176).

Quantitative research is an approach to test theories by examining the relationship among variables (Gray, Grove & Sutherland 2017:76, Leavy 2017:87). A non-experimental quantitative descriptive design was used in the research study to develop an outline for an in-service training programme for educators to manage student drug abuse. Census sampling consisting of 337 educators at the four campuses of the TVET college was employed. Data were collected through a web-based questionnaire. The researcher used this design because non-experimental quantitative research lacks manipulation of independent variables (Maree 2019:193). Data were analysed using International Business Machines, Statistics Product and Service Solution (SPSS) version 23. A more in-depth discussion of the research methodology will be discussed in Chapter 3.

1.8 STRUCTURE OF DISSERTATION

1.8.1 Chapter 1 Introduction

This chapter provides a general introduction and the background to the study, research problem, research objectives, research questions, significans of the study, definition of key concetps and operational definition, research design and methodology.

1.8.2 Chapter 2 Literature Review

This chapter focused on relevant work of different academic scholars in relation to the topic, educators' in-service training programme to manage student on drug abuse at a college in Limpopo. The chapter provided a synthesis of information on educators in-serivce training programme to manage students on drug abuse in developed and developing countries and specifically South Africa.

1.8.3 Chapter 3 Research Methodology

This chapter highlights the researcher approach and the method adopted in collection of data and interpretation of data. It further gives in-depth knowledge of the study considering relevant literature of reputable academics and analyses the approach used in compiling the data.

1.8.4 Chapter 4 Results

This chapter presents the results of the research and the findings which can be deduced from the data collected on the research topic.

1.8.5 Chapter 5 Summary of findings, conclusion and recommendation

This chapter discusses the findings in chapter 4 in relations to literature reviewed and ensures the explanation of the findings is appropriate to the research objectives. Appropriate conclusions were drawn from the discussions around which suitable

recommendations were made on an educators in-service training programme outline and management of students on drug abuse. The in-service training programme for the management of students who abuse drugs will empower educators, to identify students on drug abuse and to refer to appropriate health system. Further recommendations were made on areas deserving in-depth research.

1.9 SCOPE AND LIMITATION OF THE RESEARCH

The scope of a study refers to the parameters under which a research study will be conducted (Akanle, Ademuson & Shittu 2020:108), that is, discussion of research areas, research questions, objectives, population and study area covered (Akanle et al 2020:108). The generalisation of the findings to colleges in other regions of Limpopo Province may not be possible, because the study was conducted in only one of the colleges in the Limpopo Province, with a total number of 337 educators; moreover, not all the educators were able to respond to the questionnaire. The scope of the research study was limited to a specific college in the Limpopo Province addressing the issue of an educators' in-service training programme at a college to manage student drug abuse.

1.10 CONCLUSION

The chapter presented the orientation of the research which included the background of the research, the research problem, research purpose and its objectives. It also provided a definition of the key concepts as well as an overview of research design and methodology and the layout of the dissertation. Chapter 2 will focus on the literature review for the study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focused mainly on the literature relevant to educators' training needs to manage students' drug abuse. This chapter also presents the scope of literature review, the strategy used for researching the reviewed literature (Nieswiadomy & Bailey 2018:99), appraisal of the existing literature and the reviewed literature (Lobiondo-Wood & Haber 2018:64 & 67).

2.2 PURPOSE OF THE LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of the literature review was to assist the researcher to familiarise herself with existing information, integrate, and summarise the area of the research study (Lobiondo-Wood & Haber 2018:63) and to establish credibility and new ideas of the research study (Nieswiadomy & Bailey 2018:91). A thorough literature review enabled the researcher to know how relevant the research study is and how it can contribute to the existing research (Nieswiadomy & Bailey 2018:91).

2.3 SCOPE OF LITERATURE REVIEW

A literature review varies in scope and depth (Lobiondo-Wood & Haber 2018:69). In the research study, the researcher has gone through the process of critical review of literature in order to develop expert knowledge on educators' training needs the following topics: drug abuse prevention at a technical vocational and training college, the prevalence of drug abuse, effects of drug abuse on students, interventions in preventing and supporting individual students abusing drugs, education institutional challenges with students abusing drugs, educators' support to students on drug abuse, educators' competency and relationships when dealing with students on drug abuse, educators' skills, training concepts, contents and timing in training, and thus

develop an outline for an educational programme for educators to support students regarding drug abuse at the selected college.

2.4 SEARCH STRATEGY

In the course of searching for relevant literature, the researcher mainly used databases in the online library of the University of South Africa (UNISA). Widely used databases include EBSCOhost, Google Scholar, Google Search Engine, Science Direct, Medical Research Journals and African Journals of Drug and Alcohol Studies (Nieswiadomy & Bailey 2018:94). The researcher also used the World Health Organisation's (WHO) database and other useful websites of different organisations (Lobiondo-Wood & Haber 2018:97). The researcher used keywords such as drug abuse, the effect of drug abuse, prevalence of drug abuse, motives for drug abuse, higher institutions (TVET), challenges with students abusing drugs, an outline for an educational programme for educators to support students regarding drug abuse at the selected, college, educators, educators' skills and competency while searching for literature.

The researcher used the following inclusion criteria to determine whether identified literature should be reviewed.

1. Studies published in the English language.
2. Studies published from 2011 till the present date.
3. Studies that present global concepts on drug abuse
4. Studies that present the prevalence of drug abuse among college students, and youths.
5. Studies that present motives of drug abuse.
6. Studies that present the effects of drug abuse on college students.
7. Studies that present interventions, preventing and supporting individuals abusing drugs.
8. Studies that present educators' challenges, supports, competency, skills and relationships when dealing with students abusing drugs, both international and local.

9. Studies that present educators' training concepts, educators' need assessments, in-service training programme for educators, timing and contents in training. Thus, topics were sought which indicated how to develop an outline for an educational programme for educators to support students regarding drug abuse at the selected college.

The following exclusion criteria were used:

1. Studies that were published in a language other than the English Language.
2. Studies that lack standard authority, accuracy, and objectivity as verified based on authors' credibility, presence of errors in grammar and referencing and presence of advertising that may lead to bias in the content of the paper.
3. Studies that do not present with global concepts on drug abuse.
4. Studies that do not present the prevalence of substance abuse among college students, school children and youths.
5. Studies that do not present with motives of drug abuse.
6. Studies that do not present the effects of drug abuse on college students.
7. Studies that do not present interventions, prevention, support of students abusing drugs.
8. Studies that do not present educators' challenges, supports, competency, skills and relationships when dealing with students abusing drugs, both international and local.
9. Studies that do not present educators' training concepts, educators' timing and contents in training.
10. Studies that do not present the intervention options to alleviate the burden of drug abuse among students.
11. Studies that do not provide educators' training needs assessment, the concept of training, contents and timing of training on drug abuse prevention by TVET college students.

After the literature was appraised, using the aforementioned criteria, the journals, articles, dissertations and documents that fulfilled the inclusion criteria were sorted for use. Literature that was congruent to exclusion criteria was excluded from the review.

Research journals, books, articles, dissertations, legislation and policy documents that met the inclusion criteria were coded based on their contents and dates of the search made, sorted and stored on a separate memory stick for easy retrieval.

2.5 GLOBAL CONCEPTS OF DRUG ABUSE

Drug abuse is a global challenge (Unagu, Onu, Iteke, Tukur & Oka 2017:24), with a detrimental effect on the health, wealth and security of nations (National Drug Master Plan [NDMP] 2019-2024:27). According to the World Drug Report (2018:7), about 275 million (5.6%) people of the global population used at least one drug in 2016, with an estimation of 450,000 drug use related deaths in 2015 (WDR 2018:7). Globally, there is a decline in cocaine abuse compared to increased pharmaceutical opioids use (Unaogu et al 2017:24), which accounted for 76% of deaths, where drug use disorder was implicated (WDR 2018:7), with an increase in an illicit drug in an low- income countries (WDR 2021:15). Cannabis (dagga) is widely consumed with illicit drugs in Europe, America and Oceania (WDR 2019:14), which has also been the primary drug of abuse in Africa and in South Africa, mostly amongst adolescents, children and students (NDMP 2019-2024:30). According to Borcharding (2016:25) the Brown University Child & Adolescent report in the United States 2013 indicated an increase of 5.1% in the daily use of marijuana under students. South Africa has a serious drug usage problem (NDMP 2019-2024:28), over 15% of the population have a drug problem (Makhawula 2018:32) twice that of the world norm. Over the past 30 years, the expansion of drug-trafficking routes has led to a remarkable increase in drug abuse, with the highest consumption reported in South Africa (Unaogu et al 2017:24). The South African Police Service (SAPS) reported for the period April 2019 to March 2020 that of the 21 serious crimes 58.8% were drug related (Crime statistics South African Police 2019-2020:6). Generally, tobacco, alcohol and nyaope are the most commonly abused substances among South African students and drug abuse is increasing in several South African provinces (NDMP 2019-2024:28). Statistically, 15% of South African's population abuses narcotics of some kind (Makhawula 2018:32).

2.5.1 Drug abuse versus substance abuse

Drug abuse is the non-medical use of prescribed and non-prescribed medications (NUPM) (Asharani, Edimansyah, Tan, Mythily, Christopher, Guo, & Cranford 2018:1; National Institute on Drug Abuse [NIDA] 2020:2; WDR 2018:9) that is legal and illegal with continuous use (Ajay, Indu & Pawar 2019:36; Naidoo 2017:11) despite the negative effects associated with consumption (Gilberto, Carlos, Antonio, Alfredo & Ibaza 2019:486). Substance abuse refers to the hazardous use of psychoactive substances such as alcohol, cannabis, cocaine or amphetamine, marijuana, glue and tobacco (Mohamad, Mohammad, Mat Ali & Awang 2018:27). Examples of prescribed drug stimulants are Adderall, Ritalin, Concerta, Vyvanse and painkillers, which are some of the most widely misused and abused drugs among college students (Ajay et al 2019:36). The non-medical use of these drugs is rated second to marijuana use globally, with an increase in drug abuse in Africa and in South Africa mostly amongst adolescents, children and students (NDMP 2019-2024:30). The most common form of drug abuse is causing an increase in mortality and morbidity (Asharani et al 2018:2). The non-medical use of these drugs among females remains low as compared to males in South Africa (Peltzer, Phaswana & Mafuya 2018:5), with 53% in female and 86% in male (Zaman, Razzaq, Hassan, Quneshi, Ijaz, Hanifna & Chughtai 2015:44). A similar trend was reported by the college in the Limpopo Province (Govender et al 2017:1). Furthermore, self-medication for therapeutic purposes increases the chances of drug abuse in people (Parry, Rich, Van Hout & Deluca 2017:451). Thus, the excessive use of medical prescription and non-medical prescription medications causes severe adverse effects similar to psychoactive substances (NIDA 2020:2). However, there is a reduction in the overall use of cocaine as compared to the global such as West Africa, North Africa, Middle East, North America, West and Central Europe 2021:22), increase in abuse of cannabis and pharmaceutical opioids (Unaogu et al 2017:20), as reported in the South African population-based national study in 2008 (Peltzer & Phaswana-Mafuya 2018:1), and West and Central Europe (WDR 2019:12). Lastly, drug abuse is characterised by mental disorders such as anxiety, stress, depression, addiction, intoxication (Asegdom 2017:24), withdrawal syndrome, neurological disorders, teratogenicity effects, which occur due to opiates, barbiturates, cocaine, alcohol and benzodiazepine consumption and other mood disorders (Salazar, Contreras, Axel & Esperanza 2018:2). Drug abuse serves as a threat to

educational and other professional organisations (Asharani, Hombali, Seowe, Ong, Tan & Subramaniam 2020:1) and it requires urgent and sensitive intervention at local, national and international levels (Amadi & Akpelu 2018:21).

2.5.2 Substance abuse disorders

Within the South African context, substance abuse is confirmed as an excessive use of a substance, such as alcohol, cigarettes, glue and others (Mohasao & Mokoena 2017:109). Substance abuse disorders (SAD) are maladaptive patterns of drug use, which affect the emotional, cognitive and behaviour of students (Solati & Hasanpour-Dehkordi 2017:6). SAD in students predisposes them to behavioural problems (Amadi & Akpelu 2018:21) such as delinquency, externalising and internalising psychopathology (Pol, Hoeve, Noom, Stams, Doreleijers, Domburgh & Vermeeiren 2017:1). Asegdom (2017:24) explains that the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorder-5 (DSM-5) is used to diagnose different substance use disorders, such as alcohol use disorder and stimulant use disorders (Solati & Hasanpour-Dehkordi 2017:6). Asegdom (2017:24-25) mentions ten substance abuse disorders such as substances intoxication, withdrawal, addiction and dependency. Makhawula (2018:47) further indicates that mental problems such as mood disorder, anxiety, sleeping disorder and negative urgency tolerance, withdrawal and addiction (Solati & Hasanpour-Dehkordi 2017:6) are associated with substance abuse.

2.5.3 Cannabis use disorder

Cannabis is one of the most frequently used psychoactive substances (Meichior, Nakmura, Bolze, Hausfater, Khoury, Mary-Krause & Da Silva 2019:1). Cannabis use disorder (CUD) is characterised by a spectrum of clinically relevant conditions (Lutach, Klobers, Meyer, Rizvi & Geroge 2020:34). CUD causes psychological, social and physiological adverse consequences, such as functional impairment, loss of control and withdrawal effects (Lutach et al 2020:34). The NDMP (2019-2024:27) shows that cannabis is the most widely abused drug in the world. However, DSM-5 of mental disorders and international statistical classification of diseases and related health problems (ICD-10) distinguish differences in the classification in the harmful and dependant use of cannabis (Compton, Han, Jones & Blanco 2019:1). DSM-5 classifies

cannabis use on the severity of the health impairment into mild, moderate and severe (Compton et al 2019:2), but both ICD-10 and DSM-5 are used for the diagnosis of cannabis withdrawal syndrome, such as anxiety, depression, loss of appetite and restlessness within two hours of consumption (Schlienz & Vandery 2019:93).

2.5.4 Drug addiction and dependency

Addiction is a major health crisis in many parts of the world, which leads to health consequences among students (Pere & Yatich 2017:19; Mohtasham, & Raeisoon 2018:435). Addiction causes chronic relapse in diseases that affect both the brain and behaviour (NDMP 2019-2024:5; Makhawula 2018:20). According to Rayan (2017:1), addiction requires grave attention due to its high incidence in societies, its impact on life in many ways, and its co-morbidity with mental health. More so, addiction is a state of chronic intoxication produced by the repeated consumption of the drug, either natural or synthetic (Ajay et al 2019:35). Furthermore, this enhances compulsive craving for substances and exacerbation of dysphoria with substance withdrawal (Asegdom 2017:25). Dependency is the kind of behaviour that develops after repeated use of a substance which is stimulated by an uncontrollable urge to take the substance (Zulu 2018:1). A person may be dependent upon more than one drug (Kiriru 2018:53), which makes it a diagnosable psychiatric condition (Parry et al 2017:451).

2.6 MOTIVES FOR DRUG ABUSE

The prevalence of substance abuse behaviour globally is growing (Sorato, Davari, Asi & Soleymani 2020:2; Pere & Yatich 2017:18). Similarly, among students in South Africa it has become a public health issue (Naidoo 2017:1; Nasseemullah, Hussan, Majeed, Afzaal & Gilani 2019:83). Despite the various policies implemented, there is still an increase in drug abuse, mostly in developing countries (Pere & Yatich 2017:18). Research conducted in Nigeria indicated that substance use during ceremonial activities, such as the kola nut mostly in Northern Nigeria and alcohol mostly in Southern Nigeria (Unaogu et al 2017:24), could be due to cultural influences (Unaogu et al 2017:24). The associated use of therapeutic and non-therapeutic motives for

addiction (Ajay et al 2019:36), for example, abuse of prescribed drugs, has become a drug epidemic in United States of America for the past few decades (Asharani et al 2020:1).

Most South African college students abuse drugs because drugs are accessible and available to them (Naidoo 2017:2). However, Mohamed & Khaton (2017:14), indicate that parental substance use, experimentation, boredom, individual self-image, lack of parental monitoring, higher parental income and availability of prescribed medications obtained from family and friends (Cha, Ranjit & Hoelscher 2017:1) were the motives for drug abuse in college students. Ajay et al (2019:37) add that problems at work, family history, peer pressure, money issues, changes in behaviour, physical health issues and lack of parental monitoring (Mohasao & Mokoena 2017:11) were the motivating factors to substance abuse.

Jaouahir, Azzaoui, Lotfi, Ahami, Faid & Rusinek (2015:158) indicates that an institution serves as an entry point for student freedom, so drug abuse may occur due to general indiscipline in an institution of study. Other motives behind substance abuse are overcoming inhibition, sensation seeking, coping with isolation and loneliness, poor individual self-control (Asgedom 2017:34) and few recreational facilities for South African students on campus (Makhawula 2018:32). COVID-19 pandemic and lockdown regulations could increase the isolation and loneliness among students (Shah, Nougeras, Woerden & Kiparoglou 2020:2), thus, resulting an increase in drug abuse (Chacon, Walia. Allen, Sciancalepore, Tong, Quick, Mada, Diaz & Rodrigue 2021:2). Asgedom (2017:34) reveals that peer influence is a factor as seen in first-year students who may be influenced by negative peer groups. Similarly, Ajay et al (2019:3) indicate pressure from the general population may make the student prone to drug abuse. In addition Ilo and Nwimo (2017:77) found that many students use substances because they fear not being accepted in social circles that include substance-abusing peers. Moreover, when young people feel isolated, they tend to sacrifice their substance abstinence behaviour in order to make friends (Ilo & Nwimo 2017:77). According to NDMP (2019:35), females are more likely to use non-medical prescribed medications than males because of female biological makeup, relationship issues and parental problems (Ajay et al 2019:37). Glamorous alcohol advertisements

in various forms of media facilitate drinking problems in some students (Romer & Moreno 2017:103; Naidoo 2017:2).

Regardless of acceptance of substance use such as alcohol in society for ceremonies (Obierefu 2017:1), religious ceremonies have not been positively associated with alcohol use but other ceremonial activities may increase the chances of substance abuse (Unaogu et al 2017:24).

2.6.1 Global perspectives on prevalence of drug abuse.

The occurrence of drug abuse has been a way of life in human history (Asif, Rekha, Gaurav, Renu, Kirti & Abhish 2017:3338; Ilo and Nwimo 2017:76). In 2019, Global Burden of Disease reported that 494,000 people died due to drug-related disorder and drug overdose, with an increase of 17,5%, from 2010-2019 (WDR 2021:34). Ilo and Nwimo (2017:76) indicate that a person's first experience of drugs mostly occurs between the ages of 15 to 19 years. Nyabadza and Coetzee (2017:76) confirm that drug abuse starts at the age of 15 to 19 years and the highest prevalence is between 18 to 25 years. The rapid fall in age (Qureshi, Acharya, Sharma, Sethia, Shekhawat & Kawatra 2017:3339) and the effects among students (Furtwängler and Visser 2017:418) are serious concerns (Nassemullah et al 2019:83). According to WHO, a third of the world's population above the age of 15 years uses tobacco and among these 63% are from developing countries (Sarato & Davari 2020:2). Chege, Mungai and Oresi (2017:1) report from Kenya, that a wide range of different drugs are abused by college students. College students in Oregon institution indicated that they start abusing drugs, such as marijuana (Andrew, David & Harlord 2019:399) at the age of 11 to 14 years (Moshaoa & Mokoena 2017:110). Results from a study done in Limpopo indicated that drug abuse started around the age of 16 years or less (Ilo & Nwimo 2017:76). Although the reported ages among the young differ, it is still a concern (Amadi & Akpelu 2018:21), which requires support from all professions to mount strategies equipping students with learning targets (Amadi & Akpelu 2018:21).

2.6.1.1 Prevalence of drug abuse amongst schoolchildren and students

Drug abuse is not just a sudden occurrence at higher education institutions but is a trend that arises in secondary schools (Naidoo 2017:24). The estimated global

prevalence of drug abuse has been 5.3% since 2014 (Peltzer & Phaswana-Mafuya 2018:1). Based on the UN's estimation a quarter of a billion adults abused drugs at least once in 2015 (Oladeinde, Mabetha, Twine, Hove & Van der Merwe 2020:1). Grant, Hunter, Pedersen & Griffin (2020:34) provided evidence that schoolchildren in the United States had taken psychoactive drugs at least once in their lives. Bala and Kang (2020:447) found that 4.2% of Ethiopian schoolchildren use tobacco (Sarato & Davari 2020:2). The WHO and Heart Foundation's data showed that 22.2% of Nigerian school children aged between 12-17 years use tobacco (Grant et al 2020:34) and other countries like Ghana, Burkina Faso and Zimbabwe recorded the highest alcohol and illicit drug use among college students and schoolchildren (Manu & Maluleke 2017:15). The United Nations (2022) reported there was a 5% to 10% increase in the usage of different drugs amongst people under the age of 24 in South Africa from 2016 to 2020.

According to the WHO Global Status Report on Alcohol Consumption in 198 countries, South Africa is ranked 19th for alcohol consumption among youths (Maserumule, Skaal & Sithole 2019:1), just as South Africa was rated the fifth top alcohol abuser country in the world by WHO in 2013 (Manu & Maluleke 2017:21). According to Oladeinde et al (2020:2), South Africa has the highest prevalence of alcohol abuse in the Southern African region, with current statistics showing that 5 billion persons consume alcohol every year. Manu and Maluleke (2017:21) state that in Buffalo Flats in East London, South Africa, schoolchildren younger than 14 years abuse drugs at home and those who abuse drug at school are aged 15-18 years. Likewise, Mafa, Makhubele, Ananias, Chilwalo and Matlakala (2019:93) indicate that schoolchildren start to abuse drugs from age 13-15 years in South Africa. Furthermore, Rosas and David (2020:1) indicate that 12% of schoolchildren commence drug use at the age of 13 years. Manu and Maluleke (2017:21), and Chukwu et al (2017:40) reported in their findings that 22.3% of schoolchildren aged 15-19 years abused amphetamines. Ilo & Nwimo (2017:80) mention that most schoolchildren abuse drugs and substances: 76% preferred alcohol, 22.1% cigarettes and 52% marijuana.

The highest prevalence rate of cannabis use is 3.3%, sleeping pills 0.5%, amphetamine stimulants 0.7%, cocaine 0.6%, opiates 0.5% (Ilo & Nwimo 2017:81) and 0.5% hallucinogens in South Africa (Peltzer & Phaswana-Mafuya 2018:1).

Research in Imo State Nigeria among school children showed that children abused inhalants (Ilo & Nwimo 2017:81). The rate of drug abuse among schoolchildren in relation to gender revealed that both males and females show the same trends (Bala & Kang 2020:447). According to the Cancer Association of South Africa (2017), 17.9% of males and 10.6% of females in South Africa used one form of tobacco product but females preferred marijuana and males' preference was nicotine (Manu & Maluleke 2017:21). Mafa et al (2019:99) and Bala and Kange (2020:447) state that females are involved in drug abuse as much as their male counterparts, which indicates rapid changes in the patterns of drug abuse affecting South African adolescents. Further, there is a high prevalence of drug abuse among school children in Limpopo Province (Maserumule et al 2019:5) and among college students in South Africa in general (Naidoo & Mkhize 2017:15; Nzama & Ajani 2021:223-224).

2.6.1.2 *The prevalence of drug abuse among college students*

The prevalence of drug abuse among college students is a global issue including South Africa (Gaza 2018:2). It is often regarded as a rite of passage (Naidoo & Mkhize 2017:5), which shows an upward curve in drug abuse (Bala & Kang 2020:447). Epidemiological studies estimated the prevalence of drug abuse in college students were more than their peer non-students (Furtwängler & Visser 2017:418; Siyan, Peltzer, Pengpid & Susilowati 2017:2). Obierefu (2017:7) stated that 90% of undergraduate students aged 18-27 years admitted to having abused drugs, and was supported by (Louw & Davids 20021:1), who stated that 5% to 35% of college students in South Africa, who are drug abusers, are between 18-24 years (Naidoo & Mkhize 2017:5.)

College students in the United States report indicated 5% of students are regular users of illicit drugs and 25% of students are occasional users (Siyan et al 2017:2). A cross-sectional study among a million admitted peoples showed an increase of 486.7% in methamphetamine positive urine from 2013 to 2019 in the United State of America, which indicates another impending drug epidemic (Asharani, Hombali, Seow, Ong, Tan & Subramaniam 2020:1), and an increase of 21.8% in heroin, 11.1% in fetany and 8.3% in cocaine death in 2016 (Asharani et al 2020:1). Globally, males were more than three times likely to abuse cannabis and cocaine, in contrast to females who were

more likely to abuse prescription drugs, especially opioids and tranquilisers (Unaogu et al 2017:24). These results are similar to Siyan et al (2017:5) who suggested the incidence of more females using prescribed medication than males. Studies of drug abuse among college students in Poland revealed 47.4% of males and 27.7% of females had used a designer drug (Naidoo 2017:15), which was supported by Siyan et al's (2017:5) research study.

In Nairobi, 50% of college students had taken drugs in the past (Chege et al 2017:2), and research conducted among university students in South Africa indicated that 20-80% of university students used alcohol (Muli & Langan 2017:327). Furthermore, Zarin, Garg, Bano, Jain and Singh (2019:11) mentions that 43% of students had abused drugs in Uttar Pradesh India. The prevalence is higher than 31% for Sudan and 42.2% for Ethiopia (Zarin et al 2019:11), while data on college students from Botswana showed that 20% of students smoked cigarettes and 28% smoked marijuana (Diraditsile & Mabote 2017:95). Further, 70% of students in India, 14% in Kuwait, and 8% in Iran had used cannabis (Siyan et al 2017:2), and the global estimates of cannabis users range from 2.8%-4.5%; 0.3-0.5% opioids; 0.3-1.3% amphetamines; and 0.3-1.3% cocaine (Naidoo 2017:15), Obierifu (2017:7) reported that among 561 undergraduate students, an estimated of 340 males and 161 females had admitted using drugs. The researcher deduced that most college students and schoolchildren start to abuse drugs from the age of 11 with an average range of age from 15-27 years among both schoolchildren and college students. This indicates rapid changes in the pattern of drug abuse affecting South African college students (Bala & Kang 2020:447).

2.7 CHALLENGES WITH STUDENTS ABUSING DRUGS

Drug abuse is one of the major challenges that societies are faced with today (Naidoo 2017:3; Sorato et al 2020:2), and its effects are felt by various professionals (Amadi & Akpelu 2018:21).

Drug abuse among students affects the competency and attitude of the educators towards the students abusing drugs (Amadi & Akpelu 2018:21), and their education

(Manu & Maluleke 2017:15). Concerning these challenges and concerns, very few research studies have conducted an in-depth analysis on how to address the problem (Zulu 2018:1).

2.7.1 Educators' challenges, student academic challenges versus student drug abuse

College years mark a critical period with multiple stressors for students (Naidoo 2017:5). Higher education institutions host students from different backgrounds who could influence other students (Naidoo 2017:2), for example, to abuse drugs, which continues to be a major public health issue (Obierefu 2017:1). Student drug abuse affects educator-student relationships in terms of teaching and learning (Asegdom 2017:38). Drug abuse is alarming among college students (Zulu 2018:8), as it is endangering their lives (Govender et al 2017:1) even South African students cannot be excluded (Zulu 2018:1). Howard and Pritchard (2017:1) argued that the extent of drug abuse amongst students causes a huge problem to students thereby affecting teaching and learning at the institution (Amadi & Akpelu 2018:21). Drugs such as alcohol, home made gin, marijuana and Indian hemp affect the central nervous system due to their biochemical effect (Amadi & Akpelu 2018:21), leading to delinquency behaviour (Asegdom 2017:38), alteration in brain development (Gilberto et al 2019:487) as well as task performance such as educational attainment and career development (Mohammed et al 2018:25). These negative effects of drug usage among students influence the educator-student relationship (Amadi & Akpelu 2018:25), which creates several challenges to educators when dealing with students' education and behaviour (Hwang & Meyer 2018:1).

Literature is silent on the effectiveness of existing training programmes for educators on how to manage student bad behaviour that may result into mental issues (in this case, drug abuse) in developing countries (Nasesmullah et al 2019:83). Substance abuse among students may cause emotional behaviour resulting in unnecessary conflict between students (Chukwu et al 2017:41). Zulu (2018:2) and Asegdom (2017:38) argue that students who abuse drugs have emotional problems, such as an inability to concentrate on their education.

Furthermore, excessive drug use by students has several different side-effects like attention deficit and hyperactivity disorder (Jordan, Villarosa-Hurlocker, Ashley & Madson 2018:2), poor academic performance (Asgedom 2017:38), difficulty in sustaining attention in class, student absenteeism from classes (Jordan et al 2018:2), failing tests, not keeping to academic responsibility and dropping out of college due to poor academic grades (Refahi et al 2018:435). Meanwhile, Saidi (2020:2) reveals that academic progress reduces the dropout rate and enhances the completion of studies. Despite all the effects of drug abuse on students, Zulu (2018:3), Asgedom (2017:36) and Mekonen et al (2017:1) report that many college students abuse drugs for academic benefits, but these benefits lack support and proof, therefore the use of drugs to enhance academic performance may likely be illusory.

2.8 SOUTH AFRICAN HIGHER EDUCATION

South African TVET colleges are a national competency central to the provision of post-school education and training (Nundkumar & Subban 2020:260), thus an area of strategic significance in Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET), with 50 public TVET sectors with over 260 locations for student education and training (Nundkumar & Subban 2020:260). Jarvis in Alemu (2018:212) explains that higher education is an organised system, designed to transfer a combination of knowledge, skills and understanding in various fields. More so, higher education as a system covers a wide range of higher learning institutions (Alemu 2018:210) that provide educational services to students (Kinanti et al 2020:1), which include all post-secondary or, tertiary institutions (Alemu 2018:211). Since 1994, TVETs have undergone many comprehensive institutional and constitutional changes (Nukunah et al 2019:287). TVETs colleges are of essential value to the country (Nundkumar & Subban 2020:258).

The TVET college is a comprehensive term used to describe the educational institution aimed at the acquisition of practical skills and theoretical knowledge in various sectors of economic and social life (Akinyele & Bolarinwa 2018:1). In 2009, the single national Department of Education was divided into the DHET and Department of Basic Education (DBE) (DHET 2019:4).

The DHET (2019:5) strategy is aimed at effective skills development and aims to promote growth in response to local, regional and national needs and to strengthen and expand public TVET colleges to become institutions of choice according to the White Paper on Education and Training published in 2013 (Mdluli 2017:1), with a focus on career development and sustainable employment.

2.9 ROLE OF TECHNICAL VOCATIONAL EDUCATIONAL AND TRAINING COLLEGES

TVET colleges provide a form of education to advance the skills development of an individual, to stimulate commerce and encourage self-employment (Nundkumar & Subban 2020:258). The TVET college is an educational institution, which involves the acquisition of knowledge through practical, skills and technology-related science (DHET 2019:4). Despite the effort of DHET in S.A, to strengthen and expand TVET Colleges (Mdluli & Zengele 2017:1). DHET is still faced with various challenges when dealing with students (Efimenko, Roman, Pinto, Fernando & Teixeira 2018:99). The TVET sector serves to supply the workforce needs of South Africa through education and training (Van der Bijl & Oosthuizen 2019:206).

The DHET's highest priority is to strengthen and expand the public TVET colleges and turn them into attractive institutions of choice for school leavers (Mdluli 2017:1). TVET colleges respond to the skills needs of various sectors of the economy and social life (Akinyele & Bolarinwa 2018:1). The TVET college serves as the key component of mid-level post-school skills provisioning and training (Elsom, Greenaway & Marshman 2017:243).

Assuring attainment of key objectives in strengthening colleges includes improving their management and governance (Nagele, Neuenschwander & Rodcharoen 2018:265). Developing the quality of teaching and learning, increasing curriculum responsiveness to local labour markets (Nagele et al 2018:265), improving student support services and developing their infrastructure enables students to become more

knowledgeable, thereby facilitating their access to employment (Nagele et al 2018:265).

Furthermore, education is increasingly important to the success of both individuals and nations (Sedega, Mishiwo & Seddoh 2018:50). Education is seen as meeting the socio-economic development needs of the country (Mesuwini, Singh-Pillay & Bomami 2020:417). Ianos and Tebeanu (2018:63) state that skills and knowledge acquired in TVET colleges contribute significantly to the social and economic development in any nation.

Akinyele and Bolarinwa (2018:2) and Ianos and Tebeanu (2018:284) explain TVET is vital for economic and social development and TVET is viewed as a tool for productivity enhancement and poverty reduction in a region (Ianos & Tebeanu 2018:1). While in Canada and other countries, a post-secondary education is also referred to as 'community college' (Usher 2018:3), TVET institutions are specialised to respond to the different training needs of students from different socio-economic and academic backgrounds, and prepare them for gainful employment and sustainable livelihoods (Nukunah, Bezuidenhout & Furtak 2019:284). However, part of the process of ensuring that colleges become quality educational institutions involves setting a standard for optimal functionality to determine the interventions needed in each institution (Nukunah et al 2019:284). This has resulted in a turnaround strategy that has been developed on the set of rules, policies and strategies for quality delivery of higher education (Nukunah et al 2019:287). Education is a profession that requires skills, knowledge and dedication (Chaturvedi, Chaturvedi & Chaturvedi 2020:1651); therefore higher institutions TVET colleges should assist students to be effective in their role in life, promote the right attitude in them and contribute to the nation's workforce as a whole (Alemu 2018:213). In conclusion, TVET colleges serve as post-school institutions leading to vocational qualifications (Ndlovu 2018:16), which assist to promote the economy of the country (Saidi 2020:8). Though, the researcher could not find much resources on the legislation and policies regarding the management of students drug abuse in the TVET college in South Africa but the researcher was able to source DHET Goldfields TVET college policies which indicated the guidelines and process of dealing with drug use and drug abuse by educators and students in the college environment (DHET Goldfields 2019 :3-4).

2.10 HIGHER EDUCATION AND TRAINING EDUCATORS

Manuel, Tamara, Maria, Egle and Svetlana (2020:1) describe educators as professionals with a positive personality, adequate knowledge, skills and competency and are willing to support the learning of students. Manuel et al (2020:72) emphasise that the aim of education is not only to transfer knowledge to students but also to facilitate character development in students. Educators are responsible for the day-to-day responsibilities of teaching and learning their subject content. Educators are often the first to notice changes in the behaviour of students (Abdullah, Hoque, Ramlan & Shafee 2019:4) and can provide support and assistance to students who abuse drugs (Van der Vossen, Teherani, Van Mook, Croiset, & Kusurkar 2020:372). Educators have considerable contact with students (Abudullah et al 2019:3). The key to successful education is to find the most effective ways of skills development and to meet the needs of the students (Abdullah et al 2019:1), Dollarhide, Mayes, Dogan, Aras, Edwards (2018:1) claim that many higher education administrators strive to establish diversity in policies that foster positive campus environments and learning experiences. Wium (2017:32) states that educators are central to operationalising education and finding the best practices in facilitating student learning. The educator's role is multidisciplinary and should follow an integrated approach, which contributes to students' wellness in both cognitive and emotional areas, especially since students spend most of their time with their educators apart from family (Al-Zboon 2018:158). However, it is unclear what educators are expected to do over and above their traditional role of teaching. Abolbashari, Moonaghi and Bazzaz (2018:420) describe the role of the educator as promoting student success through the development of professional attributes. In light of the important role filled by educators and their influence on students, educators need professional in-service training to assist students abusing drugs.

2.10.1 Roles of educators in TVET colleges

Educators' roles have shifted as teaching has become more student-centred. Makovec (2018:106) states that educators have various roles in education and Yarich and Gerkerova (2019:1) describe one of the roles of educators as the planning and management of students' activities. Makovec (2018:109) adds that it is the role of an

educator to collect, analyse and interpret the classroom activities critically, and identify students' problems. The work of an educator as a facilitator ensures learning and mentoring (mediation of professional learning) (Keiler 2018:3).

With alcohol and drug abuse on the rise among students, educators require skills to assist deviant behaviour of students (Makovec 2018:35), like smoking, alcohol abuse and other substance abuse (Myduc, Greto & Bolt 2019:845). Aysel et al (2017:1), one of the educators role is to assist student on health related issue. Coaching support students in positive decision-making to avoid drug abuse (Abolbashari et al 2017:418). Saletnik (2018:354) describes mentoring as a reciprocal process of interpersonal exchanges between experienced mentors (educators) and less experienced mentees (students) in which the educator assists the student with character and behavioural development. Pere and Yatich (2017:10) state that educators should serve as role models for students, that is, exhibiting care and a willingness to assist students who struggle with drug abuse, as this may reduce levels of drug abuse. Some educators still find it difficult to assist students who abuse drugs (Van der Vossen et al 2020:373; Musyoka, Mbwayo, Donovan & Mathai 2020:2) due to inadequate training and support from the college department which manages student drug abuse (Nkambule & Amsterdam 2018:1), educators' uncertainty about remediation of the student or a lack in knowledge on drug addiction (Al-zboon 2017:3). Other educators do not regard this as part of their responsibilities (Al-Zboon 2017:3). Nevertheless, Musyoka et al (2020:2) recommend that intervention programmes for educators regarding student drug abuse should form part of educators' training in educational institutions. Abolbashari et al (2018:421) further state that students who abuse drugs should be encouraged to ask for assistance for their treatment of drug abuse (Van der Vossen, et al 2020:373).

This will enable better quality, efficient and sustainable education to students and may reduce drug student abuse thereby ensuring academic achievement (Pere & Yatich 2017:10) and good health (Brunner, Keller, Wenger, Fischbach & Ludtke 2018:453). The literature is silent about research studies regarding support for educators regarding students who abuse drugs. Al-Zboon (2017:3) indicates that few educators have the knowledge or skills to manage students who abuse drugs.

2.11 EVALUATION OF EDUCATORS' COMPETENCY VERSUS TRAINING NEEDS

In 2017, the Association of Multidisciplinary Education and Research Substance Use and Addiction (AMERSA) established the development of core competencies for specific disciplines addressing drug abuse in the 21st century (Finnell, Tierney & Mitchell 2019:412). Nabil (2020:55) suggests a well-structured multi-level strategy training programme that can promote educators' professional development to promote quality, efficient and sustainable education to students is useful (DHET 2019: xi; Nukunah et al 2019:286). Competency is defined as a combination of knowledge, skills and attitudes appropriate to the context (Ismail, Hassan, Abu Bakar, Hussin, Mat Hannafiah & Asary 2018:7). The relevancy of educators' professionalism and competencies has increased in the past years in South Africa (Getahun & Kerstin 2018: 347; Hwang & Meyer 2018:1). According to Harendza, Soll and Prediger (2019:1), competency plays an important role in education, as a competent educator will respect the unique personality of a student (Abdullah et al 2019:2). In the last decades Vocational Education and Training (VET) educators in Sweden have undergone restructuring (Getahun & Kerstin 2018:349), which included the standardisation of educational content and more educator training tools resulting in a positive effect on educators receiving information and communication on various training and learning processes (Bingimals 2018:1). As the world is changing, technological development is moving rapidly in higher education (Eramus & Joubert 2017:1011) and high-quality educational training and development also in technology influences the quality of educators' teaching (Etzkorn 2018:29). Most educators do not believe that they should be competent in dealing with students who abuse drugs (Al-Zboon 2018:160). Manuel et al (2020:73) suggest training and development of educators will improve educators' character, moral performance and civic virtues.

Professional training and development of educators' competency to understand the unique personality "behaviour" of students (Abdullah et al 2019:2), could lead to a change in educators' belief that they should engage in interventions to assist students who abuse drugs (Biju & Jeswani 2019:7).

Therefore, educators need professional development and training to counter the availability of addictive drugs in the colleges, which affect their students (Nkambule & Amsterdam 2018:1; Mampane, Sengupta, Blessinger & Makhanya 2020:195). Getahun and Kerstin (2018:1) sees competent educators as the most essential part of providing high quality education. Mdluli (2017:1) suggests that strengthening and expanding colleges to become an institution of choice (Whitepaper 2013) may strengthen educators' competency. Furthermore, Ianos and Tebeanu (2018:68) state that the evaluation of the quality of educators' competency and professional development is a crucial aspect of a training programme, (Manuel et al 2020:73). Furthermore, Van der Bijl and Oosthuizen (2019:205) maintain that educators encounter students with numerous special needs like social, psychological and behavioural needs. Etzkorn (2018:29) and Manuel et al (2020:73) imply that educators should not only embrace the educational aspect of the student but all areas of student experiences like drug abuse. Most educators lack knowledge of their own training needs (Arzu 2017:79) when dealing with students abusing drugs and this renders educators incompetent to deal with challenges regarding student drug abuse in a college environment (Al-Zboon 2017:3), which threatens the teaching and learning relationship between educators and students (Xu & Qiyang 2019:1). Educators should be able to identify these students and refer them to professional persons who are trained to assist students who abuse drugs. Generally, all training programmes require identification of training and development needs, which are the most important aspects of a training programme (Ianos & Tebeanu 2018:63-64). Training objectives and evaluation must be added to training needs; this enables educators to determine the areas where they need training and competency development (Ianos & Tebeanu 2018:67). In all these aspects, an educator is required to act as an "agent of change" and follow the new standard stipulated by their institution (colleges) (Abdullah et al 2019:1). In particular, educators dealing with students abusing drugs require efficient educational programmes (Holtman, Martin & Mukuna 2018:2) on the management of students who abuse drugs.(Chege et al 2017:17) and enhance the skills, knowledge and values required by educators in dealing with such students (Holtman et al 2018:2), including appropriate strategies to establish diversity in policies that foster a positive healthy campus environment and student learning experiences (Dollarhide et al 2018:2).

2.12 EDUCATORS' SKILLS VERSUS EDUCATORS' IN-SERVICE TRAINING PROGRAMME

The concern of educators' in-service training for skills and educational sustainable development is a matter of life-long (continuous) learning (Hepper 2018:89; Patil, Ulle & Varma 2018:585) and a continuous process (Nguyen 2020:2). Bonyani, Safaeian, Chehrazi, Etedali, Zaghain and Mashhadian (2018:470) state that in-service training programmes are short educational modules which are designed for professionals that are already working. Also, an in-service educational programme is a fundamental aspect of an education system (Nguyen 2020:1) that enables educators to update their educational and professional knowledge for more effective delivery (Nguyen 2020:1) but only little research has been conducted on educators' skills development in TVET colleges in South Africa, especially about managing students who abuse drugs. High schools and colleges are the best environments to institute preventive measures on drug abuse amongst students (Zarin et al 2019:12). A report (DHET 2016) stated that educators have low capacity skills, which correlate with the criticism that was made about TVET educators for not meeting the department's expectations on educators skills (Van der Bijl & Oosthuizen 2019:207). Education serves as the foundation for every country (Sedega, Mishiwo, Seddoh & Dokenoo 2018:50) and Munzhedzi (2017:1), shows that both present and prospective public servants must provide efficient, effective, non-partisan and oriented training (Aldahmash, Alshamrani, Alshaya & Alsarrani 2019:64), which include strategies on developing educators' skills (Nguyen 2020:2). Furthermore, educators' skills can be revitalised through in-service training (Nabil 2019:55), and areas of in-service training should pivot on the need to improve knowledge and skills when dealing with students in all aspects (Aldamash et al 2019:164). This means the educators' training programme should have an impact in decreasing or preventing drug abuse amongst students, which thus creates a conducive environment for teaching and learning (Manu & Maluleke 2017:21).

The national and international psychologists' organisation in Rahmani (2019:2), recommends that a life skill education programme ensures "abilities for adaptive and positive behaviour that enable individual's students to deal effectively with the demands and challenges of everyday life". Parson, Childs, and Elzie (2018:208) explain that educators should be involved in health training programmes, as this

improves the skills in teaching, learning, and instruction for educators, thereby promoting the health of the student and increasing knowledge and practices when dealing with students in all areas (Rahmani 2019:2). Skill development forms an essential part of education (Sowjanya & Havis 2019:63), in order to meet the needs of students in their learning environment. Therefore, an institution must have an effective strategy for educators' skills development that is aligned with the national skill development aim (Chaturvedi et al 2020:1661). However, effective delivery of educators' in-service training programmes is also essential at the national level (Van der Bijl & Oosthuizen 2019:205), regional and local levels to provide relevant information to educators when dealing with students (Sedega et al 2018:50), such as students who abuse drugs, thereby enhancing student problem-solving, decision-making and mental health (Long et al 2018:652).

2.13 OUTLINE OF AN IN-SERVICE TRAINING PROGRAMME FOR EDUCATORS

An in-service training outline is a schedule of a training programme (Nguyen 2020:4). The design of the in-service training programme must meet the appropriate specific needs of educators, students and institutions. To meet the specific needs of the TVET educators, their in-service training programme must include the following in the outline: a concept of training, training needs assessment, the subject area of training, contents and timing of training (El Hajjar & Alkhanazi 2018:3).

2.13.1 Concepts of training

Scholars have different views about the concepts of training. Patil et al (2018:816) state that training involves providing employees with specific skills and correcting deficiencies in their current job execution (El Hajjar & Alkhanazi 2018:1). Other researchers viewed training as a human resources management intervention that alters employees' behaviour in a direction that enables organisations to achieve their goals (Patil et al 2018:585, Polo, Cervai & Kantola 2018:163). Over years of training in institutions, training has been recognised by many as an extension to educational progress, which is indispensable to all educators (Mustikawati & Qomariah 2020:15).

High priority on continuous training and learning of educators improves their skills, performances and competencies when fulfilling their professional duties (Mustikawa & Qomariah 2020:15). Training is required to fill the gaps in skills and knowledge required by the institution (Arzu 2017:79, Mustikawati & Qomariah 2020:15), thus enhancing positive changes in the trainees in terms of knowledge acquisition, attitude and competencies (Jira, Weyessa, Mulatu & Bogale 2018:43).

2.13.2 Educators' training needs analysis versus educators' assessment

Akinniyi, Idowu, Marafa and Moyo (2018:103) emphasise that training needs assessment assists in identifying gaps in professional skills and how the gaps can be filled. Jira et al (2018:43) also indicate that training assessment occurs when there is insufficient knowledge amongst employees to perform their duties in an institution. Training needs analysis is used to analyse the reasons for gaps in training and the need for training (Patil et al 2018:858). More so, Mahmood, Hee, Yin, Siyafiqi and Hamli (2018:666) explain that training analysis is the first process of designing a training programme. According to Jira et al (2018:43) assessment serves as a diagnostic tool for training needs, thus enhance decision-making in the training method, with the participants and exact contents required for the training. In addition, the different ways to examine and evaluate a training programme and educators need competencies in a vocational educational institution against their objectives (Otoo & Mridula 2018:438). This needs assessment will identify the skills, and competencies of the educators (Dijkhuizen, Bustraan & De Beaufort 2018:2), as this will uncover educators' weaknesses and strengths, including job and task description (Dijkhuizen et al 2018:2). This will be useful for educators' current and future practices (Harendza et al 2019:2), and educators' competency can be assessed, examined and evaluated against their learning objectives (Dijkhuizen et al 2018:2). Assessment entails the overall working environment including the supervisory structure and the level of motivation (Park, Kang & Kim 2018:1). During the course of an assessment, educators' prior level of knowledge and skills are assessed including previous training and experiences, in the area of interest, for example drug abuse by students. Dijkhuizen et al (2018:2) state that the distribution of questionnaires, interviews, report writing are methods used to assess the training needs of an educator. In conclusion, needs assessment is required before implementing any educational programme (El

Hajjar & Alkhanazi 2018:3). This enables policy development at any institution, in order to identify educators' training needs, this should be continuous in identifying the kind of training required by the employees (educators) and to achieve the institutional objectives (Mahmood et al 2018:667). Al-zboon (2018:4), suggest that institutions should recognise the need to train educators on the management of students who abuses drugs.

2.13.3 Educators 'training needs versus educators 'performance

Concerning educators' training needs, the South African Development Plan emphasised work-integrated learning (Nukunah et al 2019:289). This approach enables on-the-job learning to educators to improve their work performances (El Hajjar & Alkhanazi 2018:1). Educators' training is a priority in any educational institution to improve their skills, knowledge and attitudes (McSparron, Huang & Miloslavsky 2018:1); also training is a learning experience that involves the transfer of knowledge in an institution (McSparron et al 2018:1). Lee and Welliver (2018:558) indicate that training enhances learning and educators' capabilities and commitment to the institution. Furthermore, the constant training of educators empowers the educators to achieve optimal objectives and performance (Nguyen 2020:2), thus improving educators' competencies. The competency of an educator could be skills, traits, and a body of knowledge which an individual uses during the teaching of students (Otoo & Mridula 2018:436). Competencies are important in educational institution management, as they are closely related to excellent work performances (Otoo & Mridula 2018:436), thereby boosting educators' efficiency and effectiveness (Mahmood et al 2018:667, Otoo & Mridula 2018:438). The training of employees (educators) depends on many factors such as skills, knowledge and attitude towards specific needs (Patil et al 2018:816). Factors such as appropriate learning resources (Klimas, McNeil, Ahamad, Mead, Rieb 2017:2), training contents, environment, materials, presentation style (El Hajjar & Alkhanazi 2018:2), and hands-on experience mentoring, career counselling and a supportive learning environment (Klimas et al 2017:2) enhance the flexibility of a standard training programme (Klimas et al 2017:2). The use of motivational strategies such as issuing of a certificate after completing the training course, conducive environments and appropriate materials sustain performance and improvement derived from training (El Hajjar & Alkhanazi 2018:2),

thus improving educators' knowledge when dealing with students abusing drugs. According to Rosas and David (2020:1), effort should be made to fill the consistency gap through training, and training should serve as a continuous professional development (McSparron et al 2018:1), which builds competencies, qualifications and performances of educators in a given education institution (El Hajjar & Alkhanazi 2018:1; Mahmood et al 2018:667) and educators effectiveness (Nguyen 2020:2). In-service training can be formal or informal to develop educators (Abdulwali et al 2019:164). Training educators has a positive influence on career development and work behaviour, thereby leading to the improved acquisition of more knowledge (objectives) (McSparron et al 2018:1), and an in-depth understanding of the needs of students (Klimas et al 2017:3).

2.13.4 Learning content and timing of an in-service training programme

According to Diaz Redondo, Caeiro Rodriguez, Lopez Escobar and Vilas (2021:2), learning content provides the format in a training programme, that is, the process of sequencing information during the training programme. Jarosova, Lorencova, Pubalova and Sedivy (2017:88) explain that the learning content in training should include methods of teaching and assessment such as role-play, interactive lectures, small and large group discussion, oral presentation, simulation, reflective methods (Bonyani et al 2018:3) feedback. Further the training environment should be conducive to learning and facilitates the achievement of the objectives of the training (Hassan et al 2020:36). Materials such as videos, textbooks, websites and technology can be used during an educators' training programme (Elghibari, Elouahbi & El Khoukhi 2018:131). Further, Abudullah et al (2019:3) suggest soft skills training for educators, the non-academic skills that include the area of personality. These soft skills can assist educators with the management of students who abuse drugs. In summary, a good in-service training programme should improve the competencies and performances of educators' (Rosas & David 2020:1).

The training programme learning content requires problem identification, through needs assessment, competencies, knowledge, skills and evaluation, which result in the acquisition of more knowledge, skills (Rosas & David 2020:1) and behaviour change (Elghibari et al 2018:131). This enhances the professional development of

educators to manage and support students who abuse drugs (Abdulwali et al 2019:164). According to Hila, Shobaki, Naser and Amana (2017:137), timing in training is one of the keys to success in any educational institution. The concept of time in an individual's perception varies, according to their motivation, needs and the nature of their jobs (Hila et al 2017:137). Furthermore, Wang and Wang (2018:1822) explain the three ways of grouping time: "time value", which is related to social and personal orientation, "time control", which is related to goal setting, planning and priorities and lastly, "time efficacy" which is related to time management (Wang & Wang 2019:1822). The time allocation is mostly used for planning ahead for the training programme (Wang & Wang 2018:1822). Time is characteristic of a combination of assessment, goal setting, planning and monitoring of activities (Bahadir 2018:115; Hila et al 2017:145). Time management is also known as self-management, that is, the skills of making apt decisions about how to allocate a training programme to both internal and external trainers (Nguyen 2020:2) and decisions about which days, months, years and periods (three to six hours) to hold the training (Hila et al 2017:145). Ongpoy, Nora, Capistrano, Geno, Ariel & Santos (2019:249) define timing of training as the duration required to accomplish educators' set goals (Hila et al 2017:137). Moreover, appropriate timing in training reduces job stress, improves performances and meets the set objectives (Bahadir 2018:115); inappropriate timing in training programme impedes reaching the desired goals on their predetermined date (Hila et al 2017:143). Timing in training depends on the ability of the individuals (educators) to analyse their time, knowledge of where and how to organise the in-service training programme (Hila et al 2017:141). Thus, timing is considered one of the criteria for success when arranging effective in-service training (Hila et al 2017:135).

2.14 SUMMARY

The chapter explored the relevant literature concerning educators' training needs on how to manage students who abuse drugs, the global concepts about drug abuse, the prevalence of drug abuse among college students and schoolchildren and the effects of drug abuse on students' academic performance.

The chapter also addressed the challenges encountered by college educators on students who abuse drugs, the roles of educators, educators' competency, skills and performances when managing students who abuse drugs and the role of TVET college. The chapter addressed the level of support to educators to manage students on drug abuse, through assessment of educator's training needs, training analysis, the in-service training programme for educators, the timing of the programme and contents of the programme. Thus, the literature review has informed the development of an outline for an educational programme for educators to support and manage students who abuse drugs. Futhermore, National Strategy for the Prevention and Management of substance abuse among students in colleges requires the integration of all care and support from teaching and learning institutions from national, provincial, district and school levels (Bala & Kang'ethe 2020:456; George 2017:33). This policies ensures National Strategy on Screening, Identification, Assessment and Support and the process of identifying, assessing and providing programs for all students requiring additional support to enhance participation and inclusion (George 2017:33).

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter represents the research design and methodology that focused on the development of an outline of an educators' in-service training programme at a college to manage student drug abuse. The description of the research design is the overall plan on how the research setting will be arranged to yield the desired data (Nieswiadomy & Bailey 2018:137), with the least possible error and ensuring consistency by intervening variables (Polit & Beck 2017:389). The methodology focused on the processes, tools and procedures utilised in the research study (Nieswiadomy & Bailey 2018:137), which include the data collection, study population, sampling method, measures of reliability and validity, and the ethical considerations.

3.2 RESEARCH PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVES

3.2.1 Research purpose

The purpose of the study was to develop an outline for an educators' in-service training programme at a college to manage students drug abuse.

3.2.2 Research objectives

The research objectives of this study were to:

- Explore and describe the training needs of educators at a college regarding the management of students drug abuse;
- Make recommendations on topics to be included in a in-service training program for educators at a college to manage students drug abuse..

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design is an outline of strategies researchers employ to develop accurate and clear evidence (Polit & Beck 2017:307). The research design guides the researcher regarding the method to be used to collect and analyse data (Brink, Van der Walt & Van Rensburg 2018:81), based on a specific question (Fain 2017:157). A research design should reflect an objective review of the literature and the design choice (Lobiondo-Wood & Haber 2018:173). A non-experimental quantitative descriptive design was used in the research. A non-experimental research design is mostly used in descriptive research (Maree 2019:193) to describe the relationships between variables (Salkind 2018:19) and lacks the manipulation of an independent variable (Nieswiadomy & Bailey 2018). Instead of manipulating an independent variable, researchers conducting non-experimental research simply measure relevant variables at a specific time (Maree 2019:193). The main purpose of non-experimental research is to describe, explore and explain the relationships between variables (Sibanyoni 2019:32) and to discover new knowledge (Fain 2017:168). Therefore, a non-experimental quantitative research design was used because no manipulation of independent variables was done and the researcher described the relationships between two variables (Swart, Kramer, Ratele & Seedat 2019:20). The data were collected by the researcher, using a formally structured, self-administered questionnaire, that included several variables such as the dependent variable (management of students who abused drugs) and the independent variable (educator's training programme). This was done to develop an in-service training programme outline for educators at the college to empower them to manage students who are abusing drugs.

3.3.1 Descriptive research

Descriptive research is often used as a precursor to quantitative research design (Brink et al 2018:96), with the general overview in data gathering techniques, survey, content analysis and field research (Salkind 2018:160) using individuals or groups of individuals as information sources (Fain 2017:168) and is also used to examine the relationship between variables (Brink et al 2018:138). Descriptive research focuses on the event that is present (Salkind 2018:20).

Descriptive research is the exploration and description of existing social phenomena (Fain 2017:168; Nieswiadomy & Bailey 2018:138). In this research, the researcher explored and described the training needs of educators at a college regarding the management of student drug abuse in order to develop an outline for educators' in-service training on managing student drug abuse. Therefore, the primary purpose of descriptive research is to use numbers and describe variables to outline steps to answer the research question (Salkind 2018:20; Polit & Beck 2017:304), relating to "what, who, where and how" (Brink et al 2018:134; Gray et al 2017:402), that are associated with particular research problem but it does not ascertain the answer to "why" (Salkind 2018:20). The "what" in this quantitative descriptive study refers to the in-service training needs of educators to manage student drug abuse, the "who" was used to describe the educators' needs while the "where" indicated the location or setting where the research was conducted as discussed in section 3.4. The "how" refers to the method used to collect data, which was through a self-administered questionnaire (Lobiondo-Wood & Haber 2018:265). The outcome of the research was used to describe the concepts and identify possible relationships between concepts that provide the basis for future quantitative research (Susan et al 2015:33). In this study, the researcher only described the training needs of educators at a college regarding the management of student drug abuse. As an outcome of the research, the researcher described a programme outline for educators' in-service training on managing student drug abuse, based on the results of the questionnaires (Chapter 5).

3.3.2 Exploratory research

An exploratory research design is frequently used in the context of limited knowledge (Nieswiadomy & Bailey 2018:138) and understanding of the subject being studied (Lawrence 2014:38). It is a flexible design that provides opportunities to examine all aspects of the problem being study (Nieswiadomy & Bailey 2018:138), thereby developing new ideas. Houser (2018:137) states that quantitative exploratory studies often explore and describe a phenomenon using survey methods. In this study limited information regarding the training needs of educators to manage students who abuse drugs was available, hence it was explored using a web-based questionnaire.

3.4 RESEARCH SETTING

The research setting refers to the site where the research study was conducted (Polit & Beck 2019:24). The site might be a natural, partially controlled or highly controlled research setting (Masaba 2019:102). The setting for this study was a college situated in one of the nine provinces in South Africa, namely the Limpopo Province. The Limpopo Province is positioned in the north-eastern corner of South Africa and borders Botswana, Zimbabwe and Mozambique (see Figure 3.1). It also shares borders with the provinces of Mpumalanga, Gauteng and North-West on its southern edge from east to west (Department of Statistics South Africa 2016:1). The chosen college is one of several TVET colleges in the Limpopo province. This college offers Vocational and National Accredited Technical Education Diploma courses (N4-N6), including primary health care and engineering. The institution consists of four (4) campuses and has 25616 students, served by 337 educators.

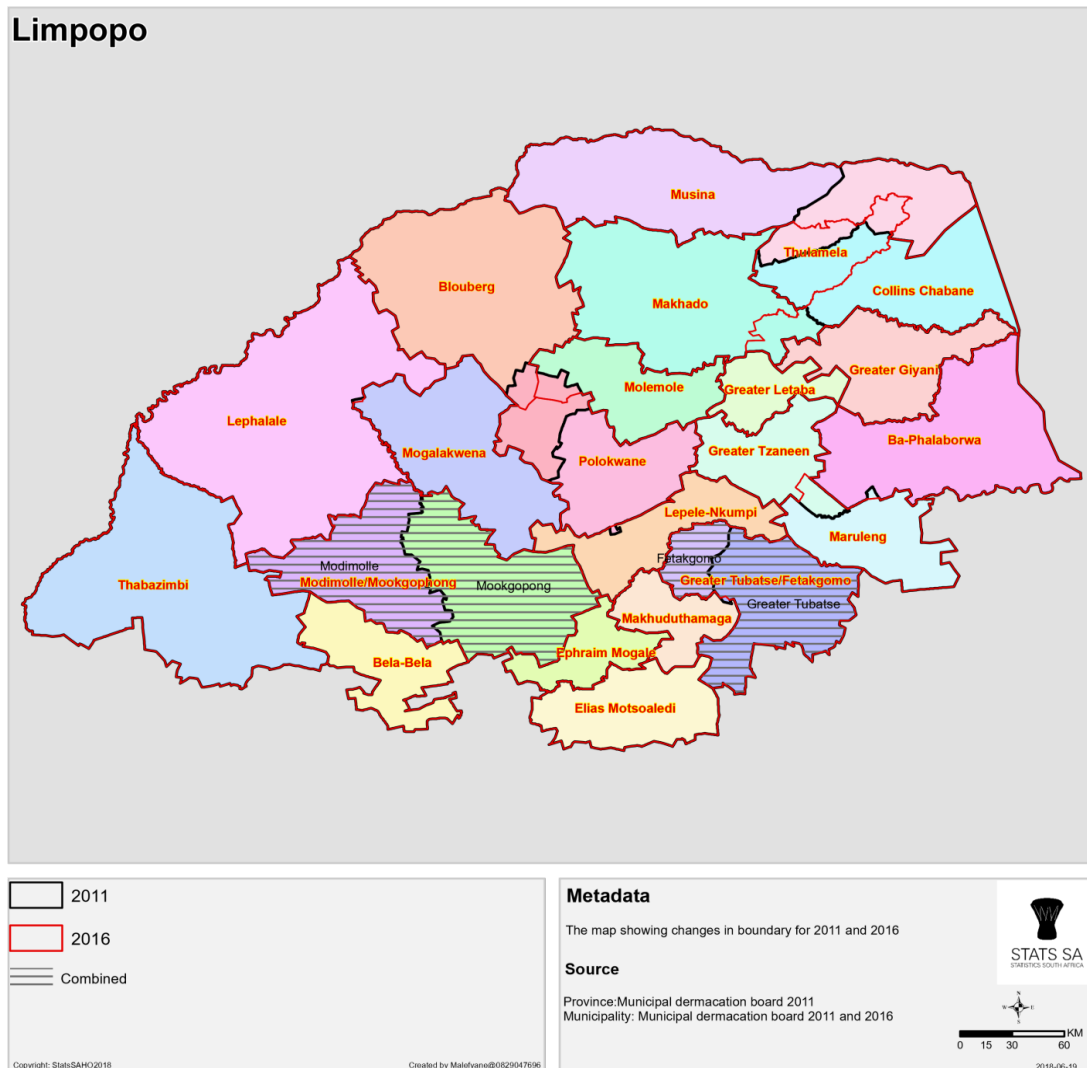


Figure 3.1 Map of Limpopo

3.4.1 Quantitative approach

Quantitative research is a systematic empirical research approach (Nieswiadomy & Bailey 2018:58), that quantifies data numerically and measurably (Maree 2019:184), through the use of a questionnaire (Gray et al 2017:77). The research aim is to describe variables statistically and determine differences among groups (Gray et al 2017:77).

According to Gray et al (2017:205), the variables can be measured typically through instruments (questionnaire), so that data can be analysed, using statistical procedures (Gray et al 2017:205). The variables focus on how they relate to each other and how they affect different groups (Leavy 2017:28). More so, quantitative questions rely on

directional language (Leavy 2017:28), which seeks cause and effects under study (Sibanyoni 2019:47). As for this research the relationship between drug abuse by the student (cause) and the educators' training programme (effect) were researched. Within the research, the approach enabled the researcher to make a probabilistic decision through statistical analysis (Johnson & Christensen 2014:83), which enabled her to generalise the findings (Nieswiadomy & Bailey 2018:6). The quantitative research approach ensures the generalisation of research findings, which accurately represents the population from which the research sample was drawn (Gray et al 2017:77).

3.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research methodology refers to the activities, processes and approaches used to collect data (Polit & Beck 2017:1283). In this section, the population, sample, data collection and analysis, validity, reliability and ethical considerations will be discussed.

3.5.1 Population

A population consists of a large group of individuals (Brink et al 2018:64), in which members possess specific attributes of interest to the researcher (Fain 2017:134). The population specifies various categories of interest (Leavy 2017:109). According to Brink et al (2018:118), representativeness and size are the two considered areas when generalising and drawing a conclusion from sample to target population. A target population is the entire group of persons or objects that is of interest to the researcher and to whom the result of the sample is generalised (Lobiondo-Wood & Haber 2018:227). An accessible population is the part of the target population to which the researcher has reasonable access, which might include elements within a country, city and state (Gray et al 2017:623; Susan et al 2015:266). The target and accessible population for this study were educators (N=337) teaching at a selected college in Limpopo province. Although, there are several TVETS colleges in Limpopo Province. The results, was not generalised to other TVETS colleges because only one college in Limpopo Province was used as sample in this research.

3.5.2 Inclusion and exclusion criteria

Eligible criteria consist of the list of characteristics for eligibility in the target population (Gray et al 2017:619) and distinguish the characteristics of the target population (Susan et al 2015:267). The following criteria were set to be included. The respondents were educators teaching at the four campuses of the selected college. Educators who were excluded were those who had an immediate relationship with the researcher, which was the researcher's husband and those who taught at a college outside Limpopo province. Exclusion criteria are those characteristics that exclude the respondents from the target population (Brink et al 2018:117).

3.5.3 Sample and sampling

A sample is a small set of elements taken from a large population (Fain 2017:135); the sample is needed to represent the population accurately (Nieswiadomy & Bailey 2018:64). The larger the sample size, the more it represents the population (Cohen et al 2018:203) and the more accurate the conclusion than if a smaller sample is used (Brink et al 2018:118). In this study, when the sample size calculator was used to calculate the sample with a 5% margin error and a confidence level of 95%, the sample amounted to 180 educators. However, after consultation with the statistician, it was decided to use the entire population, a census or all-inclusive sample (N=337), in order to ensure that all population were enumerated and to reduce the margin of error, because the larger the sample size, the lower the margin of error (Leavy 2017:77). Sampling refers to the selection process that represents the unit of population in a study (Lobiondo-Wood & Haber 2018:225) in order to make a statistical inference from the sample of the whole population (Leavy 2017:76; Taherdoost 2016:20).

Census sampling refers to quantitative methods in which all members of the population are enumerated (Nicholas 2017:25) which reduces the probability of errors. Census sampling is the complete enumeration of the universe, or the total process of collecting, analysing and evaluating an individual related to its subject matter of enquiry (Nicholas 2017:25). Census sampling has the following advantages:

1. Census sampling captures a wide spectrum of the population, which allows for the total representation of all individuals required for the research, thus the best sources of information in population data and statistics. A census sample data provided a data set that represented the educators of the selected college
2. Census sampling is used as a sample frame for subsequent field inquiry.
3. Census sampling shows the maximum chances of identifying negative feedback, which is highly observed in an online-web based questionnaire.
4. Census sampling provides data, which is extremely useful in databases for planning and policy making (Nicholas 2017:44).

Nicholas (2017:45) further indicated that census sampling has the following disadvantages:

1. Census sampling is very expensive, in terms of finance, technical and human resources. The researcher made use of a web-based questionnaire to collect data from respondents which reduced the cost of human resources to collect data.
2. Census sampling may increase the decline response rate, to minimise the decline response the researcher has attached an information leaflet with information regarding the research to the consent letter.
3. Census sampling only provides information at the time of research and may not give information about the population

3.6 DATA COLLECTION

The data collection process is a systematic process of gathering information relevant to the research objectives and purpose of a study (Nieswiadomy & Bailey 2018:190).

3.6.1 Data collection instrument

A quantitative data collection instrument namely, a structured self-administered questionnaire (Annexure B) was used for this study. A questionnaire, constituted by a list of questions related to the research study, was used for data collection (Lobiondo-Wood & Haber 2018:266), a tool frequently used in survey research (Leavy 2017:101).

A questionnaire is an instrument in which questions are presented consistently to minimise bias as indicated by Gray et al (2017:281). In this study an on-line web-based questionnaire was emailed to the respondents. A web-based questionnaire is a technological tool used for survey research for data collection through the internet (Malallah, Saied, Alasaady & Shareef 2019:27), where the completed questionnaire is emailed back from the respondents to the researcher (Brink et al 2018:143).

Google Docs is a cloud-based data management tool, which is freely available on the internet for anyone to use who has a Google account (Sivakumar 2019:35). The web-based questionnaire was developed using Google Docs. The Google platform allowed the researcher to email a link to the web-based questionnaire to respondents. The Google platform allows data responses and data coding through Google data coding sheets on each respondent's responses in survey research can be captured on a daily basis (Sivakumar 2019:35). It also ensures data analysis and graphical presentation of data through spreadsheet format (Sivakumar 2019:35 36). The respondents were required to click on the link, complete the questionnaire and click on the submit button. After submitting the questionnaire, the questionnaire was emailed to the researcher anonymously which ensured respondents' confidentiality. The researcher gained access to the completed questionnaires by entering a password which she selected.

The researcher developed a web-based questionnaire (Annexure B). The researcher could not find an instrument that would address the purpose and objectives of the study in her literature search. To assist with the development of the questionnaire the researcher read different peer-reviewed articles and dissertations that addressed the key concepts of the study. A structured self-administered questionnaire that contains closed and open-ended questions in English was developed. The questions were formulated, considering the relevancy, objectivity, suitability, and the likelihood of reception and return (Leedy & Ormrod in Brink et al 2018:139). A statistician and the supervisors assisted with the development of the questionnaire. It was also reviewed by the UNISA Scientcom and HSREC.

The questionnaire used to collect the data was divided into the following sections:

1. Section A: Respondents' demographic information;

2. Section B: Respondents' ability to recognise students who abuse drugs, indicating the likelihood on a 5-point Likert scale, where one (1) equalled 'extremely unlikely' and five (5) 'extremely likely';
3. Section C: Respondents' most frequently used method to manage students whom they suspect abuse drugs, indicating on a 5-point Likert scale, where one (1) equalled 'never' and five (5) 'always';
4. Section D: Respondents' training needs could be selected according to a yes or no option in terms of the training they had received and which in-service training method is preferred.

Sections B to D were followed by an open-ended question. Table 3.1 displays a summary of the composition of the questionnaire.

Table 3.1 Composition of the questionnaire

Sections	Addressed items
Section A Items 1-5	Gender, age, position at the college, highest level of education, and years of lecturing experience
Section B Items 6-21	Recognition of students who are suspected of displaying manifestations of drug abuse.
Section C Items 22-36	Educator's management of students regarding drug abuse
Section D Items 37-53	An indication of training received and the nature of the intended in-service training

3.6.2 Pre-testing the questionnaire

Pre-testing of a questionnaire allows the researcher to identify errors (Brink et al 2018:161), to determine whether the questions are understandable (Polit & Beck 2017:393), that it is free from major biases and if it provides the desired information (Brink et al 2018:142).

Testing the instrument should be done with respondents who have similar characteristics to 10-20 respondents in the sample (Polit & Beck 2017:392) but are not part of the final sample (Nicholas 2017:31). The purpose of pre-testing the questionnaire was duly explained to the Head of the Department at the college and the respondents. The questionnaire was pre-tested among 15 educators at one of the selected colleges in the Capricorn district in Limpopo Province, South Africa, through the on-line web-based method, with the assistance of the Head of the Department. The pre-tested data collected assisted the researcher to analyse whether the questionnaire would achieve the research objectives. After analysing the data, a few flaws were identified based on the sequence of the numbering of the questions and two numbers were omitted, i.e., those questions that did not correlate with the contents. The researcher modified the numbering of the questions according to the research contents and its sequences.

3.6.3 Data collection process

The researcher was not able to collect the data in person due to lockdown restrictions and regulations on Covid-19 preventive measures. The researcher then asked for data collection amendment through the research ethics committee to enable her to collect the data through an online web-based questionnaire. The data were collected by the researcher during level one lockdown from 26 January 2021 to 7 April 2021.

The researcher obtained permission from the college research committee Annexure E and the four (4) campus managers who acted as the gatekeepers to the respondents. Each campus manager with the assistance of the Information Technology college coordinator sought the consent of the respondents to obtain their email addresses for research purposes. An information leaflet with information regarding the research and a letter seeking permission to conduct research was emailed to each respondent. The researcher explained the purpose of the research to the respondents in the information leaflet. The request to conduct the research also included the consent form, the permission letter and a link to the web-based questionnaire in the email to the respondents.

This allowed the respondents to familiarise themselves with the information leaflet and complete the questionnaire at a time that suited them and the college the best. The web-based platform allowed for confidentiality; the respondents' email addresses were not revealed when emailed and a total of 337 (N=337) emails to respondents requesting them to participate were sent to respondents and 186 (n=186) completed questionnaires were received back.

3.7 DATA MANAGEMENT AND ANALYSIS

Data management involves the organisation of data, from the entry to the research cycle through the dissemination and archiving of valuable results (Chigwada, Chiparausha & Kasiroori 2017:2). This ensures reliable verification of results and permits new innovative results built on existing information (Chigwada et al 2017:2). Also, data management ensures the confidentiality of data by the researcher. Data were managed through the proper collection, organisation and storage of findings and sharing of data (Cohen et al 2018:646). Data were exported from Google Docs onto the researcher's laptop. The data were checked for completeness, accuracy and clarity by the researcher. The accuracy of the data was ensured through a centralised online database, the results was capture and stored in a based digital data base. Data clearing and screening of the question was done and later sent to statistician. The data was prepared by entering the data on a statisical software programme for discussion of finding and analysis. The data was kept in a password-protected file on the researcher's laptop, to prevent invasion by an unauthorised person; this ensured the confidentiality and privacy of the data collected (Cohen et al 2018:128). Personal identifiers were removed from research-related information; encryption was used, for confidentiality purposes. The researcher and supervisor were the only persons who had access to the computer-based records that were password-protected. The electronic records of this research were stored on a password protected file on the researcher laptop. The data for this research study will be kept for a period of five (5) years in line with the UNISA research data management policy when the researcher will permanently delete the files from the computer. The outcome of the research was used to describe the concepts and possible relationships identified between concepts that can provide the basis for future quantitative research (Susan et al 2015:33).

Coding of the data is required in quantitative research when managing data (Leavy 2017:111; Salkind 2018:131). Coding means a systematic process of re-organising raw data into a format that is easy to analyse using statistical software on a computer (Lobiondo-Wood & Haber 2018:181; Lawrence 2014:393). The coding procedure involves the researcher creating and consistently applying rules for transferring information from one form to another (Salkind 2018:131; Lawrence 2014:394).

A codebook is a document describing the coding procedure and computer file location in a format that the computer can use (Brink et al 2018:181; Lawrence 2014:394), that is, the coding numbers, assigned to a certain number they are attributed to (Nicholas 2017:61). While managing data, data records are important; the data record is the report in the computer database that contains information on the variables for a case (Lawrence 2014:394; Leavy 2017:151).

3.7.1 Statistical analysis

Data analysis is the process of evaluating data using analytical and logical reasoning to examine each component of data provided (Brink et al 2018:165). Statistical analysis is the most essential tool in quantitative data analysis (Brink et al 2018:166; Sibanyoni 2019:58), which are classified according to the level of measurement (Lobiondo-Wood & Haber 2018:298). The researcher reduced, summarised and organised the collected data by employing the statistical package IBM SPSS statistics version 23 programme and Microsoft Excel (Pallant 2016:9).

Descriptive and inferential statistical analysis were used to measure the frequency distribution and central tendencies such as mean, median, mode and standard deviation (Leavy 2017:111). Explorative statistical analysis was conducted through graph plotting such as histograms, bar charts and pie charts, (Lobiondo-Wood & Haber 2018:234).

3.7.1.1 Descriptive analysis

Descriptive analysis is used to describe samples in research and identify the casual effects (Loeb, Dynarski, Mcfarland, Morris, Reardon & Reber 2017:1). Descriptive statistics can stand on its own to identify a pattern in data that has not been previously known (Salkind 2018:133). Descriptive statistics assisted the researcher in answering the research questions.

Descriptive statistics such as mean, frequencies and standard deviation were used to show the trends of substance abuse and how educators can manage college students on drug abuse and finding were presented in tables to be vividly seen. Descriptive statistics are used to describe the basic features of the data in a study and form the basis of quantitative data analysis (Fain 2017:264). Descriptive statistical analyses were conducted on the responses of all participants (n=186). Descriptive statistics explained and summarised data collected by the researcher. How the data, were used to show the trends of the knowledge of educators on how to recognise students suspected of drug abuse, management of students regarding drug abuse and indication of training received and nature of the intended outline on in-service training programme. Descriptive statistics also indicated “what data looks like” (Salkind 2018:133). In this study, the researcher described the training needs of educators at a college regarding the management of students drug abuse. A 5-point Likert scale is a summated rating scale in which the item score are added to obtain the the final result (Brink et al 2018:1). Frequencies (f) of responses on a five-point Likert scale for all the 186 respondents in terms of items on recognising students who abuse drugs. The frequencies were presented both numerically and as percentages.

The mean (\bar{x}) of each item on recognising students who abuse drugs. The mean is the most widely used measure of central tendency (Polit & Beck, 2017:648).The standard deviation (SD) for each item for recognising students who abuse drugs. The SD is the average amount of variation around the mean and provides information on the distribution of the single values in the sample (Nieswiadomy 2018:239). A high SD indicated that the data was widely spread around the mean and a low SD indicates that the data was clustered around the mean (Haber & wood 2018:303; Nieswiadomy

2018:239). The Mann-Whitney test analysis was used to compare the different groups' (independent variable) responses.

3.7.1.2 *Inferential analysis*

Inferential analysis focuses on the process of the data sample and drawing an inference from the population (Nieswiadomy & Bailey 2018:230). Inferential statistics have several functions: they are also used for generalisation of findings from the data collected (Maree 2019:242); they are used to analyse data collected to answer the research questions in the research (Lobiondo-Wood & Haber 2018:298); and to make an inference beyond study data from the sample collected (Leavy 2017:112). Inferential statistics are also used to determine confidence intervals (Nieswiadomy & Bailey 2018:251). Inferential statistics was sample data drawn to make inferences about the research population (Brink et al 2018:166). Inferential statistics was used to examine the association and comparisons between two groups (Brink et al 2018:166). Common comparison statistical tests were the Independent t-test, Paired t-test, One-way repeated measures ANOVA, Friedman's test and Mann-Whitney test (Gray et al 2017:1093).

In this research, a Fisher-exact test was used in the inferential statistics (Wright, Borbolla, Waller, Fiol, Reese, Nesbitt & Segall 2019:3) to generalise the educators' in-service training programme at a college to manage students who drug abuse. Further, inferences and the confidence interval were used to analyse data regarding the gender, age, educators' position at the college, the highest qualification level of educators, years of lecturing experience, recognising a student who abuses drugs, educators' management of students regarding drug abuse and educators' training needs. The Mann-Whitney test analysis was used to compare the different groups (independent variable) responses.

The descriptive and data were presented as tables and figures in Chapter 4 of this study. As already mentioned, the analysis of data was done in all the four campuses by the researcher with the assistance of a statistician, using IBM SPSS statistics version 23 programme and Microsoft Excel (Pallant 2016:9).

3.7.2 Data analysis open-ended questions

An open-ended questionnaire are question that requires short answer, in other to explore and understand the process and to dig in depth of the topic (Hyman & Sierra 2016:3). An open-ended questions allows respondents to share their view without restriction (Lobiondo-Wood & Haber 2018:266). Open ended question ensures the researcher to probed further for more information in other to enrich the data collected (Hyman & Sierra 2016:3). The researcher requested the respondents to add additional information to acquire an indepth information regarding, recognising students who abses drug, training needs of educators at a college regarding the management of student drug abuse and what topics should be included in the in-service training programme for educators at a college to manage student drug abuse.

Thematic coding is a method for identifying, analysing, describing and reporting themes found in data (Nowell, Norris, White & Moules 2017:2). Thematic coding was used to analyse the open-ended questions as thematic coding assists the researcher in data analysis (Nowell et al 2017:2).

The developed questionnaire was used to extract only the necessary information from the four campuses (college) respondents. The process started with the approval of the letter of permission from the college research committee and the four (4) campus managers who acted as the gatekeeper for the recruitment of respondents. The data were checked for completeness, accuracy and clarity by the researcher.

3.8 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

The rigour of a study indicates the extent to which the researcher adheres to the detail and accuracy of the processes followed (Gray et al 2017:34). These include the study design, purpose, sampling, instruments and control applied (Gray et al 2017:34). For the results of a study to be authentic and accurate, strategies of validity and reliability should be employed. Below is a discussion of the measures that were employed in this study to enhance the validity and reliability of the study.

3.8.1 Validity

Validity is defined as the extent to which a concept is accurately measured in a quantitative study (Leavy 2017:113). External validity refers to the generalisation of the results beyond the sample used (Asgedom 2017:70). Since an all-inclusive sample (census sampling) was used, the results could be generalised for similar settings which enhanced the external validity of the study.

There are various types of validity described to measure different aspects of the instrument. In this study, instrument validity was established through face and content validity.

3.8.1.1 Face validity

Face validity refers to the degree to which an instrument measures the aimed construct (Maree 2019: 262) and is usually evaluated by experts (Gray et al 2017: 209). The instrument (questionnaire) was reviewed by a statistician, supervisors and cleared by UNISA's HSREC. In addition, the researcher asked colleagues to review the questions of the data collection instrument. These activities led to several revisions of the questionnaire.

3.8.1.2 Content validity

Content validity is the extent to which a research instrument accurately measures all aspects of a construct (Leavy 2017:113). According to Polit and Beck (2017:561), content validity includes consultation with experts regarding the relevance, comprehension and balance of the items (questions) of the instrument. Apart from the advice followed by the experts, the researcher did a literature review to conceptualise the main concepts.

3.8.2 Reliability

Reliability refers to the consistency of measuring concepts (Gray et al 2017:692), and to the methods used to measure concepts that would yield the same measurements

under different situations (Polit & Beck 2017:588). The nearer the measure is to 1, the higher the correlation (Brink et al 2018:156). The coefficient of reliability ranges from 0.00 to 1.00 (Fain 2017:245) so the completely reliable coefficient test has a coefficient of 1.00 and the unreliable coefficient has 0.00 (Fain 2017:245). To increase the reliability of the questionnaire, it was pre-tested to identify flaws and determine the time requirements for completion (Nicholas 2017:31).

3.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

According to Pera, Van Tonder & Van der Wal (2019: 369), ethics of science concerns what is wrong and what is right when conducting research. The primary purpose of research ethics is to ensure the researcher's respondents are protected from both physical and psychological harm (Salkind 2018:78). Cohen et al (2018:112) state that ethical considerations should be made from the beginning of the project design and at various stages through to the end. Ethical principles are those principles relevant to the conduct of research involving human subjects. The principle of beneficence, human right and justice was adhered to (Maree 2019:48; Susan et al 2015:98).

3.9.1 Institutional permission

According to Maree (2019:49), ethical approval and clearance are required. The researcher obtained ethical approval and clearance from the UNISA Scientcom and College Research Ethics Committee (CREC) (Annexure D). Pera et al (2019:379) indicate that before a study is done, the researcher needs to obtain approval from the gatekeeper to gain access to the research site and the study respondents. Using the ethical clearance certificate from UNISA, the researcher also sought permission, from the college research committee of the selected college through the human resources department's research committee, head of research and the campus managers of each campus, which was duly granted (Annexures E and F). Each of the four campus managers, who served as the gatekeeper for the respondents where the research was done, were consulted and the research was duly (approved Annexure E and F).

3.9.1.1 Respondents

The ethical principle of respect for persons was applied (Anabo, Elexpuru-Albizuri & Villardón-Gallego 2019:141). According to Anabo et al (2019:141), respect for a person is the acknowledgement of a respondent's autonomous participation and the process to protect respondents with diminished autonomy through informed consent. The researcher's executed fairness in the research study by upholding mutual respect and acknowledging the respondents' beliefs and values. The web-based questionnaires were mailed to the researcher without any identifiable respondents' details when the respondents submitted the completed online questionnaire.. Confidentiality ensures legal protection (Cohen et al 2018:130). Confidentiality in the context of research study means the consensus reached with the researcher on what can be done with the information obtained from the respondents (Brink et al 2018:31), that is the assurance that the respondents' information was not be revealed except for the purpose of the research study (Pera et al 2019:378). Confidentiality was maintained throughout the research through proper data management to ensure anonymity and privacy of the respective research sites including individual respondents and by avoiding the collection of respondents' names or personal details that may identify them. The collected data were only used for the purpose of the study and the confidentiality form (Annexure A) which was approved by UNISA's CREC guided protection of the respondents' confidentiality. The respondents' data were only discussed between the researcher and her supervisor. The data were cleaned to prevent identifying the institution's name.

Self-determination of the respondents was respected. The respondents decided if they wanted to participate in the research (Anabo et al 2019:143; Pera et al 2019:377) and the information leaflet explained voluntary participation and withdrawal, rights of respondents, anonymity and confidentiality (Pera et al 2019:377). In the research, the respondents' privacy was secured through confidentiality and anonymity (Pera et al 2019:378). The researcher ensured that the respondents' data and responses were kept anonymously and she ensured the identity of the respondents cannot be tracked as the researcher did not request the respondents' names (Anabo et al 2019:144).

Also anonymity is the best way to protect the privacy and identity of the respondents to the researcher (Brink et al 2018:30). The anonymity of the respondents was maintained in this research by not requesting the respondents to indicate their personal information such as name and emails were protected (Cohen et al 2018:132), which also enhanced the privacy of the respondents (Brink et al 2018:30). Privacy occurs when the extent, time and general circumstances, under which respondents' information may be shared or withheld are protected (Pera et al 2019:378); in other words, to prevent an invasion of privacy and to ensure confidentiality and anonymity in the research, respondents' information such as name, opinions and beliefs should not be shared except for the purpose of the research study (Pera et al 2019:378).

Each campus manager, with the assistance of the Information Technology college coordinator, sought the consent of the respondents to obtain their email addresses for research purposes. An information leaflet with information regarding the research and voluntary participation (Anabo et al 2019:141), together with a letter seeking permission to conduct research was emailed to each respondent (Annexure E). The researcher explained the purpose of the research to the respondents in the information leaflet (Annexure A and B). The permission letter and link to the web-based questionnaire were included in the email to the respondents. This allowed respondents to familiarise themselves with the information leaflet and complete the questionnaire at a time that suited them and the college the best.

a) Respondents in relation to human rights

As individuals are autonomous, they have the right to self-determination (Pera et al 2019:376) and therefore, they have the freedom to conduct their lives as autonomous agents, without external control (Pera et al 2019:376). The human rights in the research study indicated that the respondents had the right to voluntarily participate (Leavy 2017:35) or withdraw at any point of time without any penalty or consequence (Maree 2019:48). The respondents had the right to ask questions at any time during the course of the research study (Leavy 2017:35). The respondents had the right to be briefed on the purpose of the study, the implications of the study and nature of the proposed intervention (Pera et al 2019:377).

More so, the respondents had the right to consent to the research and to make an informed decision on whether to participate or not (Maree 2019:48). In this research, all respondents who met the required criteria were provided with written informed consent form (Annexure A). The informed consent contained a detailed summary of the study's purposes and the applied ethical principles. The respondents were informed in the email that by starting the web-based questionnaire they provided consent to participate in the research. The respondents' participation was voluntary and a respondent who refused to fill in the questionnaire (Annexure B), was not forced to do so.

3.9.2 Justice

Justice in research occurs when human subjects are the respondents in the research and must be treated fairly in terms of benefit and risk of the research (Brink et al 2018:30). Respondents were treated fairly in this study since they were selected without social, cultural or sexual biases. A census sampling method was followed to invite all the study respondents based on a pre-determined criterion. The researcher revised the data collection method after the COVID-19 pandemic outbreak to minimise the risk of respondents' exposure to the virus.

3.9.3 Beneficence

The principle of beneficence ensures that the researchers minimise harm, that is "do no harm" (Leavy 2017:32) and maximise benefit "do good" (Polit & Beck 2017:211). Beneficence ensures protection from physical and mental harm (Brink et al 2018:29) such as limiting inconvenience due to time limits, curbing stress, apprehension and avoiding any forms of humiliation (Pera et al 2019:378). The researcher not only need to protect the physical and psychological aspects of the respondents but also their emotional aspects such as worries about what they disclosed to the researcher (Pera et al 2019:378). The researcher ensured a favourable environment by allowing the respondents to fill the questionnaire at their own convenient time and place, thus, ensuring the respondents' anonymity, confidentiality and the privacy when answering the questionnaire.

The respondents will benefit if the suggested outline on an educational programme for educators is implemented to support students regarding drug abuse at the college.

3.9.4 Researcher integrity

The researcher's integrity refers to honesty in a research study that is commonly accepted within the scientific community when conducting and writing research reports, which are indisputable and incontrovertible (Pera et al 2019:383), thus preventing misconduct in the research study in various ways. Misconduct is behaviour such as falsification and fabrication of data through inappropriate analysis techniques, plagiarism (Brink et al 2018:36) and the dishonest manipulation of design and method of analysis (Pera et al 2019:383).

In this research study, the researcher enhanced scientific integrity through an understanding of the scientific integrity process underlying the research through rigorous reviewing of literature, journals, articles and research textbooks. The researcher was fully committed to the research ethics to the best of her knowledge and ability, with the assistance of the supervisor and a strong determination to refrain from falsification, fabrication of data and plagiarism. Thus, the researcher ensured that all sources and references used in the research study were acknowledged. The research process and its subsequent findings were analysed without manipulation of data and all information obtained from the respondents during data analysis was duly analysed in phases.

3.10 CONCLUSION

This chapter explained the research design and methodology used for the study which entailed the quantitative non-experimental research design, research setting, population, sampling, census method of data collection, data management and analysis. The fundamental ethical principles applied in the study were discussed. In the next chapter the data analysis and interpretation of the research findings will be described and presented.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the analysis and presentation of data. The purpose of the study was to develop an outline for an educators' in-service training programme at a college to manage students' drug abuse.

The research objectives of this study were to:

1. Explore and describe the training needs of college educators regarding the management of student drug abuse.
2. Make recommendations on topics to be included in a in-service training program for educators at a college to manage students drug abuse.

The research questions identified were:

1. What are the training needs of educators at a college regarding the management of student drug abuse?
2. What topics should be included in the in-service training programme for educators at a college to manage student drug abuse?

Data analysis is the process of evaluating data using analytical and logical reasoning to examine each component of data provided (Brink et al 2018:165; Lawrence 2014:393). Statistical analysis is the most essential tool in quantitative data analysis (Brink et al 2018:166; Sibanyoni 2019:58), which are classified according to the level of measurement (Lobiondo-Wood & Haber 2018:298). Quantitative data analysis refers to the data that are number-based, for example, the data collected in this study were easily converted into numbers without losing the meaning (Maree 2019:184). Quantitative data measure the differences in the group and relationships between variables (Creswell 2014:32; Leavy 2017:28).

4.2 DATA MANAGEMENT AND ANALYSIS

Data collection occurred from 26 January to 7 April 2021. The researcher distributed 337 questionnaires to respondents across the four campuses via email with a link to the web-based questionnaire to minimise the risk of COVID-19 transmission. A total of 186 (N=186, 100,0%) fully completed questionnaires were returned, which give a response rate of 55,1%.

The data in this study were analysed with the assistance of an independent statistician using IBM, SPSS statistics version 23 programme (Pallant 2016:9), and Microsoft Excel. The designed statistical data analysis was applied to analyse all the responses of respondents to the questionnaire items relating to demographic information, recognising students who abuse drugs, educators' management of students regarding drug abuse and educators' training needs, using descriptive, inferential and explorative statistical analysis. Open-ended question items were analysed using thematic analysis.

The researcher used a web-base structure questionnaire consisting of four sections to collect data from respondents.

Section A: Demographic information (Items 1-5)

Section B: Recognising students who abuse drugs (Items 6-21)

Section C: Educators' management of students regarding drug abuse (Items 22-36)

Section D: Educators' training needs (Items 37-53)

The findings for each heading of the questionnaire was discussed as follows:

- Descriptive statistics (N=186) was used to described and summarised the data collected by the researcher, and described what data looks like (Neil 2018:133). Descriptive statistics relating to frequencies (f), the mean (\bar{x}) and standard deviation (SD) on some of the items under each heading was described. All positive respondents (N=186) were included in the descriptive analysis.
- Inferential statistics (N=186) were used to analyse data collected to make comparisons between variables (Brink et al 2018:166).

- Explorative statistics analysis was conducted through graph plotting such as histograms, bar charts and pie charts and scatter graphs (Lobiondo-Wood & Haber 2018:234). Explorative statistics graphs was used to describe patterns within the data and relations among variables.

4.3 SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC OF RESPONDENTS (ITEM 1-5)

Information about the respondent's age, gender, the highest level of education, and years of lecturing at the educational institution was obtained from the responses on items in the questionnaire.

4.3.1 Gender distribution of respondents (Item 1)

Figure 4.1 shows the demography of the respondents in terms of gender. The total number of female respondents were 108 (58,0%) while 78 (42,0%) were male.

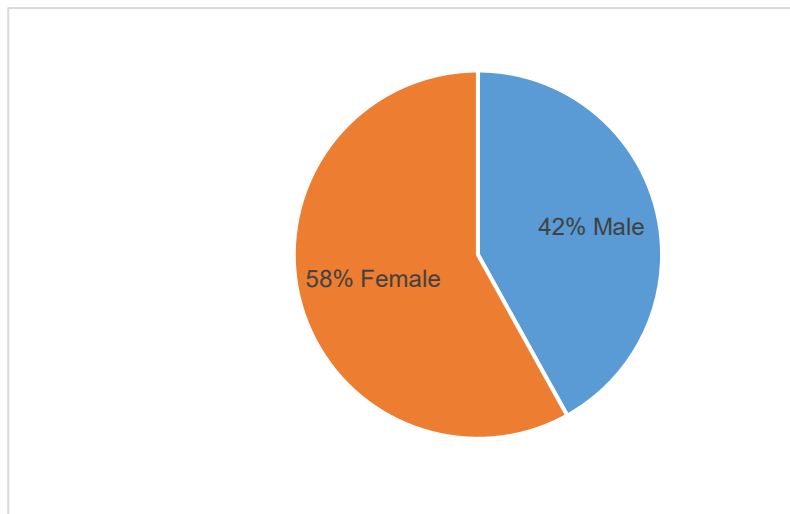


Figure 4.1 Gender distribution of respondents (N=186)

4.3.2 Age of respondents (Item 2)

Table 4.1 showed the ages of respondents between 24 and 46+ years and the findings indicated that just more than half of the respondents (n=96, 51,6%), were between 36-45 years, and nearly a quarter of the respondents were between 24-35 years (n= 45,

24,2%) and above 46 years (n=43, 23,1%) of age. Among the 186 respondents, two (2) of the respondents did not report their age.

Table 4.1 Age distribution of respondents

Age distribution		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	24 - 35 years	45	24,2%	24,5%
	36 - 45 years	96	51,6%	52,2%
	46+ years	43	23,1%	23,4%
	Total	184	98,9%	100,0%
Missing	System	2	1,1%	
Total		186	100,0%	

4.3.3 Current position at educational institution (Item 3)

The current position of the respondents held at the education institution as shown in Figure 4.2 reflects the most junior level to the most senior level at the education institution. Two of the 186 (100%) respondents did not report their current position appointed in the educational institution. The largest proportion were junior educators (n=83 45,0%), and senior educators, (n=82, 45,0%) while the departmental heads represented (n=15, 8,0%) and campus managers (n=4, 2,0%) respectively.

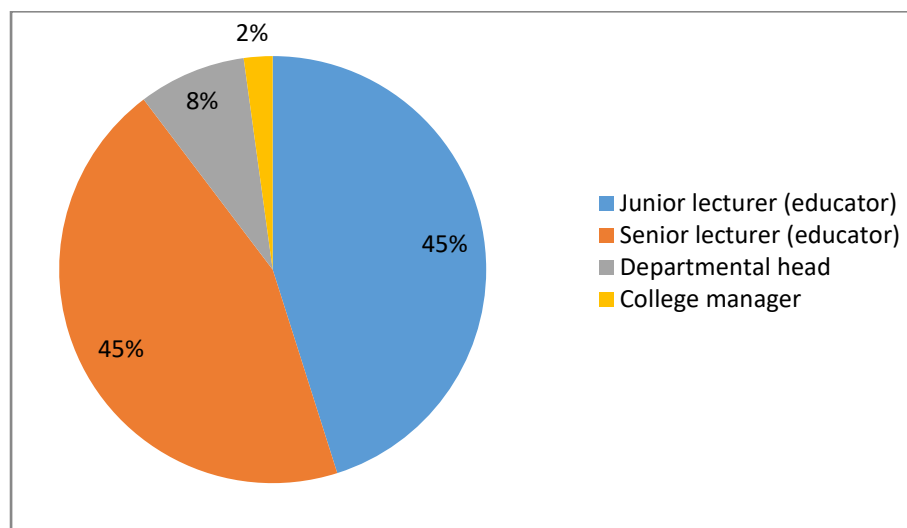


Figure 4.2 Current position held by respondents at the educational institution (n=184)

4.3.4 Educational qualification of respondents (Item 4)

As seen in Figure 4.3 nearly half (n= 87, 46,8%) of the educators had a diploma and a third (n=62, 33,3%) had an undergraduate degree. Twenty-one (11,3%) of the

respondents responded that they had a postgraduate qualification. The least of the respondents (n=15, 8,1%) indicated in their responses that they had a NCV, a certificate acquired in TVET colleges which is equivalent to NQF level 2, and one respondent did not report any qualifications obtained.

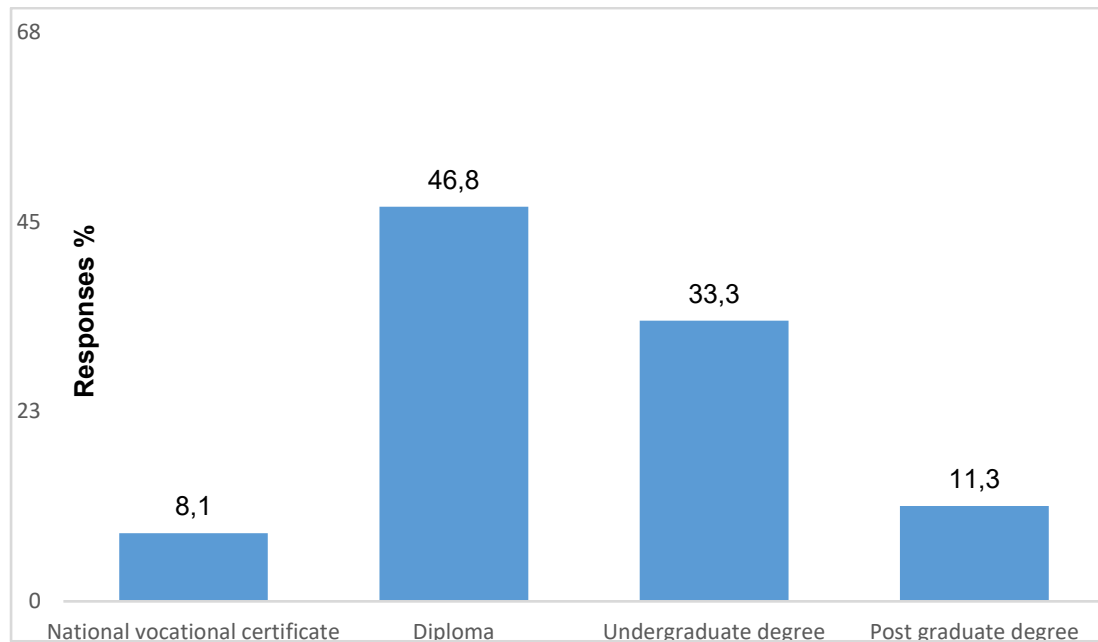


Figure 4.3 Professional qualifications of respondents (n=185)

4.3.5 Length of service at the educational institution (Item 5)

Respondents were asked to select the number of years they had been working at the education institution. Results, as shown in Figure 4.4, indicated that 3 (1,6%) were working less than one year at the education institution, 35 (18,8%) were working between 1-5 years, 33 (17,7%) between 6-10 years, 28 (15,1%) between 11-15 years, 40 (21,5%) between 16-20 years, 33 (17,7%) between 21-25 years and 14 (7,5%) reported that they have been working 26 years and longer at the education institution.

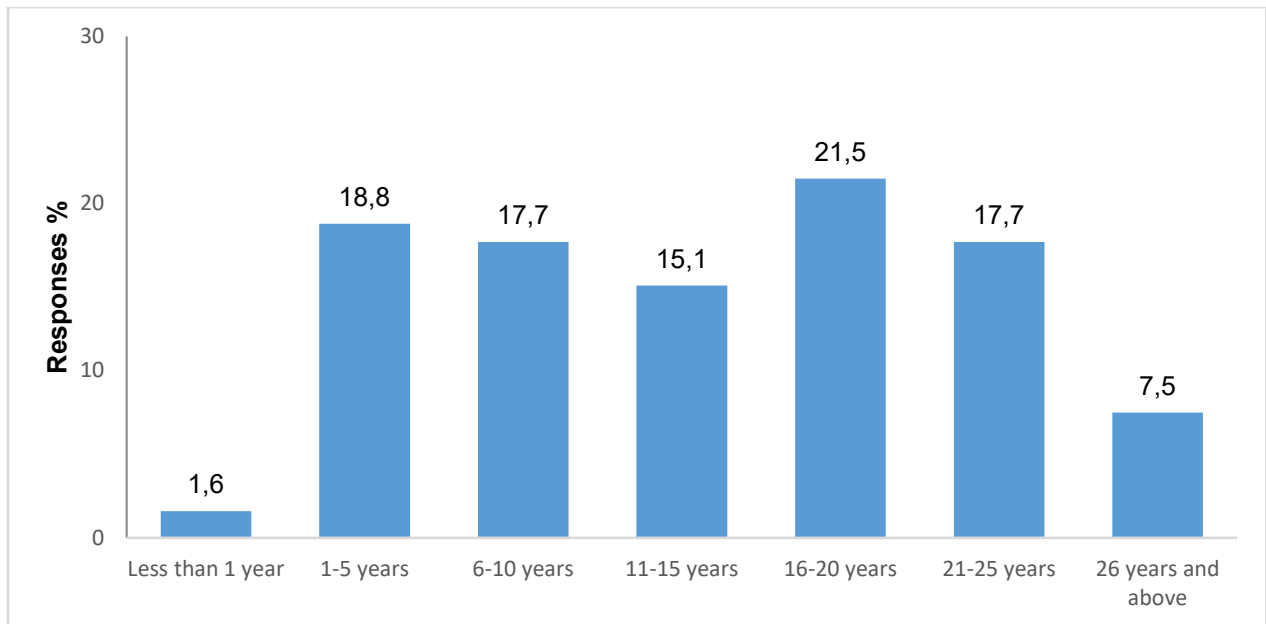


Figure 4.4 Number of years respondents been appointed at the educational institution (n=186)

4.4 SECTION B: RECOGNISING STUDENTS WHO ABUSE DRUGS (ITEM 6-21)

4.4.1 Descriptive statistics: Recognising students who abuse drugs

Table 4.2 represent the responses for each item. The mean (\bar{x}) scores for recognising students who abuse drugs ranged between 3.92 and 4.90 with a standard deviation (SD) between 0,347 and 0,524 with one SD of 1,228. This indicates that the data were clustered around the mean except for the SD of 1,228. More than 91,4% (n=168, \bar{x} = 4,90, SD = 0,354) of the educators who responded to the statement that students who were suspected to abuse drugs are extremely likely to display disruptive behaviour (Item 11) and 88,1% (n=163, \bar{x} = 4,88, SD = 0,347) educators indicated that it was extremely likely that students who were suspected of abusing drugs would show a lack of concentration in the classroom (Item 17). Only one (0,6%, \bar{x} = 4,87, SD = 0,416) respondent indicated that it was unlikely that students who were suspected to abuse drugs would demonstrate inappropriate behaviour (Item 14) and two (1,1%, \bar{x} = 4,87, SD = 0,416) were neutral to the statement. Five (2,7%) educators were neutral to the statement that students who were suspected of abusing drugs would demonstrate delinquent behaviour (Item 7) while the rest of the educators responded that it was

likely (n=21, 11,3%) and extremely likely (n=160, 86,6%, \bar{x} = 4,83, SD = 0,440). More than 80% of the educators responded that it was extremely likely that students who are suspecting of abusing drugs will demonstrate poor academic performance (n=152, 84,9%, \bar{x} = 4,83, SD = 0,445, (Item 6), poor interpersonal relationship (n=157, 85,3% \bar{x} = 4,83, SD = 0,470) (Item 18), repeat subjects, (n=165, 89,2%, \bar{x} = 4,83, SD = 0,440) (Item 19), signs of being stressed (n=157, 83,7%, \bar{x} = 4,82, SD = 0,498) (Item 10), come late for class, (n=154; 83,7%, \bar{x} = 4,82, SD = 0,454) (Item 12), tend to have unnecessary arguments with classmates (n=155, 85,2%, \bar{x} = 4,82, SD = 0,460) (Item 13), signs of depression (n=157, 84,4%, \bar{x} = 4,81 SD = 0,479) (Item 8), participate in organised riots (n=155, 84,2%, \bar{x} = 4,80, SD = 0,510) (Item 16), poor personal care (n=153, 82,4%, \bar{x} = 4,79, SD = 0,514) (Item 9), and hyperactivity (n=153, 84,3%, \bar{x} =4,79, SD=0,542) (Item 15).

Item 21 was an open-ended question where educators were asked to provide any additional information that they thought was important. The open-ended question provide the respondents an opportunity to share thoughts that was not included in the close-ended questions. Table 4.3 Illustrates the responses from eighteen respondents who provided their opinion on recognising characteristics of students on drug abuse. The responses were analysed using thematic analysis. The data were organised using a coding system to draw meaningful conclusions and themes from the data (Linnerberg & Korsgaard 2019:3). Thematic analysis of these responses revealed some direct responses that align with items that were asked in the questionnaire which were: Inappropriate behaviour (Item 14) and tend to have poor interpersonal relationships (Item 18). The researcher concluded that Item 21 revealed no additional information about educators' opinions on the behaviour students would demonstrate when they were suspected of using drugs.

Table 4.2 Descriptive statistics: Recognising students who abuse drugs (Items 6-20)

Items on students who are suspected to abuse drugs will most likely display the following:	Extremely unlikely		Unlikely		Neutral		Likely		Extremely likely		Total		\bar{x}	SD
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%		
Disruptive behaviour (Item 11)	0	0,0	0	0,0	3	1,6	13	7,0	168	91,4	185	100,0	4,90	0,354
A lack of concentration in the classroom (Item 17)	0	0,0	0	0,0	1	0,5	21	11,4	163	88,1	185	100,0	4,88	0,347
Inappropriate behaviour (Item 14)	0	0,0	1	0,6	2	1,1	17	9,5	159	88,8	179	100,0	4,87	0,416
Poor academic performance (Item 6)	0	0,0	1	0,5	2	1,1	25	13,5	157	84,9	185	100,0	4,83	0,445
Delinquent behaviour (Item 7)	0	0,0	0	0,0	5	2,7	21	11,3	160	86,6	186	100,0	4,83	0,440
Poor interpersonal relationship (Item 18)	0	0,0	2	1,1	1	0,5	24	13,0	157	85,3	184	100,0	4,83	0,470
Repeat subjects (Item 19)	0	0,0	2	1,1	1	0,5	17	9,2	165	89,2	185	100,0	4,83	0,440
Signs of being stressed (Item 10)	0	0,0	2	1,1	3	1,6	21	11,5	157	85,8	183	100,0	4,82	0,498
Come late for class (Item 12)	0	0,0	1	0,5	2	1,1	27	14,7	154	83,7	184	100,0	4,82	0,454
Tend to have unnecessary arguments with classmates (Item 13)	0	0,0	1	0,5	3	1,6	23	12,6	155	85,2	182	100,0	4,82	0,460
Sign of depression (Item 8)	0	0,0	1	0,5	4	2,2	24	12,9	157	84,4	186	100,0	4,81	0,479
Participate in organised riots (Item 16)	0	0,0	1	0,5	6	3,3	22	12,0	155	84,2	184	100,0	4,80	0,510
Poor personal care (Item 9)	1	0,5	0	0,0	3	1,6	29	15,6	153	82,4	186	100,0	4,79	0,514
Hyperactivity (Item 15)	1	0,5	1	0,5	1	0,5	30	16,1	153	82,3	186	100,0	4,79	0,524

Table 4.3: Responses to open-ended question (Item 21)

Responses	n	%
Educators should take careful consideration as drug abuse does not have the same effect on our body.	1	0,5%
Excessive sleep	1	0,5%
Fight with other students	3	1,6%
Fight with colleagues	1	0,5%
Fighting with mate	2	1,1%
Fighting with other students	1	0,5%
Irrational laughter	2	1,1%
Irrational talk	4	2,2%
Irrational talk in class	1	0,5%
None	1	0,5%
Students laugh unnecessarily in the class.	1	0,5%
Student may be too talkative	1	0,5%
Fight with colleagues	1	0,5%
Talk to self	1	0,5%
Talkativeness	1	0,5%
They may like commit suicide if care is not taken	1	0,5%
Unnecessary laughter	1	0,5%
Use of violent language	1	0,5%

4.4.2 Inferential statistics: Recognising students who abuse drugs

Inferential statistics were determined on the responses of the educators (n= 186) to compare the different groups' responses to responses of Items in the questionnaire.

This assisted the researcher to determine if different groups training needs differ in the development of the in-service training programme outline. A Fisher-exact test was more accurate than a chi-square test and was recommended when the total sample size is less than 1000 (Wright et al 2019:3). Therefore, a Fisher–exact test was applied to section B that relates to recognising students who abuse drugs. A Fisher exact test, a non-parametric alternative to the chi-square test, was carried out. Variables with a p-value <0.05 deemed statistically significant and will be described.

Table 4.4 Cross tabulation poor academic performance

		Unlikely n (%)	Neutral n (%)	Likely n (%)	Extremely likely n (%)	p-value
Gender	Male	0 (0,0)	1 (1,3)	14 (17,9)	63 (80,8)	0.319
	Female	1 (0,9)	1 (0,9)	11(10,3)	94 (87,9)	
Age	24-35 years	1 (2,2)	2 (4,4)	7 (15,6)	35 (77,8)	0.001
	36-45 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	17 (17,9)	78 (82,1)	
	46+ years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	43 (100)	
Position at the TVET college	Junior lecturer	1 (1,2)	2 (2,4)	13 (15,9)	66 (80,5)	0.455
	Senior lecturer	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	12 (14,6)	70 (85,4)	
	Departmental Head	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	15 (100)	
	College manager	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	4 (100)	
Highest level of education	National vocational certificate	0 (0,0)	1 (6,7)	4 (26,7)	10 (66,7)	0.365
	Diploma	1 (1,2)	1 (1,2)	10 (11,6)	74 (86,0)	
	Undergraduate degree	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	8 (12,9)	54 (87,1)	
	Postgraduate degree	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	2 (9,5)	19 (90,5)	
Length of lecturing at the college	Less than 1 year	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	3 (100,0)	0.000
	1-5 years	0 (0,0)	1 (2,9)	15 (42,9)	19 (54,3)	
	6-10 years	0 (0,0)	1 (3,0)	8 (18,2)	26 (78,8)	
	11-15 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	3 (10,7)	25 (89,3)	
	16-20 years	1 (2,6)	0 (0,0)	1 (2,6)	37 (94,9)	
	21-25 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	33 (100,0)	
	26 years and above	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	14 (100,0)	

As seen in Table 4.4 most of the educators of the different age groups age 24-35 years, (n=35, 77,8%), age 36-45 years, (n= 78, 82,1%), age 46+ years, (n=43, 100,0%) were of the opinion that it was extremely likely that students who were suspected to abuse drugs would perform academically poorly (Item 6). All (100,0%)

the educators who were at the education institution for longer than 21 years as well as the educators less than a year (n=3 100,0%), 21-25-years (n=33, 100,0%) and 26 years above (n=14, 100,0%) responded that it was extremely likely that students who were suspected to abuse drugs would perform poorly academically compared to educators who were at the education institutions for a lesser time duration 1-5 years (n=19, 54,3%), 6-10 years (n=26, 78,8%), 11-15 years (n=25, 89,3%), 16-20 years (n=37, 94,9%). There was a difference in responses from the educators who were at the institution between 1-5 years than the other educators.

Table 4.5 Cross tabulation delinquent behaviour

		Unlikely n (%)	Neutral n (%)	Likely n (%)	Extremely likely n (%)	p-value
Gender	Male	0 (0,0)	1 (1,3)	14 (17,9)	63 (80,8)	0.227
	Female	1 (0,9)	1 (0,9)	11(10,3)	94 (87,9)	
Age	24-35 years	1 (2,2)	2 (4,4)	7 (15,6)	35 (77,8)	0.154
	36-45 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	17 (17,9)	78 (82,1)	
	46+ years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	43 (100)	
Position at the TVET college	Junior lecturer	0 (0,0)	3 (3,6)	9 (10,8)	71 (85,5)	0.601
	Senior lecturer	0 (0,0)	2 (2,4)	11 (13,4)	69 (84,1)	
	Departmental Head	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	15 (100,0)	
	College manager	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (25,0)	3 (75,0)	
Highest level of education	National vocational certificate	0 (0,0)	2 (13,0)	3 (75,0)	12 (80,0)	0.234
	Diploma	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	8 (12,9)	76 (87,4)	
	Undergraduate degree	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	8 (12,9)	54 (87,1)	
	Postgraduate degree	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	3 (14,3)	18 (85,7)	
Length of lecturing at the college	Less than 1 year	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	3 (100,0)	0.151
	1-5 years	0 (0,0)	2 (5,7)	8 (22,9)	25 (71,4)	
	6-10 years	0 (0,0)	2 (6,1)	4 (12,1)	27 (81,8)	
	11-15 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	5 (17,9)	23 (82,1)	
	16-20 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	2 (5,0)	38 (95,0)	
	21-25 years	0 (0,0)	1 (3,0)	1 (3,0)	31 (93,9)	
	26 years and above	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (7,1)	13 (92,9)	

As seen in Table 4.5 none of the educators responses were significant.

Table 4.6 Cross tabulation of signs of depression

		Unlikely n (%)	Neutral n (%)	Likely n (%)	Extremely likely n (%)	p-value
Gender	Male	0 (0,0)	1 (1,3)	12 (15,4)	65 (83,3)	0.675
	Female	1 (0,9)	3 (2,8)	12 (11,1)	92 (85,2)	
Age	24-35 years	1 (2,2)	1 (2,2)	7 (15,6)	36 (80,0)	0.044
	36-45 years	0 (0,0)	2 (2,1)	1 (16,7)	78 (81,3)	
	46+ years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (2,3)	42 (97,7)	
Position at the TVET college	Junior lecturer	1 (1,2)	4 (4,8)	12 (14,5)	66 (79,5)	0.230
	Senior lecturer	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	11 (13,4)	71 (86,6)	
	Departmental Head	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0(0,0)	15 (100,0)	
	College manager	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (25,0)	3 (75,0)	
Highest level of education	National vocational certificate	1(6,7)	1 (6,7)	3 (20,0)	10 (66,7)	0.111
	Diploma	0 (0,0)	3 (3,4)	9 (10,3)	75 (86,2)	
	Undergraduate degree	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	7 (11,3)	56 (88,7)	
	Postgraduate degree	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	4 (19,0)	17 (81,0)	
Length of lecturing at the college	Less than 1 year	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	3 (100,0)	0.003
	1-5 years	1 (2,9)	1 (2,9)	12 (34,3)	21 (60,0)	
	6-10 years	0 (0,0)	1 (3,0)	5 (15,2)	27 (81,8)	
	11-15 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	3 (10,7)	25 (89,3)	
	16-20 years	0 (0,0)	2 (5,0)	2 (5,0)	36 (90,0)	
	21-25 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	33 (100,0)	
	26 years and above	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	2 (14,3)	12 (86,12)	

Comparing the time duration educators were lecturing at the educational institution with the responses that students who were suspected of abusing drugs would display signs of depression (Item 8) was illustrated in Table 4.6 More than 80% of the educators' from each time duration at education institution group less than 1 year (n=3, 100,0%), 6-10 years (n=27, 81,8%), 11-15 years (n=25, 89,3%), 16-20 years (n=36, 90,0%), 21-25 years (n=33, 100,0%) and 26 years above (n=12, 85,0%) were of the opinion that it was extremely likely that students who were suspected to abuse drugs would display signs of depression comparing to 60% (n=21) of the educators who were lecturing at the educational institution for 1-5 years who responded that it was extremely likely. This could mean that educators working at the education institution

for 1-5 years had less knowledge on identifying students who were abusing drugs. These results were statistically significant ($p=0.003$).

Table 4.7 Cross tabulation poor personal care

		Unlikely n (%)	Neutral n (%)	Likely n (%)	Extremely likely n (%)	p-value
Gender	Male	0 (0,0)	1 (1,3)	14 (17,9)	63 (80,8)	0.882
	Female	1 (0,9)	2 (1,9)	15 (13,9)	15 (13,9)	
Age	24-35 years	0 (0,0)	2, (4,4)	5 (11,1)	38 (84,4)	0.157
	36-45 years	1 (1,0)	1 (1,0)	19 (19,8)	75 (78,1)	
	46+ years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	3 (7,0)	40 (93,0)	
Position at the TVET college	Junior lecturer	0 (0,0)	3 (3,6)	17 (20,5)	63 (75, 9)	0.290
	Senior lecturer	1 (1,2)	0 (0,0)	10 (12,2)	71 (86,6)	
	Departmental Head	0,(0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (6,7)	14 (93,3)	
	College manager	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1, (25,0)	3 (75,0)	
Highest level of education	National vocational certificate	0 (0,0)	2 (13,3)	2 (13,3)	11 (73,3)	0.196
	Diploma	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)	13 (14,9)	72 (82,8)	
	Undergraduate degree	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	8 (12,9)	54 (87,1)	
	Postgraduate degree	0, (0,0)	0 (0,0)	5 (23,8)	16 (76,7)	
Length of lecturing at the college	Less than 1 year	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	3 (100,0)	0.332
	1-5 years	0 (0,0)	2 (5,7)	8 (22,9)	25 (71,4)	
	6-10 years	0 (0,0)	1 (3,0)	8 (24,2)	24 (72,7)	
	11-15 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	5 (17,9)	23 (82,1)	
	16-20 years	1 (2,5)	0 (0,0)	4 (10,0)	35 (87,5)	
	21-25 years	0 (0,,0)	0 (0,0)	2 (6,1)	31 (93,9)	
	26 years and above	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	2 (14,3)	12 (85,7)	

As seen in Table 4.7 none of the responses received regarding poor personal care (Item 9) and in Table 4.8 responses received regarding being stressed (Item 10) were statistically significant.

Table 4.8 Cross tabulation signs of being stressed

		Unlikely n (%)	Neutral n (%)	Likely n (%)	Extremely likely n (%)	p-value
Gender	Male	1 (1,3)	0 (0,0)	11 (14,5)	64 (84,2)	0.357
	Female	1 (0,9)	3 (2,8)	10 (9,3)	93 (86,9)	
Age	24-35 years	1 (2,3)	0 (0,0)	7 (16,3)	35 (81,4)	0.333
	36-45 years	1 (1,1)	3 (3,2)	11 (11,6)	80 (84,2)	
	46+ years	0 (0,0)	0(0,0)	2 (4,7)	41 (95,3)	
Position at the TVET college	Junior lecturer	1 (1,3)	2 (2,5)	11 (13,8)	66 (82,5)	0.322
	Senior lecturer	1 (1,2)	0 (0,0)	9 (11,0)	72 (87,8)	
	Departmental Head	0 (0,0)	1 (6,7)	0 (0,0)	14 (93,3)	
	College manager	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (25,0)	3 (75,0)	
Highest level of education	National vocational certificate	1 (6,7)	1 (6,7)	2 (13,3)	11 (73,3)	0.313
	Diploma	1 (1,2)	1 (1,2)	8 (9,3)	76 (88,4)	
	Undergraduate degree	0 (0,0)	1 (1,6)	6 (9,8)	54 (88,5)	
	Postgraduate degree	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	4 (20,0)	16 (80,0)	
Length of lecturing at the college	Less than 1 year	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	3 (100,0)	0.075
	1-5 years	1 (3,0)	1 (3,0)	10 (30,3)	21 (63,6)	
	6-10 years	1 (3,1)	1 (3,1)	4 (12,5)	26 (81,3)	
	11-15 years	0 (0,0)	1 (3,6)	2 (7,1)	25 (89,3)	
	16-20 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	2 (5,0)	38 (95,0)	
	21-25 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	2 (6,1)	31 (93,9)	
	26 years and above	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (7,1)	13 (92,9)	

As seen in Table 4.9 none of the responses received regarding disruptive behaviour were statistically significant.

Table 4.9 Cross tabulation disruptive behaviour

		Unlikely n (%)	Neutral n (%)	Likely n (%)	Extremely likely n (%)	p-value
Gender	Male	0 (0,0)	3 (3,8)	5 (6,4)	70 (89,7)	0.173
	Female	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	8 (7,5)	99 (92,5)	
Age	24-35 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	11 (24,4)	34 (75,6)	0.167
	36-45 years	1 (1,1)	2 (2,1)	13 (13,8)	78 (83,0)	
	46+ years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	2 (4,7)	41 (95,3)	
Position at the TVET college	Junior lecturer	1 (1,2)	2 (2,4)	16 (19,3)	64 (77,1)	0.933
	Senior lecturer	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	10 (12,5)	70 (87,5)	
	Departmental Head	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (6,7)	14 (93,3)	
	College manager	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	4 (100,0)	
Highest level of education	National vocational certificate	0 (0,0)	1 (6,7)	5 (33,3)	9 (60,0)	0.992
	Diploma	0 (0,0)	1 (1,1)	11 (12,6)	75 (86,2)	
	Undergraduate degree	1 (1,7)	0 (0,0)	6 (10,0)	53 (88,3)	
	Postgraduate degree	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	4 (19,0)	17 (81,0)	
Length of lecturing at the college	Less than 1 year	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	3 (100,0)	0.467
	1-5 years	1 (2,9)	2 (5,7)	12 (34,3)	20 (57,1)	
	6-10 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	8 (24,2)	25 (75,8)	
	11-15 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	2 (7,7)	24 (92,3)	
	16-20 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	2 (5,0)	38 (95,0)	
	21-25 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	3 (9,1)	30 (90,9)	
	26 years and above	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	14 (100,0)	

As seen in Table 4.10 more than 75% of each of the male (n=58, 75,3%) and female (n=96, 89,7%) responses indicate that it was extremely likely that students who were suspected of abusing drugs would come late for class, (Item 12). This was statistically significant (p= 0.018).

Table 4.10 Cross tabulation for coming late for class

		Unlikely n (%)	Neutral n (%)	Likely n (%)	Extremely likely n (%)	p-value
Gender	Male	1 (1,3)	1 (1,3)	17 (22,1)	58 (75,3)	0.018
	Female	0 (0,0)	1 (1,9)	10 (9,3)	96 (89,7)	
Age	24-35 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	11 (24,4)	34 (75,6)	0.070
	36-45 years	1 (1,1)	2 (2,1)	13 (13,8)	78 (83,0)	
	46+ years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	2 (4,7)	41 (91,3)	
Position at the TVET college	Junior lecturer	1 (1,2)	2 (2,4)	16 (19,3)	64 (77,1)	0.521
	Senior lecturer	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	10 (12,5)	70 (87,5)	
	Departmental Head	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (6,7)	14 (93,3)	
	College manager	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	4 (100,0)	
Highest level of education	National vocational certificate	0 (0,0)	1 (6,7)	5 (33,3)	9 (60,0)	0.088
	Diploma	0 (0,0)	1 (1,1)	11 (12,6)	75 (86,2)	
	Undergraduate degree	1 (1,7)	0 (0,0)	6 (10,0)	53 (88,3)	
	Postgraduate degree	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	4 (19,0)	17 (81,0)	
Length of lecturing at the college	Less than 1 year	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	3 (100,4)	0.001
	1-5 years	1 (2,9)	2 (5,7)	12 (34,3)	20 (57,1)	
	6-10 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	8 (24,2)	25 (75,8)	
	11-15 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	2 (7,7)	24 (92,3)	
	16-20 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	2 (5,0)	36 (95,0)	
	21-25 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	3 (9,1)	30 (90,0)	
	26 years and above	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	14 (100,0)	

Most of the educators' responses indicated that it was extremely likely that students who were suspected of abusing drugs would come late for class, (Item 12), less than 1 year (n=3,100,0%), 6-10 years (n=25, 75,8%), 11-15 years (n=24, 92,3%), 16-20 years (n=38, 95,0%), 21-25-years (n=30, 90,9%) and 26 years above (n=14, 100,0%) (Table 4.10) compared to 57,1% (n=20) educators who are 1-5 years at the education institution whose opinion was that it was extremely likely. These results were statistically significant (p= 0.001). This may indicated that over 90% of the educators in this category agreed to varying degrees between likely and extremely likely, sentiment.

Table 4.11 Cross tabulation for tending to have unnecessary arguments with classmates

		Unlikely n (%)	Neutral n (%)	Likely n (%)	Extremely likely n (%)	p-value
Gender	Male	1 (1,3)	2 (2,6)	13 (16,9)	61 (79,2)	0.148
	Female	0 (0,0)	1 (1,0)	10 (9,5)	94 (89,5)	
Age	24-35 years	0 (0,0)	1 (2,3)	9 (20,9)	33 (76,7)	0.063
	36-45 years	1 (1,1)	2 (2,1)	13 (13,8)	78 (83,0)	
	46+ years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (2,3)	42 (97,7)	
Position at the TVET college	Junior lecturer	0 (0,0)	2 (2,5)	9 (11,4)	68 (88,1)	0.210
	Senior lecturer	1 (1,2)	0 (0,0)	13 (15,9)	68 (82,9)	
	Departmental Head	0 (0,0)	1 (6,7)	0 (0,0)	14 (93,3)	
	College manager	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (25,0)	3 (75,0)	
Highest level of education	National vocational certificate	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	2 (14,3)	12 (85,7)	0.920
	Diploma	1 (1,2)	2 (2,4)	8 (9,5)	73 (86,9)	
	Undergraduate degree	0 (0,0)	1 (1,6)	8 (12,9)	53 (85,5)	
	Postgraduate degree	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	4 (19,0)	17 (81,0)	
Length of lecturing at the college	Less than 1 year	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	3 (100,0)	0.075
	1-5 years	0 (0,0)	1 (3,2)	7 (22,6)	23 (74,2)	
	6-10 years	1 (3,0)	2 (6,1)	5 (15,2)	25 (75,8)	
	11-15 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	6 (21,4)	22(78,6)	
	16-20 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (2,5)	39 (97,5)	
	21-25 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	2 (6,1)	31 (93,9)	
	26 years and above	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	2 (14,3)	12 (85,7)	

As seen in Table 4.11 none of the responses received regarding having unnecessary arguments with classmates were statistically significant.

More than 70% of the educators' of the age 24-35 years (n=32, 74,4%) and more than 90% of the educators, age 36-45 years (n= 84, 92,3%) and 95,0% of the age 46+ years (n=41, 95,3%) were of the opinion that it was extremely likely that students who were suspected to abuse drugs would display inappropriate behaviour (Item 14), (Table 4.12). These results were statistically significant (p=0.002).

Table 4.12 Cross tabulation for inappropriate behaviour

		Unlikely n (%)	Neutral n (%)	Likely n (%)	Extremely likely n (%)	p-value
Gender	Male	0 (0,0)	1 (1,3)	6 (7,9)	69 (90,8)	0.886
	Female	1 (1,0)	2 (1,1)	17 (9,5)	159 (88,8)	
Age	24-35 years	0 (0,0)	2 (4,7)	9 (20,9)	32 (74,4)	0.002
	36-45 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	7 (7,7)	84 (92,3)	
	46+ years	1 (2,3)	0 (0,0)	1 (2,3)	41 (95,3)	
Position at the TVET college	Junior lecturer	0 (0,0)	2 (2,6)	6 (7,7)	70 (89,7)	0.450
	Senior lecturer	1 (1,3)	0 (0,0)	11 (13,8)	68 (85,0)	
	Departmental Head	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	15 (100,0)	
	College manager	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	4 (100,0)	
Highest level of education	National vocational certificate	0 (0,0)	1 (8,3)	0 (0,0)	11 (91,7)	0.531
	Diploma	1 (1,2)	1 (1,2)	8 (9,5)	74 (88,1)	
	Undergraduate degree	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	7 (11,5)	54 (88,5)	
	Postgraduate degree	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (4,8)	20 (95,2)	
Length of lecturing at the college	Less than 1 year	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	3 (100,0)	0.874
	1-5 years	0 (0,0)	1 (3,2)	5 (6,1)	25 (80,6)	
	6-10 years	0 (0,0)	1 (3,0)	3 (9,1)	29 (87,9)	
	11-15 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	3 (10,7)	25 (89,3)	
	16-20 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	2 (5,1)	37 (94,9)	
	21-25 years	1 (3,2)	0 (0,0)	3 (9,7)	27 (87,1)	
	26 years and above	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (7,1)	13 (92,9)	

Comparing the difference in educators' age with responses on students who were suspected to abuse drugs would display hyperactivity, most of the educators age 24-35 years (n=33, 73,3%), age 36-45 years (n= 77, 80,2%), age 46+ years (n=41, 95,3%), were of the opinion that it is extremely likely that students who are suspected to abuse drugs would display hyperactivity (Table 4.13). These results are statistically significant (p=0.025). Comparing the difference in educators' age with responses on students who were suspected to abuse drugs would display hyperactivity, most of the educators age 24-35 years (n=33, 73,3%), age 36-45 years (n= 77, 80,2%), age 46+ years (n=41, 95,3%), were of the opinion that it is extremely likely that students who are suspected to abuse drugs would display hyperactivity (Table 4.13). These results are statistically significant (p=0.025).

Table 4.13 Cross tabulation for hyperactivity

		Extremely unlikely n (%)	Unlikely n (%)	Neutral n (%)	Likely n (%)	Extremely likely n (%)	p-value
Gender	Male	0 (0,0)	1 (1,3)	1 (1,3)	14 (17,9)	62 (79,5)	0.413
	Female	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	16 (14,8)	91 (84,3)	
Age	24-35 years	1 (2,2)	1 (2,2)	0 (0,0)	10 (22,2)	33 (73,3)	0.025
	36-45 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (1,0)	18 (18,8)	77 (80,2)	
	46+ years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	2 (4,7)	41 (95,3)	
Position at the TVET college	Junior lecturer	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (1,2)	17 (20,5)	64 (77,1)	0.553
	Senior lecturer	1 (1,2)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	11 (13,4)	70 (85,4)	
	Departmental Head	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (6,7)	14 (93,3)	
	College manager	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (25,0)	3 (75,0)	
Highest level of education	National vocational certificate	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	6 (40,0)	9 (60,0)	0.151
	Diploma	0 (0,0)	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)	11 (12,6)	74 (85,1)	
	Undergraduate degree	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	8 (12,9)	54 (87,1)	
	Postgraduate degree	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	5 (23,8)	16 (76,2)	
Length of lecturing at the college	Less than 1 year	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	3 (100,0)	0.001
	1-5 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (2,9)	15 (42,9)	19 (54,3)	
	6-10 years	0 (0,0)	1 (3,0)	1 (3,0)	6 (18,2)	25 (75,8)	
	11-15 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	5 (17,9)	23 (82,1)	
	16-20 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	3 (7,5)	37 (92,5)	
	21-25 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	33 (100,0)	
	26 years and above	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (7,1)	14 (100,0)	

It can be seen that the older the age group, the higher was the percentage of responses that indicated that it was extremely likely that students who were suspected to abuse drugs would display hyperactivity. Comparing the difference time duration of educators at the educational institution (Item 15) responses with students who were suspected to abuse drugs would display hyperactivity, more than 75,0% of the educators' responded: less than 1 year (n=3,100,0%), 6-10 years (n=25, 75,8%), 11-15 years (n=23, 82,1%), 16-20 years (n=37, 92,5%), 21-25-years (n=33, 100,0%) and

26 years above (n=13, 92,9%), that it was likely and extremely likely that students who were suspected to abuse drugs would display hyperactivity (Item 15) as shown in Table 4.13. Only 54,3% (n=19) of the educators who were at the education institution between 1-5 years indicated that it was extremely likely. These results were statistically significant (p=0.001).

Table 4.14 Cross tabulation for participating in organised riot

		Extremely unlikely n (%)	Unlikely n (%)	Neutral n (%)	Likely n (%)	Extremely likely n (%)	p-value
Gender	Male	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	5 (6,4)	13 (16,7)	60 (76,9)	0.027
	Female	0 (0,0)	1 (0,9)	1 (0,9)	9 (8,5)	95 (89,6)	
Age	24-35 years	1 (2,2)	1 (2,2)	0 (0,0)	10 (22,2)	33 (73,3)	0.016
	36-45 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1(1,0)	18 (17,9)	78 (18,8))	
	46+ years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	2 (4,7)	41 (95,3)	
Position at the TVET college	Junior	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	4 (4,9)	13 (16,0)	64 (79,0)	0.592
	Senior	0 (0,0)	1 (1,2)	2 (2,4)	9 (11,0)	70 (85,4)	
	Departmental head	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	15 (100,0)	
	College manager	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	4 (100,0)	
Highest level of education	National vocational certificate	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (6,7)	4 (26,7)	10 (66,7)	0.393
	Diploma	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	4 (4,7)	1 (11,8)	71 (83,5)	
	Undergraduate	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (1,6)	6 (9,7)	55 (88,7)	
	Postgraduate	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	2 (9,5)	19 (90,5)	
Length of lecturing at the college	Less than 1 year	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	3 (100,0)	0.004
	1-5 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	4 (11,8)	11 (32,4)	19 (55,9)	
	6-10 years	0 (0,0)	1 (3,0)	2 (6,1)	3 (9,1)	27 (81,8)	
	11-15 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	2 (7,1)	26 (92,9)	
	16-20 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	4 (10,3)	35 (89,7)	
	21-25 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (3,0)	32 (97,0)	
	26 years above	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	4 (10,3)	35 (89,7)	

Comparing male and female (Item 16) responses to the statement that students who were suspected to abuse drugs would participate in an organised riots (Item16), 76,9% (n=60) males and 89.6% (n=95) females are of the opinion that it was extremely likely that students who were suspected to abuse drugs would participate in organised riots,

(Table 4.14). These results were statistically significant ($p=0.027$). This difference in male and female responses could indicate that female educators were more observant regarding students' behaviour who were suspected to abuse drugs. More than 75% of the responses in each of the age groups, where the age group 46+ years had the highest percentage ($n=42, 97,7\%$) responses that it was extremely likely that students who were suspected to abuse drugs would participate in organised riots followed by the age group 24-35 years ($n=38, 86,4\%$) and the age group 26-45 years ($n=75, 78,1\%$) had the lowest percentage as seen in Table 4.14. These results were statistically significant ($p=0.016$).

Comparing the different time duration as an educators' at the education institutions responses (Item 5) with Item 16, the majority educators' from each duration at the education institution group responded: less than 1 year ($n=3, 100,0\%$), 6-10 years ($n=27, 81,8$), 11-15 years ($n=26, 92,9\%$), 6-20 years ($n=35, 89,7\%$), 21-25 years ($n=32, 97,0\%$), and 26 years above ($n=13, 92,9\%$) that it was extremely likely that students who were suspected to abuse drugs would participate in organised riots (Item 16) as illustrated in Table 4.14. Responses from educators in duration group 1-5 years, ($n=19, 55,9\%$) responded that was extremely likely and $n=11, 32,4\%$ responded that was likely that students who were suspected to abuse drugs would participate in organised riots. These results were statistically significant ($p=0.004$). This could mean that over 80% of the agreed with the assertion. Only about 12% was not sure but the majority of this group agreed.

Table 4.15 Cross tabulation for lack of concentration in the classroom

		Extremely unlikely n (%)	Unlikely n (%)	Neutral n (%)	Likely n (%)	Extremely likely n (%)	p-value
Gender	Male	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	13 (16,9)	63 (81,8)	0.044
	Female	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	8 (7,4)	100 (92,6)	
Age	24-35 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	8 (17,8)	37 (82,2)	0.094
	36-45 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1(1,0)	11 (11,5)	84 (87,5)	
	46+ years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (2, 4)	41 (97,6)	
Position at the TVET college	Junior	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (1,2)	8 (9,8)	0.798
	Senior	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	12 (14,6)	70 (85,4)	
	Departmental head	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (6,7)	14 (93,3)	
	College manager	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	4 (100,0)	
Highest level of education	National vocational certificate	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	3 (20,0)	12 (80,0)	0.578
	Diploma	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	11 (12,,8)	75 (87,2)	
	Undergraduate	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (1,6)	5 (8,1)	56 (90,3)	
	Postgraduate	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	2 (9,5)	19 (90,5)	
Length of lecturing at the college	Less than 1 year	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	3 (100,0)	0.216
	1-5 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (2,9)	8 (23,5)	25 (73,5)	
	6-10 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	4 (12,,1)	29 (87,9)	
	11-15 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	4 (14,3)	24 (85,7)	
	16-20 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	2 (5,0)	38 (95,0)	
	21-25 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	3 (9,1)	30 (90,9)	
	26 years above	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	14 (100,0)	

Comparing the educators' gender (Item 1) responses to the responses of Item 17, the majority (male n=63, 81,8%, female n=100, 92,6%) responded that it was extremely likely that students who were suspected to abuse drugs would display a lack of concentration in class, (Table 4.15). The male respondents had a lower percentage in responses indicating extremely likely which could mean that the male respondents were less sure than their female counterparts that students who were suspected to abuse drugs would display a lack of concentration in the class (Item 17). These results were statistically significant (p=0.044). The responses from the educators could

indicate that female educators were able to identify the students' needs more than male educators.

Table 4.16 Cross tabulation for poor interpersonal relationships

		Extremel y unlikely n (%)	Unlikel y n (%)	Neutral n (%)	Likely n (%)	Extremel y likely n (%)	p-value
Gender	Male	0 (0,0)	1 (1,3)	1 (1,3)	13 (16,7)	63 (80,8)	0.279
	Female	0 (0,0)	1(0,9)	0 (0,0)	11 (10,4)	94 (88,7)	
Age	24-35 years	0 (0,0)	1 (2,3)	0 (0,0)	8 (18,2)	35 (79,5)	0.064
	36-45 years	0 (0,0)	1 (1,1)	1(1,1)	15 (15,8)	78 (82,1)	
	46+ years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (2,3)	42 (97,7)	
Position at the TVET college	Junior	0 (0,0)	1 (1,2)	1 (1,2)	10 (12,2)	70 (85,4)	0.933
	Senior	0 (0,0)	1 (1,2)	0 (0,0)	13 (16,0)	67 (85,4)	
	Departmental head	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (6,7)	14 (93,3)	
	College manager	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	4 (100,0)	
Higest level of education	National vocational certificate	0 (0,0)	1 (6,7)	0 (0,0)	2 (13,3)	12 (80,0)	0.645
	Diploma	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (1,2)	11 (12,8)	74 (86,0)	
	Undergraduate	0 (0,0)	1 (1,6)	0 (0,0)	9 (14,5)	52 (83,9)	
	Postgraduate	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	2 (9,5)	19 (90,5)	
Length of lecturing at the college	Less than 1 year	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	3 (100,0)	0.186
	1-5 years	0 (0,0)	1 (2,9))	1 (2,9)	7 (20,0)	26 (74,3)	
	6-10 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	6 (18,8)	26 (81,3))	
	11-15 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	6 (22,2)	21 (77,8)	
	16-20 years	0 (0,0)	1 (2,5)	0 (0,0)	1 (2,5)	38 (95,0)	
	21-25 years	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	3 (9,1)	30 (90,9)	
	26 years above	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (7,1))	13 (92,9)	

As seen in Table 4.16, comparing educators in the different age groups (Item 2) responses regarding students who were suspected of drug abuse would repeat subjects (Item 19), More than 80,0% of the educators from the different age groups namely age 24-35 years (n=21, 82,2%), age 36-45 years (n= 83, 87,4%), age 46+ years (n=43, 100,0%) were of the opinion that it was extremely likely. These results

were statistically significant ($p=0.039$). The finding shows that the older the educators were, the more knowledgeable they were in identifying the students who abuse drugs

4.5 SECTION C1: EDUCATORS' MANAGEMENT OF STUDENTS REGARDING DRUG ABUSE (ITEM 22-32)

The descriptive statistics on the educators' management of students who were suspected of abusing drugs will be described in this section. Inferential statistics on the educators' management of students regarding drug abuse (Section C1) will be described.

4.5.1 Descriptive statistics: Management of students regarding drug abuse

Table 4.17 illustrated educators' responses to the management of students who were suspected of abusing drugs. The items were listed in the table from the highest to the lowest \bar{x} . The mean scores for recognising students who abuse drugs ranged between 2,94 and 1,64. All the SD scores were above 1 which indicated variability responses on each item.

Responses to Items that were related to educators' management of students who were suspected of abusing drugs as seen in Table 4.17 were different. Fifty-one ($n=51$, 28,0%, $\bar{x}=2,94$, $SD=1,682$) educators responded that they would always ignore it, as it was outside my scope if they suspected a student abusing drugs, ($n=69$, 37,3%) indicated that they would never ignore it ($n=8$, 4,3%) indicated that they rarely would ignore it, 13,0% ($n=24$, 13,0%) indicated that they would sometimes ignore it and ($n=33$, 18,0%) indicated that they often ignore it. This could mean that educators did not know if they should ignore it as it was outside their scope of practice if they suspect a student to abuse drugs (Al-Zboon 2018:160).

Table 4.17 Descriptive statistics: (Items 22-31)

Items on educators' management of students regarding drug abuse: should I suspect a student to abuse drugs I will...	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Often		Always		Total		\bar{x}	SD
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%		
Ignore as it is outside my scope (Item 31)	69	37,3	8	4,3	24	13,0	33	18,0	51	28,0	185	100	2,94	1,682
Refer the student to the college health and wellness programme (Item 30)	105	56,8	18	9,7	33	17,8	16	8,6	13	7,0	185	100	1,99	1,317
Engage in an informal discussion with the students (Item 22)	105	56,5	37	19,9	24	12,9	13	7,0	7	3,8	186	100	1,82	1,134
Refer the student for substance abuse rehabilitation (Item 23)	112	60,2	37	19,9	15	8,1	10	5,4	12	6,5	186	100	1,78	1,199
Seek advice because I feel unsure how to address such a problem (Item 25)	123	66,1	22	11,8	6	6,5	12	6,5	13	7,0	186	100	1,76	1,260
Provide individual counselling (Item 28)	127	68,6	21	11,4	15	8,1	9	4,9	13	7,0	185	100	1,70	1,231
Refer it to the senior educator who takes the responsibility in assisting the student (Item 24)	124	66,7	22	11,8	20	10,8	12	6,5	8	4,8	186	100	1,70	1,156
Give formal lecture on drug abuse prevention (Item 26)	133	72,3	14	7,6	12	6,5	15	6,5	10	4,0	184	100	1,67	1,225
Have a group discussion with the students (Item 29)	127	69,0	19	10,3	16	8,7	17	9,2	5	2,7	184	100	1,66	1,133
Involve other students to support the involved student (Item 27)	130	70,0	22	3,0	13	9,0	10	5,4	10	5,4	185	100	1,64	1,163

Just more than 55% (n=105, 56,8%, \bar{x} = 1,99, SD = 1, 317) of educators indicated never will refer the student if it was suspected that the student abuses drugs to the college health and wellness programme (Item 30) followed by 33 (17,8%) of educators indicating that they sometimes would refer a student, 18 (9,7%) of educators indicated that they would rarely refer a student, 16 (8,6%) would often refer a student and 13 (7,0%) would always refer a student. This could mean that educators were unsure if they should refer a student who was suspected of abusing drugs to the health and wellness programme of the college.

Just more than half (n=105, 56,5%, \bar{x} = 1,82, SD = 1,134) of the educators responded that they would never engage in informal discussions with a student if they suspected a student abuses drugs, 37 (19,9%) responded that they will engage in an informal discussion with a student (Item 22), 24 (12,9%) responded that they would sometimes, 13 (7,0%) responded that they would often and 7 (3,8%) responded that they always would engage in an informal discussion with students who are suspecting of abusing drugs. This could mean educators do not know if they should engage in informal discussions with a student who were suspected of abusing drugs (Musyoka et al 2020:2).

A large number of educators (n=112, 60,2%, \bar{x} =1,78, SD = 1,199) indicated that they would never refer a student who was suspected of drug abuse for substance abuse rehabilitation (Item 23), 123 (66,1%, \bar{x} = 1,76, SD = 1,260) of the educators' indicated that they will never seek advice if they feel unsure how to address such a problem (Item 25). Hundred and twenty-seven (68,6%, \bar{x} = 1,70, SD = 1,231) of the respondents, indicated that they never will provide individual counselling (Item 28), 124 (66,7%, \bar{x} = 1,70, SD = 1,156) indicated that they never will refer students to the senior educator who took the responsibility for assisting the student with drug abuse (Item 24), 133 (72,3%, \bar{x} = 1,67, SD = 1,225) educators responded that they never will give a formal lecture on drug abuse prevention (Item 26). Nearly 70% of (n=127, 69,0%, \bar{x} = 166, SD = 1,133) of the respondents indicated that they will never have a group discussion with the students (Item 29), and 70,0% (n=130, \bar{x} = 1,64, SD = 1,163) respondents indicated never to involve other students to support students who were suspected of abusing drugs (Item 27). These responses from the educators

could indicate that educators felt that it was not their responsibility to provide support to students who were suspected of abusing drugs (Al-Zboon 2018:160).

Table 4.18 illustrated the responses from educators on Item 32, an open-ended question requesting educators for additional suggestions on other activities that were not mentioned in Section C1. Twenty respondents responded to the request. Thematic analysis of these responses revealed two themes namely: Theme 1: Curriculum content and Theme 2: Referral of student.

Table 4.18: Responses to an open-ended question to add activity not mentioned in previous questions (Item 32)

Responses	n	%
Class assessment on knowledge on drug abuse	1	0,5%
Group discussion	1	0,5%
Have a workshop on referral	1	0,5%
Involve their families	1	0,5%
Irrational laughter	1	0,5%
Irrelevant	1	0,5%
Irrelevant to my lecture	1	0,5%
Know idea	2	1,1%
Less concern	1	0,5%
None	1	0,5%
Not in my curriculum	1	0,5%
Not known for now	1	0,5%
Not relevant to my curriculum	1	0,5%
Out of my lecture	1	0,5%
Out of my teaching curriculum	1	0,5%
Refer	1	0,5%
Refer to college clinic	1	0,5%
Refer to college clinic nurse	1	0,5%
Refer to parent	1	0,5%
The college may require for an expert in the field of substance abuse to come and have a presentation at the college.	1	0,5%

4.5.2 Inferential statistics: Management of students regarding drug abuse

Inferential statistics were done on responses of educators regarding Items in the questionnaire related to the management of students regarding drug abuse to compare the different groups' responses. Variables with a p-value < 0.05 were seen as statistically significant and will be described.

Table 4.19 Cross tabulation for engaging in an informal discussion with the student

		Never n (%)	Rarely n (%)	Sometimes n (%)	Often n (%)	Always n (%)	P-value
Gender	Male	42 (53,8)	14 (17,9)	15 (19,2)	5 (6,4)	2 (2,6)	0.288
	Female	63 (58,3)	23 (21,3)	9 (8,3)	8 (7,4)	5 (4,6)	
Age	24-35 years	25 (53,3)	8 (17,8)	8 (17,8)	5 (11,1)	0 (0,0)	0.449
	36-45 years	53 (55,2)	18 (18,8)	13 (13,5)	7 (7,3)	5 (5,5)	
	46+ years	27 (62,8)	11 (25,6)	3 (7,0)	1 (2,3)	1 (2,3)	
Position at the TVET college	Junior lecturer	42 (50,6)	18 (21,7)	14 (16,9)	7 (8,4)	2 (2,4)	0.853
	Senior lecturer	49 (59,)	16 (19,5)	8 (9,8)	5 (6,1)	4 (4,9)	
	Departmental Head	10 (66,7)	2 (13,3)	1 (6,7)	1 (6,7)	1 (6,7)	
	College manager	2 (50,0)	1 (25,0)	1 (25, 0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	
Highest level of education	National vocational certificate	42 (50,6)	18 (21,7)	14 (16,9)	7 (8,4)	2 (2,4)	0.036
	Diploma	49 (59,8)	16 (19,5)	8 (9,8)	5 (6,1)	4 (4,9)	
	Undergraduate degree	10 (66,7)	2 (13,3)	1 (6,7)	1 (6,7)	1 (6,7)	
	Postgraduate degree	2 (50,0)	1 (25,0)	1 (25,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	
Length of lecturing at the college	Less than 1 year	3 (100,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0.001
	1-5 years	9 (25,7)	3 (8,6)	14 (40,0)	6 (17,1)	3 (8,6)	
	6-10 years	20 (60,6)	4 (12,1)	4 (12,1)	5 (12,2)	0 (0,0)	
	11-15 years	17 (60,7)	7 (25,0)	3 (10,7)	0 (0,0)	1 (3,6)	
	16-20 years	28 (70,0)	10 (25,0)	2 (5,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	
	21-25 years	19 (57,6)	10 (30,3)	0 (0,0)	1 (3,0)	3 (9,1)	
	26 years and above	9 (64,3)	3 (21,4)	1 (7,1)	1 (7,1)	0,(0,0)	

As seen in Table 4.19 About 50% of the educators who had an NCV (n=8, 53,3%), undergraduate degree (n=33, 53,2%), postgraduate degree (n=10, 47,6%) and (n=54, 62,1%) educators who had a diploma indicated they would never engage in an

informal discussion (Item 22). These results were statistically significant ($p=0.036$). The majority of educators lecturing for less than 1 year ($n=3$, 100,0%) at the educational institution, 6-10 years ($n=20$, 60,6%), 11-15 years ($n=17$, 60,7%), 16-20 years ($n=28$, 70,0%), 21-25-years ($n=19$, 56,7%), and 26 years above ($n=9$, 64,3%) indicated that they would never engage in informal discussions. Educators who were lecturing for 1-5 years ($n=9$, 25,7) at the educational institution indicated that they would never engage in informal discussions while 40,0% ($n=14$), indicated that they would sometimes engage in informal discussions. These results are statistically significant ($p=0.001$). This could mean that lecturers who were 1-5 years at the education institution could be more inclined to have informal discussions with students.

Table 4.20 Cross-tabulation for referring the student for substance abuse rehabilitation

		Never n (%)	Rarely n (%)	Sometimes n (%)	Often n (%)	Always n (%)	p-value
Gender	Male	44 (56,4)	12 (15,4)	9 (11,5)	9 (7,7)	7 (9,0)	0.169
	Female	68 (63,0)	25 (26,1)	6 (5,6)	4 (3,7)	5 (4,6)	
Age	24-35 years	23(51,1)	10 (2,2)	7 (15,6)	2 (4,4)	3 (6,7)	0.005
	36-45 years	56 (58,3)	16(16,7)	8 (8,3)	7 (7,3)	9 (9,4)	
	46+ years	33 (76,7)	10 (23,3)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	
Position at the TVET college	Junior	41 (49,4)	19 (22,9)	11 (13,3)	4 (4,8)	8 (9,6)	0.096
	Senior	53 (64,6)	18 (22,0)	4 (4,9)	4 (4,9)	3 (3,7)	
	Departmental head	12 (80,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	2 (13,3)	1 (6,7)	
	College manager	4 (100,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	
Level of qualificati on	NCV	8 (53,3)	0 (0,0)	3 (20,0)	2 (13,3)	2 (13,3)	0.005
	Diploma	52 (59,8)	22 (25,3)	8 (9,2)	3 (3,4)	2 (2,3)	
	Undergraduate	40 (64,5)	13 (21,0)	3 (4,8)	3 (4,8)	3 (4,8)	
	Postgraduate	12 (57,1)	1 (4,8)	1 (4,8)	2 (9,5)	5 (23,8)	
Length of lecturing at the college	Less than 1 year	3 (100,0)	0 (00)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0.001
	1-5 years	10 (28,6)	2 (5,7)	11 (31, 4)	5 (14,3)	7 (20,0)	
	6-10 years	20 (60,6)	5 (15,2)	2 (6,1)	3 (9,1)	3 (9,1)	
	11-15 years	16 (57,1)	9 (32,1)	2 (7,1)	1 (3,6)	0 (0,0)	
	16-20 years	26 (65,0)	12 (30,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (2,5)	1 (2,5)	
	21-25 years	25 (75,8)	7 (21,2)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (3,0)	
	26 years above	12 (85,7)	2 (14,3)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	

Around 50% of the educators age 24-35 years ($n=23$, 51,1%) and age 36-45 years ($n= 56$, 58,3%) and ($n=33$, 76,7%) age 46+ years are of the opinion that they would

never refer students who were suspected of drug abuse for substance abuse rehabilitation (Table 4.20). It seems that the higher the age group, the less inclined lecturers were to refer students who were suspected of abusing drugs for substance abuse rehabilitation. These results were statistically significant ($p=0.014$). Findings indicated that more than 50% of responses in all the different qualification groups namely, NCV ($n=8$, 53,3%), diploma ($n=52$, 59,8%), undergraduate degree ($n=40$, 64,5%) and postgraduate degree ($n=12$, 57,1%) were of the opinion that, they would never refer students who were suspected to abuse drugs for substance abuse rehabilitation, (Table 4.20). On the other hand, the responses from the different qualification educators' groups differed where 20,0% ($n=3$), for educators who had an NCV, 9,2% ($n=8$) with a diploma, 4,8% ($n=3$), with an undergraduate degree and 4,8% ($n=1$), with a postgraduate degree indicate that they will sometimes refer the student for substance abuse rehabilitation. As seen in table 4.20 responses from the different qualification groups differ considerably. These results were statistically significant ($p=0.005$). More than half of the responses from educators' groups who were lecturing for different length of time at the education institution (Item 5) namely, less than 1 year ($n=3$, 100,0%), 6-10 years ($n=20$, 60,6%), 11-15 years ($n=16$, 57,1%), 16-20 years ($n=26$, 65,0%), 21-25-years ($n=25$, 75,8%) and 26 years above ($n=12$, 85,7%) except for 28,6% ($n=10$), educators who are 1-5 years at the educational college were of the opinion that they would never refer students who were suspected to abuse drugs for substance abuse rehabilitation (Item 23). However, educators working at the education institution for 1-5 years responded differently, 31,4% ($n=11$) indicated that they sometimes and 20,0% ($n=7$) indicated that they always would refer a student for substance abuse rehabilitation. These results were statistically significant ($p=0.001$).

Table 4.21 Cross tabulation for referring to the senior educator who takes the responsibility in assisting the student

		Never n (%)	Rarely n (%)	Sometimes n (%)	Often n (%)	Always n (%)	P-value
Gender	Male	49 (62,8)	7 (9,0)	11 (14,1)	5 (6,4)	6 (7,7)	0.185
	Female	75 (69,4)	15 (13,9)	9 (8,3)	7 (6,5)	2 (1,9)	
Age	24-35 years	28 (62,2)	4 (8,9)	5 (11,1)	5 (11,1)	3 (6,7)	0.009
	36-45 years	59 (61,5)	11 (11,5)	15 (15,6)	7 (7,3)	4 (4,2)	
	46+ years	36 (83,7)	7 (16,3)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	
Position at the TVET college	Junior lecturer	47 (56,6)	12 (14,5)	11 (13,3)	7 (8,4)	6 (7,2)	0.759
	Senior lecturer	59 (72,0)	9 (11,0)	7 (8,5)	5 (6,1)	2 (2,4)	
	Departmental Head	12 (80,0)	1 (6,7)	2 (13,3)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	
	College manager	4 (100,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	
Highest level of education	National vocational certificate	7 (46,7)	0 (0,0)	4 (26,7)	3 (20,0)	1 (6,7)	0.008
	Diploma	59 (67,8)	15 (17,2)	7 (8,0)	5 (5,7)	1 (1,1)	
	Undergraduate degree	45 (72,6)	6 (9,7)	7 (11,3)	2 (3,2)	2 (3,2)	
	Postgraduate degree	13 (61,9)	1 (4,8)	2 (9,5)	1 (4,8)	4 (19,0)	
Length of lecturing at the college	Less than 1 year	3 (100,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0.001
	1-5 years	10 (26,6)	1 (2,9)	12 (34,3)	7 (20,0)	5 (14,3)	
	6-10 years	21 (63,6)	4 (12,1)	2 (6,1)	4 (12,1)	2 (6,1)	
	11-15 years	19 (67,9)	5 (17,9)	3 (10,7)	1 (3,6)	0 (0,0)	
	16-20 years	30 (75,0)	5 (17,9)	3 (10,7)	1 (3,6)	0 (0,0)	
	21-25 years	28 (84,8)	4 (12,1)	1 (3,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	
	26 years and above	13 (92,9)	1 (7,1)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	

More than 80% (n=36, 83,7%) of the responses in the age group 46 years + compared to the just more than 60% responses of the age group 24-35 years' age group (n=28, 62,2%) and the age group 36-45 years (n=59, 61,5%) are of the opinion that they would never refer students who were suspected of drug abuse for substance abuse to the senior educator who took responsibility for assisting the students (Table 4.21). These results were statistically significant (p=0.008). The researcher concluded that educators younger than 46 years were more inclined to refer students to the senior educator who took responsibility for assisting the students.

Table 4.21 represent educators from the different levels of qualification groups responses (Item 24). These responses varied, more than 70% of the educators who had an undergraduate degree are of the opinion that they would never refer students who were suspected of drug abuse to a senior educator compared to more than 60% of educators who had a post-graduate degree (n=13, 61,9%) and diploma (n=59, 67,8%), and only 46,7% (n=7) who had a NCV. This could mean that educators with an NCV were more inclined to refer students. On the other hand, the responses from educators from the different qualification groups differed, 26,7% (n=4) educators who had an NCV, 8,0% (n=7) with a diploma, 11,3% (n=7) with an undergraduate degree and 9,5% (n=2) with a postgraduate degree indicated that they would sometimes refer students who were suspected of drug abuse to a senior educator who took responsibility in assisting the student. This could mean that educators were not sure what procedures they need to follow when they suspected students of abusing drugs.

As seen in Table 4.21, all (n=3, 100%) of the educators who were lecturing at the education institution for less than a year, 6-10 years (n=21, 63,6%), 11-15 years (n=20, 67,9%), 16-20 years (n=29, 75,0%), 21-25-years (n=26, 84,8%) and 26 years above (n=13, 92,9%) and only 28,6% (n=11), educators who were 1-5 years as an educator at the educational college responded that they would never refer students who were suspected of drug abuse to a senior educator who takes the responsibility in assisting the student (Item 24). What stood out was that responses from the educators who were 1-5 years at the education institution varied: 34,3% (n=12) indicated that they sometimes would refer it to the senior educator who took the responsibility in assisting the student and 20,0% (n=7) indicated that they would often, and 14,3% (n=5) responded that they would always. These results were statistically significant (p=0.001). This could mean that educators who were at the education institution between 1 and 5 years were uncertain about how to manage students who abuse drugs.

Table 4.22 illustrates the responses of the different age groups (Item 25), 24-35 years (n=28, 62,2%) and 36-45 years (n=57, 59,4%) were more or less the same, while 86,0% (n=37) of the educators in the age group age 46+ years, responded that they will never seek advice because they feel unsure how to address such a problem (Table 4.22). These results are statistically significant (p=0.17). This could mean that

educators 46+ years were more exposed to students who abuse drugs and therefore felt less unsure how to address such a problem.

Table 4.22 Cross-tabulation for seeking advice because I feel unsure how to address such a problem

		Never n (%)	Rarely n (%)	Sometimes n (%)	Often n (%)	Always n (%)	P-value
Gender	Male	49 (62,8)	6 (7,7)	7 (9,0)	9 (11,5)	7 (9,0)	0.084
	Female	74 (68,5)	16 (14,8)	9 (8,3)	3 (2,8)	2 (5,6)	
Age	24-35 years	28 (62,2)	3 (6,7)	5 (11,1)	6 (6,7)	6 (13,3)	0.017
	36-45 years	57 (59,4)	14 (14,6)	11 (11,5)	7 (7,3)	7 (7,3)	
	46+ years	37 (86,0)	5 (11,6)	0 (0,0)	1 (2,3)	0 (0,0)	
Position at the TVET college	Junior lecturer	49 (59,0)	10 (12,0)	9 (10,8)	8 (9,6)	7 (8,4)	0.896
	Senior lecturer	56 (68,3)	11 (13,4)	6 (7,3)	3 (3,7)	6 (7,3)	
	Departmental Head	12 (80,0)	1 (6,7)	1 (6,7)	1 (6,7)	0 (0,0)	
	College manager	4 (100,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	
Highest level of education	National vocational certificate	7 (46,7)	0 (0,0)	4 (26,7)	4 (26,7)	0 (0,0)	0.001
	Diploma	59 (67,8)	14 (16,1)	8 (9,2)	0 (0,0)	6 (6,9)	
	Undergraduate degree	44 (71,0)	7 (11,3)	4 (6,5)	3 (4,8)	4 (6,5)	
	Postgraduate degree	13 (61,9)	1 (4,8)	0 (0,0)	4 (19,0)	3 (14,3)	
Length of lecturing at the college	Less than 1 year	3 (100,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0.001
	1-5 years	11 (31,4)	1 (2,9)	9 (25,7)	7 (20,0)	7 (20,0)	
	6-10 years	21 (63,6)	1 (3,0)	5 (15,2)	4 (12,1)	2 (6,1)	
	11-15 years	20 (71,4)	4 (14,3)	2 (7,1)	0 (0,0)	2 (7,1)	
	16-20 years	29 (72,5)	9 (22,5)	0 (0,0)	1 (2,5)	1 (2,5)	
	21-25 years	29 (72,5)	9 (22,5)	0 (0,0)	1 (2,5)	1 (2,5)	
	26 years and above	13 (92,9)	1 (7,1)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	

Responses of the educators from the different levels of qualification groups indicated that 46,7% (n=7) who had an NCV, 67,8% (n=59) who had a diploma, 71,0% (n= 44) who had an undergraduate degree and 61,9% (n=13) who had a postgraduate degree responded that, they would never seek advice because they felt unsure how to address such problem. On the other hand, for respondents who had an NCV, 26,7% (n=4) respondent that they would sometimes and often seek advice because they feel unsure how to address a problem. These results were statistically significant (p=0.001)

as less than 50% of educators who had NCV responded that they never seek advice; the reason may be that they feel unsure how to address such a problem.

Responses from educators who are working at the education institution less than 1 year (n=3, 100,0%), 6-10 years (n=21, 63,6%), 11-15 years (n=20, 71,4%), 16-20 years (n=29, 72,5%), 21-25-years (n=26, 84,8%) and 26 years above (n=13, 92,9%) were of the opinion that they would never seek advice because they feel unsure how to address such problem (Item 25). The responses from educators who were lecturing for 1-5 years at the educational institution varied, 31,4% (n=11) responded that they would never seek advice because they feel unsure, 2,9% (n=1) responded that they rarely seek advice, 25,7% (n=9) responded that they sometimes seek advice, 20% (n=7) responded that they often seek advice and 20% (n=7) responded that they always seek advice. These results were statistically significant (p=0.001).

Comparing the educators' responses of the different genders (Item 26) to the responses of Item 26, the majority of female (n=80, 74,8%) and male (n=53, 68,8%), responded that they would never give a formal lecture on drug abuse prevention, (Table 4.23). The male respondents had a lower percentage of responses never to give a formal lecture on drug abuse prevention compared to their female counterparts. These results were statistically significant (p=0.038). As seen in Table 4.23 the responses of the educators from the different age groups (Item 26), indicated that they would never give a formal lecture on drug abuse prevention: 24-35 years age group (n=32, 71,1%), 36-45 years (n=65, 69,1%), and age 46 years (n=36, 83,7%). These results were statistically significant (p=0.009).

Comparing the educators from the different qualification level groups (Item 26), more than 70% of responses in diploma and undergraduate qualification groups, namely, diploma (n=65, 75,6%), undergraduate degree (n= 47, 77,0%) and postgraduate degree (n=13, 61,9%) responded that, they would never give a formal lecture on drug abuse prevention compared to 53,3% (n=8) who had NCV and 33,3% (n=5) responded that they would often give a formal lecture on drug abuse prevention (Table 4.23). These results were statistically significant (p=0.038). Educators who had undergraduate and NCV qualification may be unsure if it is required from them to give a formal lecture about drug abuse prevention.

Table 4.23 Cross-tabulation for giving a formal lecture on drug abuse prevention

		Never n (%)	Rarely n (%)	Sometimes n (%)	Often n (%)	Always n (%)	P-value
Gender	Male	53 (68,8)	2 (2,6)	8 (10,4)	9 (11,7)	5 (6,5)	0.038
	Female	80 (74,8)	12 (11,2)	4 (3,7)	6 (5,6)	5 (4,7)	
Age	24-35 years	32 (71,1)	1 (2,2)	3 (6,7)	3 (6,7)	6 (13,3)	0.009
	36-45 years	65 (69,1)	6 (6,4)	8 (8,5)	11 (11,7)	4 (4,3)	
	46+ years	36 (83,7)	6 (14,0)	1 (2,3)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	
Position at the TVET college	Junior lecturer	51 (62,2)	10 (12,2)	5 (6,1)	9 (11,0)	7 (5,8)	0.543
	Senior lecturer	64 (79,0)	3 (3,7)	6 (7,4)	5 (6,2)	3 (3,7)	
	Departmental Head	12 (80,0)	1 (6,7)	1 (6,7)	1 (6,7)	0 (0,0)	
	College manager	4 (100,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	
Highest level of education	National vocational certificate	8 (53,3)	0 (0,0)	1 (6,7)	5 (33,3)	1 (6,7)	0.038
	Diploma	65 (76,6)	10 (11,6)	4 (4,7)	4 (4,7)	3 (3,5)	
	Undergraduate degree	47 (77,0)	3 (4,9)	5 (8,2)	3 (4,9)	3 (4,9)	
	Postgraduate degree	13 (61,9)	1 (4,8)	1 (4,8)	3 (14,3)	3 (14,3)	
Length of lecturing at the college	Less than 1 year	3 (100,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0.001
	1-5 years	12 (35,3)	0 (0,0)	5 (14,7)	11 (32,4)	6 (17,6)	
	6-10 years	23 (69,7)	2 (6,1)	4 (12,1)	2 (6,1)	2 (6,1)	
	11-15 years	22 (81,5)	1 (3,7)	2 (7,4)	1 (3,7)	1 (3,7)	
	16-20 years	31 (77,5)	6 (15,0)	1 (2,5)	1 (2,5)	1 (2,5)	
	21-25 years	29 (87,9)	4 (12,1)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	
	26 years and above	13 (92,9)	1 (7,1)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	

Responses from the respondents who were less than 1 year (n=3, 100,0%), 6-10 years (n=21, 69,7%), 11-15 years (n=22, 81,5%), 16-20 years (n=28, 77,5%), 21-25-years (n=29, 87,9%), and 26 years above (n=13, 92,9%) responded that they would never to give a formal lecture on drug prevention. Respondents who were lecturing between 1-5 years at the educational institution responses indicated that 35,3% (n=12) would never give a formal lecture on drug abuse prevention while 32,4% (n=11) indicated that they would often, 17,6% (n=6) indicated that they would always, 14,7% (n=5) indicated that they would sometimes and no-one indicated that they would rarely give a formal lecture on drug abuse prevention. These results were statistically significant (p=0.001).

Table 4.24 Cross-tabulation for involving other students to support the involved student

		Never n (%)	Rarely n (%)	Sometimes n (%)	Often n (%)	Always n (%)	P-value
Gender	Male	51 (66,2)	7 (9,1)	8 (10,4)	4 (5,2)	7 (9,1)	0.160
	Female	79 (73,1)	15 (13,9)	5 (5,6)	6 (5,6)	3 (2,8)	
Age	24-35 years	30 (66,7)	4 (8,9)	4 (8,9)	4 (8,9)	3 (6,7)	0.038
	36-45 years	65 (68,4)	9 (9,5)	9 (9,5)	6 (6,3)	6 (6,3)	
	46+ years	34 (79,1)	9 (20,9)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	
Position at the TVET college	Junior lecturer	53 (63,9)	9 (10,8)	8 (9,6)	7 (8,4)	6 (7,2)	0.579
	Senior lecturer	61 (75,3)	9 (11,1)	5 (6,2)	2 (2,5)	4 (4,9)	
	Departmental Head	10 (66,7)	4 (26,7)	0 (0,0)	1 (6,7)	0 (0,0)	
	College manager	4 (100,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	
Highest level of education	National vocational certificate	6 (40,0)	1 (6,7)	4 (26,7)	3 (20,0)	1 (6,7)	0.017
	Diploma	63 (72,4)	12 (13,8)	5 (5,7)	2 (2,7)	5 (5,7)	
	Undergraduate degree	48 (77,7)	7 (11,15)	2 (3,3)	2 (3,3)	2 (3,3)	
	Postgraduate degree	13 (61,9)	2 (9,5))	1 (4,8)	3 (14,3)	2 (9,5)	
Length of lecturing at the college	Less than 1 year	3 (100,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0.001
	1-5 years	13 (37,1)	1 (2,9)	8 (22,9)	6 (17,1)	7 (20,0)	
	6-10 years	21 (63,6)	4 (12,1)	4 (12,1)	1 (3,0)	3 (9,1)	
	11-15 years	28 (70,0)	1 (3,7)	1 (3,7)	2 (7,4)	0 (0,0)	
	16-20 years	31 (77,5)	6 (15,0)	1 (2,5)	1 (2,5)	0 (0,0)	
	21-25 years	29 (87,9)	4 (12,1)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	
	26 years and above	13 (92,9)	1 (7,1)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	

As seen in Table 4.24, most of the educators from each of the different age groups, 24-35 years' age group (n=20, 66,7%), 36-45 years (n=65, 68,4%), and age 46 years (n=34, 79,1%), were of the opinion that they will never involve other students to support the involved student, (Item 27). All (n=3, 100%) of the responses from educators who were lecturing for less than a year at the educational institution, those who were lecturing for 6-10 years (n=21, 63,6%), 11-15 years (n=23, 85,2%), 16-20 years (n=28, 70,0%), 21-25-years (n=29, 87,9%) and 26 years above (n=13, 92,9%) were of the opinion that they would never involve other students to support the involved student, Educators who were lecturing between 1-5 years responded in the following matter 37,1% (n13) would never, 22,9% (n=8) indicated that they would sometimes, 17,1% (n=6) that they would often and 20,0% (n=7) indicated that they

would always involve another student to support the involved student. These results were statistically significant ($p=0.001$).

Table 4.25 Cross-tabulation for providing individual counselling

		Never n (%)	Rarely n (%)	Sometimes n (%)	Often n (%)	Always n (%)	P-value
Gender	Male	47 (61,0)	8 (10,4)	10 (13,0)	4 (5,2)	8 (10,4)	0.121
	Female	80 (74,1)	13 (12,0)	5 (4,6)	5 (4,6)	5 (4,6)	
Age	24-35 years	30 (66,7)	4 (8,9)	4 (8,9)	1 (2,2)	6 (13,3)	0.053
	36-45 years	61 (64,2)	10 (10,5)	10 (10,5)	7 (7,4)	7 (7,4)	
	46+ years	35 (81,4)	7 (16,3)	1 (2,3)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	
Position at the TVET college	Junior lecturer	51 (61,4)	10 (12,0)	5 (6,0)	7 (8,4)	10 (12,0)	0.298
	Senior lecturer	58 (71,6)	10 (12,3)	9 (11,1)	1 (1,2)	3 (3,7)	
	Departmental Head	12 (80,0)	1 (6,7)	1 (6,7)	1 (6,7)	0 (0,0)	
	College manager	4 (100,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	
Highest level of education	National vocational certificate	7 (46,7)	1 (6,7)	2 (13,3)	4 (26,7)	1 (6,7)	0.022
	Diploma	65 (74,7)	10 (11,5)	5 (5,7)	2 (2,3)	5 (5,7)	
	Undergradua te degree	42 (68,9)	8 (13,1)	7 (11,5)	1 (1,6)	3 (4,9)	
	Postgraduate degree	13 (61,9)	1 (4,8)	1 (4,8)	2 (9,5)	4 (19,0)	
Length of lecturing at the college	Less than 1 year	3 (100,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0.001
	1-5 years	11 (31,4)	1 (2,9)	6 (17,1)	8 (22,9)	9 (25,7)	
	6-10 years	23 (69,7)	3 (9,1)	4 (12,1)	0 (0,0)	3 (9,1)	
	11-15 years	23 (85,2)	1 (3,7)	3 (11,1)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	
	16-20 years	28 (70,0)	8 (20,0)	2 (5,0)	1 (2,5)	1 (2,5)	
	21-25 years	27 (81,8)	6 (18,2)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	
	26 years and above	12 (85,7)	2 (14,3)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	

As seen in Table 4.25 more than 60% of responses in each of the different qualification groups namely, diploma ($n=65$, 74,7%), undergraduate degree ($n= 42$, 68,9%) and postgraduate degree ($n=13$, 61,9%) were of the opinion that they would never provide individual counselling comparing to 46,7% ($n=7$) who had a NCV. These results were statistically significant ($p=0.022$). Educators who had NCV might feel unsure if they should provide individual counselling to students who abuse drugs.

Responses from educators who were lecturing for less than (1 year n=3, 100,0%), 6-10 years (n=23, 69,7%), 11-15 years (n=23, 85,2%), 16-20 years (n=28, 70,0%), 21-25-years (n=27, 81,1% and 26 years above (n=12, 85,7%), compared to 37,1% (n=13), educators who were 1-5 years as an educator at the educational college were of the opinion that they would never provide individual counselling (Item 28). Responses of the educators working for 1-5 years at the educational institution differed, 17,1% (n=6) indicated that they would sometimes, 22,9% (n=8) indicated that they would often and 25,7% (n=9) indicated that they would always provide individual counselling. These results are statistically significant (p=0.001).

Table 4.26 Cross-tabulation for having a group discussion with students

		Never n (%)	Rarely n (%)	Sometimes n (%)	Often n (%)	Always n (%)	P-value
Gender	Male	46 (60,5)	7 (9,2)	12 (15,8)	7 (9,2)	4 (5,3)	0.018
	Female	81 (75,0)	12 (11,1)	4 (3,7)	10 (9,3)	1 (0,9)	
Age	24-35 years	29 (64,4)	3 (6,7)	6 (13,3)	5 (11,1)	2 (4,4)	0.015
	36-45 years	59 (62,8)	11 (11,7)	10 (10,6)	11 (11,1)	3 (3,2)	
	46+ years	35 (88,4)	5 (11,6)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	
Position at the TVET college	Junior lecturer	50 (61,0)	9 (11,0)	8 (9,8)	11 (13,4)	4 (4,9)	0.644
	Senior lecturer	59 (72,8)	9 (11,1)	8 (9,9)	4 (4,9)	1 (1,2)	
	Departmental Head	12 (80,0)	1 (6,7)	0 (0,0)	2 (13,3)	0 (0,0)	
	College manager	4 (100,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	
Highest level of education	National vocational certificate	8 (53,3)	0 (0,0)	2 (13,3)	5 (33,3)	0 (0,0)	0.021
	Diploma	65 (74,7)	11 (12,6)	4 (4,6)	5 (5,7)	2 (2,3)	
	Undergraduate degree	42 (70,0)	7 (11,7)	7 (11,7)	3 (5,0)	1 (1,7)	
	Postgraduate degree	12 (57,1)	1 (4,8)	2 (9,5)	4 (19,0)	2 (9,5)	
Length of lecturing at the college	Less than 1 year	3 (100,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0.001
	1-5 years	12 (34,3)	0 (0,0)	8 (22,9)	12 (34,3)	3 (8,6)	
	6-10 years	20 (62,5)	4 (12,5)	3 (9,4)	3 (9,4)	2 (6,3)	
	11-15 years	22 (81,5)	1 (3,7)	4 (14,8)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	
	16-20 years	30 (75,0)	7 (17,5)	1 (2,5)	2 (5,0)	0 (0,0)	
	21-25 years	28 (84,4)	5 (15,2)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	
	26 years and above	12 (85,7)	2 (14,3)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	

Comparing the educators' gender (Item 1) responses to the responses of Item 29, the majority (male n=46, 60,5%, female n=81, 75,0%) responded never to have a group discussion with the students, (male n=7, 9,2% and female n=12, 11,1%) rarely, while other educators' responses differs as sometimes (male n=12, 15,8%, females n=4, 3,7%), often (male n=7,9,2%, female n=10, 9,3%) and always, (male n=4, 5,3% and female n=1, 0,9%) regarding having a group discussion with the students (Table 4.26). Male respondents had a lower percentage in responses to never having a group discussion with the students compared to females. Female educators were more intended to never have group discussions with students. These results were statistically significant ($p=0.018$). Comparing the responses of the educators' different age groups (Item 2), more than 60% of the age group 24-35 years (n=29, 64,4%) and the age group, 36-45 years (n=59, 62,8%) compared to 88,4% (n=38) from the age group 46+ years, were of the opinion that they will never have a group discussion with the students (Table 4.26). This could mean that educators who were younger than 46 years were more inclined to have group discussions with students. These results were statistically significant ($p=0.015$).

Educators from the different levels of qualification groups (Item 4), responses indicated that more than 70,0% who had a diploma (n=65, 74,4%), and undergraduate degree (n= 42, 70,0%) compared to responses from educators who had an NCV (n=8, 53,3%) and postgraduate degree (n=12, 57,1%) were of the opinion that they would never have a group discussion with students. These results were statistically significant ($p=0.021$).

As seen in Table 4.26 responses from respondents who were lecturing for less than 1 year (n=3,100,0%), 6-10 years (n=20, 62,5%), 11-15 years (n=22, 81,5%), 16-20 years (n=30, 75,0%), 21-25-years (n=28, 84,8%) and 26 years and above (n=12, 85,7%) were of the opinion that they would never have a group discussion with the students (Item 29) compared to 34,3% (n=12) educators who were between 1-5 years lecturing at the education institution. These educators' responses also differed: 22,9% (n=8) indicated that they would sometimes and 34,3% (n=12) indicated that they will often have group discussions with students. This could mean that they were unsure about group discussions with students. These results were statistically significant ($p=0.001$).

Table 4.27 Cross-tabulation for referring the student to the college health and wellness program

		Never n (%)	Rarely n (%)	Sometimes n (%)	Often n (%)	Always n (%)	P-value
Gender	Male	46 (51,3)	7 (9,0)	15 (19,2)	11 (14,1)	5 (6,4)	0.232
	Female	65 (60,7)	11 (10,3)	18 (16,8)	5 (4,7)	8 (7,5)	
Age	24-35 years	24 (54,5)	3 (6,8)	6 (13,6)	6 (13,6)	5 (11,4)	0.022
	36-45 years	53 (55,2)	6 (6,3)	20 (20,8)	10 (10,4)	7 (7,3)	
	46+ years	28 (65,1)	9 (20,9)	5 (11,6)	0 (0,0)	1 (2,3)	
Position at the TVET college	Junior lecturer	44 (53,7)	4 (4,9)	18 (22,0)	9 (11,0)	7 (8,5)	0.564
	Senior lecturer	47 (57,3)	9 (11,0)	14 (17,1)	6 (7,3)	6 (7,3)	
	Departmental Head	10 (66,7)	3 (20,0)	1 (6,7)	1 (6,7)	0 (0,0)	
	College manager	3 (75,0)	1 (25,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	
Highest level of education	National vocational certificate	7 (46,7)	0 (0,0)	6 (40,0)	2 (13,3)	0 (0,0)	0.107
	Diploma	50 (58,1)	8 (9,3)	16 (18,6)	4 (4,7)	8 (9,3)	
	Undergraduate degree	39 (62,9)	7 (11,3)	8 (12,9)	5 (8,1)	3 (4,8)	
	Postgraduate degree	9 (42,9)	3 (14,3)	2 (9,5)	5 (23,8)	2 (9,5)	
Length of lecturing at the college	Less than 1 year	3 (100,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0.001
	1-5 years	10 (29,4)	0 (0,0)	9 (26,5)	7 (20,0)	8 (23,5)	
	6-10 years	16 (48,5)	2 (6,1)	11 (33,3)	4 (12,1)	0 (0,0)	
	11-15 years	21 (75,0)	1 (3,6)	3 (10,7)	2 (7,1)	1 (3,6)	
	16-20 years	25 (62,5)	5 (12,5)	6 (15,0)	3 (7,5)	1 (2,5)	
	21-25 years	19 (56,7)	7 (21, 2)	4 (12,1)	0 (0,0)	3 (9,1)	
	26 years and above	11 (78,6)	2 (14,3)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	

Comparing the responses of the educators' different age groups (Item 2), it can be seen that 54,4% (n=24) from the 24-35 years' age group and 55,2%, (n=53) of the 36-45 years' age group and 65,1% (n=28) from the age group 46+ years were of the opinion that they would never refer the student to the college and wellness programme (Table 4.27). In regards to the respondent's responses, this could mean that the educators who were 46 years and older were more inclined not to refer the student to the college health and wellness programme. These results were statistically significant (p=0.022).

Educators who worked for less than 1 year (n=3, 100,0%), 11-15 years (n=21, 75,0%), 16-20 years (n=25, 62,5%), 21-25-years (n=19, 57,6%) and 26 years and above (n=11, 78,6%) as an educator at the educational institution were of the opinion that they would never refer students to the college health and wellness programme, (Item 30). The educators who worked for 1-5 years' responses varied namely: 29,4% (n=10) indicated that they would never refer the student to the college health and wellness programme, 26,5% (n=9) would sometimes, 20,6% (n=7) would often and 23,5% (n=8) would always. Educators working for 6-10 years' responses also varied: 48,5% (n=16) would never, 6,1% (n=2) would rarely, 33,3% (n=11) would sometimes, 12,1% (n=4) would often and none would always refer students to the college health and wellness programme. These results were statistically significant (p=0.001). Less than 50% of educators from each time duration at the educational institution group working between 1-5 years and 6-10 years would never refer a student to the college health and wellness programme.

Responses from the educators from the different levels of qualification groups, varied, 33,3% (n=5) who had an NCV 30,2% (n=16) who had a diploma, 41,9% (n= 26) who had an undergraduate degree and 52,4% (n=11) who had a postgraduate degree responded that they would never ignore it as it was outside their scope (Table 4.28). On the other hand, 26,7% (n=4) educators who had an NCV, 26,7% (n=23), with a diploma, 30,6% (n=19) with an undergraduate degree and 23,8% (n=5) with a postgraduate degree indicated that they would always ignore it as it was outside their scope. These results were statistically significant (p=0.042).

Table 4. 28 Cross-tabulation for ignoring it as it is outside my scope

		Never n (%)	Rarely n (%)	Sometimes n (%)	Often n (%)	Always n (%)	P-value
Gender	Male	31 (39,7)	2 (2,6)	11 (14,1)	10 (12,8)	24 (30,8)	0.471
	Female	38 (35,5)	6 (5,6)	13 (12,1)	23 (21,5)	27 (25,2)	
Age	24-35 years	17 (37,8)	3 (6,7)	5 (11,1)	5 (11,1)	15 (33,3)	0.435
	36-45 years	33 (34,4)	5 (5,2)	15 (15,6)	18 (18,8)	25 (26,0)	
	46+ years	19 (45,2)	0 (0,0)	3 (7,1)	10 (23,8)	10 (23,8)	
Position at the TVET college	Junior lecturer	30 (36,1)	4 (4,8)	8 (9,6)	19 (22,9)	22 (26,5)	0.559
	Senior lecturer	27 (33,3)	3 (3,7)	15 (18,5)	6 (7,3)	13 (16,0)	
	Departmental Head	9 (60,0)	1 (6,7)	1 (6,7)	1 (6,7)	3 (20,0)	
	College manager	3 (75,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (2,5)	
Highest level of education	National vocational certificate	5 (33,3)	1 (6,7)	4 (26,7)	1 (6,7)	4 (26,7)	0.042
	Diploma	26 (30,2)	5 (5,8)	9 (10,5)	23 (26,7)	23 (26,7)	
	Undergradua te degree	26 (41,9)	1 (1,6)	11 (17,7)	5 (8,1)	19 (30,6)	
	Postgraduate degree	11 (52,4)	1 (4,8)	0 (0,0)	4 (19,0)	5 (23,8)	
Length of lecturing at the college	Less than 1 year	2 (66,7)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (33,3)	0.403
	1-5 years	14 (40,0)	2 (5,7)	6 (17,1)	5 (14,3)	8 (22,9)	
	6-10 years	10 (30,3)	1 (3,0)	2 (6,1)	7 (21,2)	13 (39,4)	
	11-15 years	12 (42,9)	0 (0,0)	6 (21,4)	4 (14,2)	6 (21,4)	
	16-20 years	13 (32,5)	1 (2,5)	7 (17,5)	7 (17,5)	12 (30,0)	
	21-25 years	10 (31,3)	3 (9,4)	3 (9,4)	10 (31,3)	6 (18,8)	
	26 years and above	8 (57,1)	1 (7,1)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	5 (35,7)	

4.6 SECTION C2: THE LEVEL OF IMPORTANCE REGARDING EDUCATOR-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS (ITEM 33-36)

Descriptive statistics and inferential statistics on the level of importance regarding educator-student relationships was described. Inferences regarding the comparisons between variables was discussed.

4.6.1 Descriptive statistics: Level of importance regarding educator— student relationships

Table 4.12 illustrated educators' views on the level of importance of educator-student relationships. The items were listed in the table from the highest to the lowest \bar{x} . The \bar{x} scores ranged between 4.06 and 3.89. All the SD scores were above 1 which indicated that responses from the respondents varied. In the section relating to the level of importance regarding an educator-student relationship, (n=186, 100%) of the respondents responded. As shown in Table 4.29 educator-student, more than 60% of the educators (n=118, 63,4%, \bar{x} 4,06, SD 1,480) view that it was very important that educators were role models for students (Item 34) and (n=115, 61,8%, \bar{x} , 4,05, SD 1,486) of the educators viewed it as very important that educators should invest their time in listening to students' problems to support positive relationships (Item 35), while 7 (3,8%) indicated that it was slightly important and 5 (2,7%) were neutral. Just more than half (n= 101, 54,6%, \bar{x} 3,89, SD 1,503) of the educators viewed it as very important that educators, should be flexible towards students who were involved in drug abuse (Item 33), 28 (15,1%) indicated that it was not at all important and 9 (4,9%) of the educators neutral.

Table 4.29 Descriptive statistics: Items 33-35

Items indicating educators' views on the level of importance regarding educator-student relationships Educators...	Not all important		Slightly important		Neutral		Often very important		Extremely important		Total		\bar{x}	SD
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%		
Are role models to students (Item 34)	29	15,6	4	2,2	11	5,9	24	12,9	118	63,4	186	100	4,06	1,480
Should invest their time in listening to students' problems to support positive relationships (Item 35)	29	15,6	7	3,8	5	2,7	30	16,1	115	61,8	186	100	4,05	1,486
Should be flexible towards students' behaviour who are involved in drug abuse (Item 33)	28	15,1	14	7,6	9	4,9	33	17,8	101	54,6	186	100	3,89	1,503

Table 4.30 Responses on on the level of importance regarding educator-student relationships Item 36

Responses	n	%
Am not part of family	1	0,5%
Cordial relationship with the students	1	0,5%
Educators should build on a trust relationship, learners should feel that they can trust the educator	1	0,5%
Educators must ensure mutual understanding to students on drug abuse	1	0,5%
Educators should build a cordial relationship with students	1	0,5%
Ensure good academic relationships	1	0,5%
Invite their family	1	0,5%
Involves the family of students who abuses drugs	1	0,5%
Irrelevant	1	0,5%
Know idea	1	0,5%
None	1	0,5%
Not related	1	0,5%
Provide group discussion	1	0,5%

Table 4.30 illustrated the responses from educators on Item 36, an open-ended question requesting educators for additional suggestions on other activities that were not mentioned in Section C2. Thirteen responses were received for the open-ended question. Thematic analysis of these responses revealed one theme namely: positive relationships.

4.6.2 Inferential statistics: Level of importance regarding educator—student relationships

Inferential statistical analysis was conducted on the responses of the educators (n=186). The Fisher-exact test was applied to compare the level of importance regarding educator-student relationships. Inferential statistics compared responses from the different groups with a p-value < 0.05 was discussed.

Table 4.31 Cross tabulation for should educator be flexible toward behaviour of student who abuse drug

		Not at all important n (%)	Slightly important n (%)	Neutral n (%)	Often very important n (%)	Extremely important n (%)	P-value
Gender	Male	12 (15,4)	8 (10,3)	3 (3,8)	15 (19,2)	40 (51,3)	0.733
	Female	16 (15,0)	6 (5,6)	6 (5,6)	18 (16,8)	61 (57,0)	
Age	24-35 years	10 (22,7)	3 (6,8)	2 (4,5)	9 (20,5)	20 (45,5)	0.153
	36-45 years	9 (9,4)	5 (5,2)	5 (5,2)	20 (20,8)	57 (59,4)	
	46+ years	9 (20,9)	6 (14,0)	2 (4,7)	4 (9,3)	22 (51,2)	
Position at the TVET college	Junior lecturer	14 (17,1)	5 (6,1)	4 (4,9)	16 (19,5)	53 (52,4)	0.893
	Senior lecturer	11 (13,4)	8 (9,8)	3 (3,7)	13 (15,9)	47 (57,3)	
	Departmental Head	1 (6,7)	1 (6,7)	2 (13,3)	3 (20,0)	8 (53,3)	
	College manager	1 (25,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (25,0)	2 (50,0)	
Highest level of education	National vocational certificate	7 (46,7)	0 (0,0)	2 (13,3)	3 (20,0)	3 (20,0)	0.033
	Diploma	9 (10,3)	6 (6,9)	4 (4,6)	16 (18,4)	52 (59,8)	
	Undergraduate degree	11 (18,0)	6 (9,8)	2 (3,3)	8 (13,1)	34 (55,7)	
	Postgraduate degree	1 (4,8)	2 (9,5)	1 (4,8)	6 (28,6)	11 (52,4)	
Length of lecturing at the college	Less than 1 year	2 (66,7)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	1 (33,3)	0.002
	1-5 years	7 (20,0)	2 (5,7)	4 (11,4)	13 (37,1)	9 (25,7)	
	6-10 years	6 (18,2)	2 (6,1)	0 (0,0)	7 (21,2)	18 (54,4)	
	11-15 years	7 (25,0)	2 (7,1)	1 (3,6)	1 (3,6)	17 (60,7)	
	16-20 years	3 (7,5)	2 (5,0)	1 (2,5)	8 (20,0)	26 (65,0)	
	21-25 years	1 (3,1)	3 (9,4)	2 (6,3)	3 (9,4)	23 (71,9)	
	26 years and above	2 (14,3)	3 (21,4)	1 (7,1)	1 (7,1)	7 (50,0)	

Responses of educators with different qualification levels (Item 4) indicated that around 50% of responses from each of the following different qualification groups namely, diploma (n=52, 59,8%), undergraduate degree (n= 34, 55,7%) and postgraduate degree (n=11, 52,4%) responded that it is extremely important that educators need to be flexible towards the behaviour of students who were involved in drug abuse, while 46,7% (n=7) educators who had NCV indicated that it was not at all important (Table 4.31). Three (20%) educators who had NCV responded that it is extremely important to be flexible towards the behaviour of students who were involved in drug abuse. These results were statistically significant (p=0.033).

As seen in Table 4.31, the responses from educators differed. Educators who worked for less than 1 year were of the opinion that it was extremely important (n=1, 33,3%) or not at all important (n=2, 66,7%) to be flexible toward students' behaviour who were involved in drug abuse (Item 33), while educators who worked for 1-5 years indicated that it was not at all important (n=7, 20,0%), often very important (n=13, 37,7%) and extremely important (n=9, 25,7%). More than 50% of educators who were 6-10 years (n=18, 54,5%), 11-15 years (n=17, 60,7%), 16-20 years (n=26, 65,0%), 21-25 years (n=23, 71,9%) and 26 years above (n=7, 50,0%) were of the opinion that it was extremely important to be flexible towards students' behaviour who were involved in drug abuse. These results were statistically significant (p=0.002).

Table 4.32 Cross-tabulation for educators are role models to students

		Not at all important n (%)	Slightly important n (%)	Neutral n (%)	Often very important n (%)	Extremely important n (%)	P-value
Gender	Male	10 (12,8)	3 (3,8)	7 (9,0)	15 (19,2)	43 (55,1)	0.031
	Female	19 (17,6)	1 (0,9)	4 (3,7)	9 (9,3)	75 (69,4)	
Age	24-35 years	10 (22,2)	0 (0,0)	3 (6,7)	6 (13,3)	26 (57,8)	0.52
	36-45 years	9 (9,4)	1 (1,0)	7 (7,3)	15 (15,6)	64 (66,7)	
	46+ years	10 (23,3)	3 (7,0)	1 (2,3)	2 (4,7)	27 (62,8)	
Position at the TVET college	Junior lecturer	13 (15,7)	1 (1,2)	3 (3,6)	13 (15,7)	53 (63,9)	0.611
	Senior lecturer	13 (15,9)	2 (2,4)	6 (7,3)	8 (9,8)	53 (64,6)	
	Departmental Head	1 (6,7)	1 (6,7)	2 (13,3)	3 (20,0)	8 (53,3)	
	College manager	1 (25,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	3 (75,0)	
Highest level of education	National vocational certificate	7 (46,7)	0 (0,0)	1 (6,7)	3 (20,0)	4 (26,7)	0.001
	Diploma	9 (10,3)	0 (0,0)	4 (4,6)	10 (11,5)	64 (73,6)	
	Undergraduate degree	12 (19,4)	3 (4,8)	4 (6,5)	3 (4,8)	40 (64,5)	
	Postgraduate degree	1 (4,8)	1 (4,8)	2 (9,5)	8 (38,1)	9 (42,9)	
Length of lecturing at the college	Less than 1 year	1 (33,3)	0 (0,0)	1 (33,3)	0 (0,0)	1 (33,3)	0.001
	1-5 years	7 (20,0)	1 (2,9)	2 (5,7)	12 (34,3)	13 (37,1)	
	6-10 years	6 (18,2)	0 (0,0)	2 (6,1)	7 (21,2)	18 (54,4)	
	11-15 years	7 (25,0)	0 (0,0)	3 (10,7)	0 (0,0)	18 (64,3)	
	16-20 years	3 (7,5)	0 (0,0)	2 (5,0)	4 (10,0)	31 (77,5)	
	21-25 years	1 (3,0)	1 (3,0)	1 (3,0)	1 (3,0)	29 (87,9)	
	26 years and above	4 (28,6)	2 (14,3)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	8 (57,1)	

Comparing male and female (Item 1) responses to the statement that educators were regarded as role models to the students, the following was found: males (n=43, 55,1%) and females (n=75, 69,4%) indicated that it was extremely important (Table 4.32). These results were statistically significant (p=0.031). This could indicate that gender does not influence educators' opinions on being a role model to students.

Responses of educators with different qualification levels differed. Educators who had a diploma (n=64, 73,6%), undergraduate degree (n=40, 64,5%) and postgraduate degree (n=9, 42,9%) are of the opinion that it was extremely important for educators to be a role model to the students (Item 34) while 46,7% (n=7) who have a NCV indicated that it was not at all important to be a role model to the students and 38,1% (n=8) educators who had a postgraduate degree indicated that it was often very important to be a role model (Table 4.32). These results were statistically significant (p=0.001).

A third (n=1, 33,3%) of the educators who were lecturing at the education institution for less than 1 year were of the opinion that it was not at all important, a third (n=1, 33,3%) were neutral and the other third (n=1, 33,3%) responded that was extremely important to be a role model to students. Responses amongst educators who were lecturing 1- 5 years at the education institution varied amongst them: 20,0% (n=7) indicated that it is not at all important, 34,3% (n=12) indicated that it was often very important and 37,1% (n=13), indicated that it was extremely important to be role models to students. More than half of the responses from educators who were lecturing at the education institution for a different length of time indicated the following: 54,5% (n=18) who were 6-10 years, 64,3% (n=18) who were 11-15 years, 77,5% (n=31) who were 16-20 years, 87,9% (n=28) who were 21-25-years, and 57,1% (n=8) 26 years above at the education institution were of the opinion that it was extremely important to be a role model to students (Item 34). These results were statistically significant (p=0.002).

Table 4.33 Cross-tabulation should educators invest their time in listening to students' problems to support positive relationships

		Not at all important n (%)	Slightly important n (%)	Neutral n (%)	Often very important n (%)	Extremely important n (%)	P-value
Gender	Male	12 (15,4)	4 (5,1)	2 (2,6)	16 (20,5)	44 (56,4)	0.553
	Female	17 (15,7)	3 (2,8)	3 (2,8)	14 (13,0)	71 (65,7)	
Age	24-35 years	9 (20,0)	2 (4,4)	1 (2,2)	6 (13,3)	27 (60,0)	0.290
	36-45 years	9 (9,4)	3 (3,1)	4 (4,2)	18 (18,8)	62 (64,6)	
	46+ years	11 (25,6)	2 (4,7)	0 (0,0)	5 (11,6)	25 (58,1)	
Position at the TVET college	Junior lecturer	11 (13,3)	4 (4,8)	1 (1,2)	17 (20,5)	50 (60,2)	0.649
	Senior lecturer	15 (18,3)	2 (2,4)	3 (3,7)	10 (12,2)	52 (63,4)	
	Departmental Head	1 (6,7)	1 (6,7)	1 (6,7)	3 (20,0)	9 (60,0)	
	College manager	1 (25,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	3 (75,5)	
Highest level of education	National vocational certificate	5 (33,3)	2 (13,3)	0 (0,0)	7 (46,7)	1 (6,7)	0.001
	Diploma	10 (11,5)	1 (1,1)	2 (2,3)	12 (13,8)	62 (71,3)	
	Undergraduate degree	13 (21,0)	3 (4,8)	2 (3,2)	6 (9,7)	38 (61,3)	
	Postgraduate degree	1 (4,8)	1 (4,8)	1 (4,8)	5 (23,8)	13 (61,9)	
Length of lecturing at the college	Less than 1 year	1 (33,3)	0 (0,0)	1 (33,3)	1 (33,3)	1 (33,3)	0.001
	1-5 years	6 (17,1)	3 (8,6)	2 (5,7)	15 (40,0)	10 (28,6)	
	6-10 years	6 (18,2)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	7 (21,2)	20 (60,6)	
	11-15 years	8 (28,6)	1 (3,6)	1 (3,6)	3 (10,7)	15 (53,6)	
	16-20 years	2 (5,0)	1 (2,5)	1 (2,5)	3 (7,5)	33 (82,5)	
	21-25 years	2 (6,1)	0 (0,0)	1 (3,0)	2 (6,1)	28 (84,8)	
	26 years and above	4 (28,6)	2 (14,3)	0 (0,0)	0 (0,0)	8 (57,1)	

Responses of educators who had a NCV differed from the other educators' responses to the statement that they should invest their time in listening to students' problems to support positive relationships (Item 35); 33,3% (n=5) indicated that it was not at all important while 46,7% (n=7) indicated that it was often very important. More than 60% of the educators in each of the different qualification groups, diploma (n=62, 71,3%), undergraduate degree (n= 38, 61,3%) and postgraduate degree (n=13, 61,9%) were of the opinion that it was extremely important for educators to invest time in listening to student problems to support positive relationships (Table 4.33). These results were statistically significant (p=0.001).

A third (n=1, 33,3%), of the educators who were less than 1 year indicated that it was not at all important, another third (n=1, 33,3%) indicated that it was often important and the last third (n=1, 33,3%) indicated that it was extremely important to invest time listening to students' problems to support positive relationships (Item 35). Educators who were lecturing at the educational institution for 1-5 years, 40,0% (n=14) indicated that it was often important and 28,6% (n=10) that it was very important to invest time listening to students' problems to support positive relationships. Responses from educators who were lecturing at the educational institution for 6-10 years (n=20, 60,6%), 11-15 years (n=15, 53,6%), 16-20 years (n=33, 82,5%), 21-25 years (n=28, 84,8%) and 26 years above (n=8, 57,1%) indicated it was extremely important to invest their time in listening to students' problems to support positive relationships. These results are statistically significant (p=0.001).

4.7 SECTION D: EDUCATORS ' TRAINING NEEDS (ITEMS 37-53)

Descriptive statistical analysis was conducted on the responses of all participants. Table 4.34 illustrated the descriptive statistics on all the items in Section D.

4.7.1 Section D1 Training: Descriptive statistics

The distribution of the frequency of values for a variable was analysed and the responses concerning the training needs of educators were described. In section D1 educators had to respond to the training they received (Items 37-40). The study sample consisted of 186 respondents and 2 respondents did not indicate their options for some of the items. Table 4.34 illustrated the frequencies of responses made by the educators.

As shown in Table 4.34, nearly 90%, (n=163, 88,1%) of the respondents responded "no" to the statement, "I received training as an educator how to manage students who abuse drugs" (Item 37), followed by 86,4% (n=159,) which indicated that educators did not receive any training on the process to be followed if they, suspected that a student abuses drugs (Item 38). Less than 15% (n=27, 14,6%) of educators responded that they know how to manage the situation when a student was suspected to abuse

drugs (Item 39) and 17,8% (n=33) of educators think that educators do not need to know how to support students if it was suspected that they abuse drugs (Item 40).

Table 4.34 Descriptive statistics: Items 37-40

Items indicating educators 'training received regarding drug abuse among students	Yes		No		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
I received training as an educator how to manage students who abuse drugs (Item 37)	22	11,9	163	88,1	185	100,0
I have been trained in the process to be followed if it is suspected that a student abuses drugs (Item 38)	25	13,6	159	86,4	184	100,0
I know how to manage the situation when a student is suspected to abuse drugs (Item 39)	27	14,6	158	85,4	185	100,0
I do not think it is necessary for an educator to know how to support students if it is suspected they abuse drugs (Item 40)	33	17,8	152	82,2	185	100,0

4.7.2 Section D2: Training contents should...

As seen in Table 4.35, all the educators 100,0% (n=186), indicated that an in-service training programme for educators regarding student drug abuse should include content that covers the processes to be followed when it was suspected that students abuse drugs (Item 41), and content how an educator should be able to recognise possible drug abuse amongst students (Item 43).

The majority of the educators indicated that the in-service training programme should include content on how to manage interpersonal relationships with students 98,9% (n=183) (Item 42), the role of policy documents in guiding student support regarding drug abuse 98,9% (n=184), (Item 44) and 95,5% (n=185) that different support methods should be used (Item 45). Among the respondents only 1,1% (n=2,) responded that they should not include a method to follow on how to engage with students who abuse drugs (Item 47), and 1,6% (n=2) and what the educator's role was when it was suspected a student abuses drugs (Item 46) in an educators' in-service training programme.

Table 4.35 Descriptive statistics: Items 41-47

Items indicating educators views on an outline for in-service training programme for educators regarding student drug abuse should include....	Yes		No		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Content that covers the processes to be followed when it is suspected that students abuse drugs (Item 41)	186	100,0	0	0,0	186	100,0
Content on how to manage interpersonal relationships with students who abuse drugs (Item 42)	183	98,9	2	1,1	185	100,0
Content how an educator should be able to recognise possible drug abuse amongst students (Item 43)	186	100,0	0	0,0	186	100,0
The role of policy documents in guiding student support regarding drug abuse (Item 44)	184	98,9	2	1,1	186	100,0
Different support methods to be used (Item 45)	185	95,5	1	0,5	186	100,0
The educator's role when it is suspected a student abuses drugs (Item 46)	183	98,4	1	1,6	186	100,0
The method followed to engage with students who abuse drugs (Item 47)	184	98,9	2	1,1	186	100,0

Abdulwali et al (2019:164) maintain that good content of an in-service training programme enhances the professional development of educators to manage and support students who abuse drugs.

4.7.3 Section D-3: Training should be...

More than 75% (n=143, 76,9%), of educators indicated that training should not be continuous (Item 48). As seen in Table 4.36 nearly all (n=184, 98,9%) the educators were of the opinion that training should be once off, (Item 49) and training should be during induction (n=183, 99,5%), (Item 52). It seems that educators indicated that training should be informal (n=182, 98,9%), (Item 51) although educators also indicated that training should be formal (n=163, 87,6%), (Item 50).

Respondents were asked to provide additional information that should be included in the training programme through an open-ended question (Item 53). Table 4.36 illustrated respondents' responses.

Table 4.36 Descriptive Statistics Items 48-52

Items indicating how training should be...	Yes		No		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Continuous (Item 48)	43	23,1	143	76,9	186	100,0
Once-off training (Item 49)	184	98,9	2	1,1	186	100,0
Formal (Item 50)	163	87,6	23	12,4	186	100,0
Informal (Item 51)	182	98,9	2	1,1	184	100,0
During induction (Orientation) (Item 52)	183	99,5	1	0,5	184	100,0

Table 4.37: Respondents opinion on outline on in-service training programme Item 53

Responses	N	%
Curriculum activities	1	0,5%
Curriculum base	1	0,5%
Curriculum based	3	1,6%
Drug abuse prevention should be part of the curriculum	1	0,5%
I have no idea	1	0,5%
Online	1	0,5%
Online	48	25,8%
online seminal	1	0,5%
Online support for educator's when encountering a specific situation	1	0,5%
Online training	8	4,3%
Seminal	2	1,1%
Seminar	14	7,5%
Workshop	7	3,8%

Table 4.37 illustrated the responses from educators on Item 36 an open-ended question requesting educators for additional suggestions for the outline for an in-service training programme. Eighty-nine respondents provided additional suggestions for an outline for an in-service training programme.

Thematic analysis was done and the following themes emerged, namely Theme 1 Training content and Theme 2 Training method. In Theme 1, Educators felt that drug abuse prevention should be part of the teaching curriculum and Theme 2 that training should be done online, through workshops or seminars

4.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed data analysis, presentation and discussion of findings. Quantitative data from respondents were analysed using descriptive statistics relating to frequencies (f), the mean (\bar{x}) and standard deviation (SD). A Fisher-exact test was used to analyse inferential statistics on data collected. Qualitative data were evaluated and classified into thematic categories. The discussion of findings will be discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter concludes the study. The findings will be presented and discussed in relation to the objectives. The conclusion, limitations of the study as well as recommendations for topics to be included for an in-service training program outline for educators on the management of student drug abuse are made.

The research objectives of this study were to:

1. Explore and describe the training needs of college educators regarding the management of student drug abuse.
2. Make recommendations on topics to be included in a in-service training program for educators at a college to manage students drug abuse.

The research questions identified were:

1. What are the training needs of educators at a college regarding the management of student drug abuse?
2. What topics should be included in the in-service training programme for educators at a college to manage student drug abuse?

5.2 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHOD

The researcher used a quantitative, non-experimental descriptive design to assess the training needs of educators at a college regarding the management of student drug abuse. Data was collected using a web-based questionnaire. A link for the web-based questionnaire was distributed to 337 educators across all the sampled educational colleges and 186 questionnaires were completed and returned.

5.3 SUMMARY AND INTERPRETATION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.3.1 Section A: Demographic information of respondents (Items 1-5)

Gender

Nearly 60% of the respondents were female. Naidu (2018) states that 45,1% senior lecturers, 53,3% of lecturers and 56,5% junior lecturers were women at South African Higher Education institutions in 2016. In the study setting that represents four TVET colleges in Limpopo, the presentation of female educators are slightly higher than the norm.

Age

Just over half of the educators were between the ages of 36-45 years (n=96, 51,6%). Nearly a quarter of the educators were between the ages 24-36 years and above 46 years. The findings revealed that the higher the age group, the higher the percentage in similar options were selected amongst the respondents of that age group. That could be because the educators had more exposure to students abusing drugs than their younger colleagues.

Current position at the educational institution

The findings of the study revealed that the majority of the respondents were junior educators (n=83 45,0%), and senior educators, (n=82, 45,0%). The majority of educators were in direct contact with students as their level of position in the educational institution were mostly junior and senior respondents, while the departmental and campus manager had less direct contact. Ampofo, Onayango and Ogola (2019:18) indicate that department heads and campus managers spend less time with students than junior and senior educators. The current position of educators did not have any statistically significant association with recognising students who abuse drugs and the management of students' drug abuse.

Professional educational qualification of respondents.

Nearly half of the educators had a diploma and a third of the educators had an undergraduate degree as a professional qualification. Eight percent of the educators have an NCV qualification. The minimum requirement to be an educator at TVET colleges is that you need to have a National Senior Certificate or an NCV level 4

Certificate. The majority of educators have a higher level of qualification. This is in line with the Department of Higher Education qualification profile of lecturers employed in Public Technical and Vocational Education and Training Colleges in South Africa (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2015)

Length of service at the educational institution

Responses to indicate the number of years educators were lecturing at the educational institution varied. According to Graham, White, Cologon and Pianta (2020:2), educators' experience is the most essential factor in institutional policy and teaching quality. Educators with less than three years of lecturing were categorised as less experienced educators, while those educators with more than three years of lecturing were categorised as experienced educators (Graham et al 2020:2). The majority of educators were lecturing at the education institution for longer than 5 years and therefore considered experienced educators.

5.3.2 Section B: Recognising students who abuse drugs (Items 6-21)

The majority of the respondents responded that it is extremely likely that students will display the following behaviour: disruptive behaviour (n=169, 91,4%), repeat subjects (n=165, 89,2%), inappropriate behaviour (n=159, 88,8%), lack of concentration (n=163, 88,1%), delinquent behaviour (n=160, 86,6%), signs of being stressed (n=157, 85,8%), poor interpersonal relationships (n=157, 85,3%) tend to have unnecessary arguments with classmates (n=155, 85,2%), signs of depression (n=157, 84,4%), participate in organised riots (n=155, 84,2%), come late for class (n=154, 83,7%), poor personal care (n=153, 82,3%) and hyperactivity (n=153, 82,3%). It is deductive that educators will recognise the behaviour that is associated with students who abuse drugs. Myduc, Greto and Bolt (2019:845), state that one of the educator's roles is to identify students' needs and address health and health-related issues, like smoking, alcohol abuse and other substance abuse.

Most of the educators from different age groups believed that it is extremely likely that students who were suspected to abuse drugs would perform academically poorly. Just more than half of the educators who were lecturing for 1-5 years at the educational

institution indicated that it is extremely likely to perform academically poorly when students abuse drugs. This could be that educators who lectured for 1-5 years at the educational institution need the training to recognise the behaviour of students who abuse drugs. Manish, Deepali and Neetu (2020) state that drug abuse among students has a negative effect on academic performance.

Most of the responses from the educators revealed that the educators were able to recognise students who abuse drugs. Educators who were lecturing for 1-5 year responses indicated that these lecturers are less inclined to recognise students who abuse drug therefore educators who work between 1-5 years should be made aware of how to recognise students who abuse drugs.

5.3.3 Section C1: Educators' management of students regarding drug abuse (Items 22-35)

The SD scores from all the Items regarding educators' management of students' drug abuse were above 1 which indicated that the responses varied. Twenty-eight percent of the respondents indicated that they would always ignore student drug abuse as it is outside their scope of practice while 37,3% indicated that they would never ignore it. In response to the question if they (educators) would refer a student to the college wellness programme if they suspect the student abuse drugs, more than 55% of educators indicated that they would never refer a student, while 17,8% indicated that they would sometimes, 9,7% rarely and 8,6% always. The responses differ from Al-Zboon (2018:162) statement that most lecturers ignore the management of students' drug abuse, as they believed it's not part of their responsibilities, some, prefer to seek advice, refer students to the health and wellness department, as they are uncertain of remedial actions of the students who abuse drugs (Al-Zboon 2018:160).

Educators responded differently to the statement if they would engage in informal discussions with a student if they suspected a student abusing drugs. More than half of the educators indicated that they would never and nearly 20% indicated that they will engage in informal discussions with a student. The researcher concluded that educators are unwilling to have informal discussions with students who are suspected of abusing drugs.

The researcher concluded that educators could feel that it is not part of their job as 60,2% responded that they would never refer a student who is suspected of drug abuse for rehabilitation. More than 65% of the educator indicated that they will never seek advice if they feel unsure how to address such a problem (66,1%), 66, 7% indicated that they will never refer students to the senior educator who took the responsibility for assisting students who abuse drugs, 68,6% responded that they will never provide individual counselling. Nearly 70% of the educators indicated that they will never have a group discussion with students and 72,3% they will never give a formal lecture about drug abuse prevention. Al-Zboon (2018:160) states that it is not the educators' responsibility to provide support to students who were suspected of abusing drugs. Gugulethu and Amsterdam (2018:1) indicate that there is inadequate training support from the college department on the management of students' drug abuse.

More than 60% of educators were of the opinion that educators needed to be role models for students and more than 50% that educators should be flexible towards students who abuse drugs. Abolbashari et al (2018:417) state that educators should have a good relationship with their students, in other words, meet students' needs. This, enhances cordial relationships between educators and students.

The length of time lecturing at the education is statistically significant. The majority of educators from the different lengths of time lecturing at the educational institution group indicated that they would never engage in informal discussions while 40,0% of educators who are lecturing for 1-5 years at the educational institution would sometimes engage in informal discussions. The educators (28,6%) who were lecturing for 1-5 years at the educational institution indicated that they will never refer students for rehabilitation while more than 55% of the other duration groups indicated that they would never refer students. More than 60% of the educators indicated that they would never refer students to a senior educator who takes responsibility for assisting students compared to 28,7% of educators who were 1-5 years lecturing at the educational institution. More than 60,0% of the educators responded that they would never seek advice because they feel unsure how to address such a problem compared to 31,4% of educators lecturing for 1-5 years at the educational institution. More than

69,7% of the educators indicated that they would never give a formal drug abuse lecture compared to 35,3% of educators who were lecturing for 1-5 years. More than 63,6% of educators responded that they would never involve other students to support the involved student while 37.1% who were lecturing for 1-5 years indicated they would never. Less than 40% of educators who were lecturing for 1-5 years (37,1%) believed that they would never provide individual counselling while more than 69% of educators believed they would. More than 62,5% of educators from the different duration groups responded that they would never have group discussions compared to 34,3% of educators for 1-5 years.

Educators who educate at the educational institution for 1-5 years could be feeling unsure about how to manage student drug abuse. Musyoka et al (2020:2) state that educators will never engage in an informal discussion with students who abuse drugs. Responses from varied amongst respondents on the importance of being a role model to students. A third of the respondents who were lecturing for less than a year believed it is not at all important, 37,1% who were lecturing for 1-5 years and more than 50% of the respondents who were 6-10 years, 64,3% who were 11-15 years, 77,5% who were 16-20 years and 87,9% who were 21-25 years and 57,1% for longer than 26 years felt it is extremely important to be role models. This could indicate that educators who have more experience in lecturing see themselves as role models.

Responses from the different age groups indicated the higher the age group the less inclined educators feel to refer students who abuse drugs for rehabilitation, with 51,1% of educators in the age group 24-35 compared to 76,7% of the 46+ age group indicating that they would never refer students for rehabilitation. The age of educators may influence their decision to refer students for rehabilitation. Educators from the age group 24-35 years (62,2%) and 36-45 years (59,4%) were more or less the same while 86,0% of educators above the age of 46 responded that they will never seek advice because they feel unsure how to address such a problem. Older educators could be more exposed to student drug abuse and therefore less unsure of how to address such a problem.

Educators' level of qualification plays a role in their decision to refer students who are suspected of drug abuse to the senior educator who took responsibility for assisting students. Educators with a higher level of qualification, post-graduate degree (61,9%)

indicated they would never refer a student to a senior educator who took responsibility for assisting students compared to educators who had an NCV (46,7%). Educators who had an NCV (46,7%) indicated that they would never seek advice because they feel unsure how to address such a problem compared to educators who had a post-graduate degree (61,9%). Educators who had an NCV (53,3%) indicated they would never give a formal lecture on drug abuse prevention compared to more than 60% of the other educators. More than 61,9% of the educators believed that they would never provide individual counselling compared to 46,7% who had an NCV. Educators who have a lower level of qualifications could feel unsure how to manage student drug abuse.

More than 50% of the different qualification level's responses indicated it is very important to be flexible towards the behaviour of students who were involved in drug abuse except for 20% of respondents who had an NCV. Makovec (2018:350) stated that educators need to have skills in how to handle the deviant behaviour of students, such as alcohol and drug abuse.

Responses from respondents who had a diploma and undergraduate degree indicated that it is extremely important for educators to be a role model to students (Pere and Yatich 2017:10), while 46,7% who had an NCV indicated that it was not at all important and 38,1% of respondents who had a post graduated degree indicated that it was often very important. A third of the educators who had an NCV indicated that it was not important to invest time in listening to students while more than 60% of the educators who had a diploma, undergraduate degree and post-graduate degree respectively indicated that it is extremely important.

5.3.4 Section D1: Educators' training needs (Items 37-53)

More than 85% of the respondents indicated that they have not received training on how to manage students' drug abuse, the process to follow if they suspect students abuse drugs and how to manage the situation when a student is suspected to abuse drugs. The educators (82,2%) also thought educators must know how to support students if it is suspected that a student abuse drugs (DHET Goldfields TVET college 2019:5)

More than 98% of the respondents indicated that an outline for an in-service training programme for educators regarding the management of student drug abuse should include the processes to follow when it is suspected that students abuse drugs. How to manage interpersonal relationships with students who abuse drugs. Recognising possible drug abuse amongst students. Policy for management of student drug abuse. Providing support to students, and the educators' role when suspected a student abuse drugs.

Nearly all the respondents indicated that training should be one-off, informal and during induction. The educators also indicated that training could be formal (87,6%). The researcher concluded that the educators won't mind if the training is formal although most of them preferred it to be informal. From the open-ended question about 30% of respondents suggested that training should be online. An in-service educational programme is a fundamental aspect of an educational system that enables educators to update their educational and professional knowledge for more effective delivery (Nguyen 2020:1).

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

5.4.1 Educators' in-service training programme outline to manage students drug abuse

The in-service training outline programme will be presented according to the following headings of the questionnaire:

- Section B: Recognising students who abuse drugs
- Section C1: Educators' management of students regarding drug abuse
- Section C2: Level of relationship regarding educators and students
- Section D: Educators' training needs

Drug abuse by students may directly or indirectly channel the students' mindset from academic excellence to drug abuse, which may result in absenteeism (Kumar, Dangi & Pawar 2019:37). The negative influence of drug abuse on students' education may occur (Amadi & Akpelu 2018:25), which may result in impaired memory and

diminished intellectual thinking, which alter sensory, perceptual and cognitive functions (Vilarosa-Hurlocker et al 2018:2). Also, drug abuse resulting in low-self-esteem and poor academic results, thus causing the students to drop out of the college (Mohammed et al 2018:25). The in-service training outline to manage students drug abuse may assist the role players in the education institution to compile their own in-service training programme for educators on how to manage students who abuse drugs.

5.4.1.1 Section B: Recognising students who abuse drugs

Training should include how to recognise students who abuse drugs. The training could include the possible behaviour these students display. Topics for the in-service training programme outline should include behaviour a student may display that is related to the student's academic performance and behaviour in the classroom.

Educators who are working for 1 to 5 years at the educational institution should be encouraged to attend the in-service training programme although the in-service training programme should be available for all educators to attend.

5.4.1.1.1 Rationale

The findings revealed that most educators were able to recognise the behaviour students would display who abuse drugs. Responses of all educators who were between 1-5 years as educators at the education institution revealed that they were less likely to recognise these students. It is important to recognise students who abuse drugs in a college environment as this enables the educators to identify early signs of drug abuse in students. This will promote the delivery of quality, efficient and sustainable education to students and may reduce drug abuse amongst students to ensure academic achievement (Pere & Yatich 2017:10) and promote good health among students (Brunner et al 2018:453).

5.4.1.2. Section C 1: Educators' management of students regarding drug abuse

Educators' training should include educators' management of students regarding drug abuse. Educators need to be trained on how to engage, how to provide support to students abusing drugs and methods of referring to health and wellness programmes for students abusing drugs.

The in-service training content should include the processes to be followed when it is suspected that students abuse drugs and the educator's role when it is suspected a student abuses drugs. The role of policy documents in guiding student support regarding drug abuse should be dealt with as this promotes a healthy environment for both educators and students. The DHET Goldfield TVET college policy (2019 :4) in regards to managements of drug in regards to the department of higher education South African national policy on drug abuse management in college environment published, reflected the the principle, support, regarding standard of conducts and disciplinary rules to be imposed for unlawful possession or ditribtionof illicit drug by student, educators and all staffs on DHET Golfield TVET. Therefore, this indicated that the DHET policy support management of student who abuses drugs in college environments. Finally, various support methods to be used to promote healthy behaviour amongst the students should be discussed. All educators should be encouraged to attend the in-service programme.

5.4.1.2.1 Rationale

Data finding on educators' management of students regarding drug abuse revealed more than 65% of responses from all the different qualification groups indicated that educators will never seek advice because they feel unsure how to address such problem. Nearly 70% of the educators indicated that they will never refer a student who is suspected of drug abuse for substance abuse rehabilitation; therefore it is imperative that educators should be made aware of the process to follow to manage students who abuse drugs.

Findings revealed that educators who were lecturing for 1-5 years at the educational institution were more inclined to engage students in informal discussion, refer students

for substance abuse rehabilitation, refer students to a senior educator who takes responsibility for assisting the student, seek advice because they feel unsure how to address such a problem, to give a formal lecture on drug abuse prevention, involve other students to support the involved student, provide individual counselling, have group discussions with students and refer students to the college health and wellness programme than educators who were longer than 5 years at the education institution. Abolbashari et al (2018:417) maintain that supporting and managing students abusing drugs enhance positive behavioural changes. The inclusion of educators' in-service training on how to manage students who abuse drugs (Holtman et al 2018:2) may promote the sustainability of drug abuse prevention programmes in an educational institution and prevent drug abuse among college students (Chege et al 2017:17).

5.6.1.3 Section C2: Level of relationship regarding educators and students

As educators have the duty to care for students both academically and emotionally which involves the students' mental well-being. The in-service training programme outline for an educators in-service programme should contain content on how to manage interpersonal relationships with students who abuse drugs such as behaviour needed to promote positive relationships with students who abuse drugs, what behaviour is expected from educators and communication strategies that promote positive relationships.

The in-service training programme should make educators aware that they are a role-model to students. Topics should include defining a role model, the importance of role models, and the role model's behaviour in class and outside the class. This section in the in-service training programme should focus on educators who have an NCV and who have been less than 5 years at the educational institution.

5.4.1.3.1 Rationale

Yatich (2017:10) stated that educators should serve as role models for students, that is, exhibiting care and a willingness to assist students with drug abuse. Also, educators should invest their time in listening to students' problems (Makovec 2018:109), to

provide adequate assessments of students' behaviour and ensure positive educator-student relationships (Abolbashari et al 2018:417).

A considerably smaller percentage of educators who had an NCV felt it was extremely important to be flexible towards students and to be a role model to students compared to educators who have a higher NQF level qualification.

Educators who were between 1-5 years responses revealed that it is often important to be flexible towards students' behaviour who are involved in drug abuse and to invest time listening to students' problems to support positive relationships in contrast to those educators who were more than 5 years at the education institution who indicated it extremely important. More than 65% of the educators who were less than a year at the education institution felt it is not at all important to be flexible towards students' behaviour. The gender of educators did not have an influence on educators' ability to recognise the level of the educator-student relationship on student drug abuse.

5.6.1.4 Section D: Educators training needs

An outline for an educators' in-service training programmes should include educators' training needs. An educational institution needs to identify the level of educators' knowledge regarding the management of students on drug abuse, in order to identify the area of training needed, as the researcher will suggest TVET college to incurcate and implement policies on how to manage students on drug abuse in college environment in their regulations. That is, topics for the in-service training programme should include how to manage students who abuse drugs, the process to be followed if suspected that a student abuses a drug, how to manage the situation when a student is suspected to abuse drugs, how to support students abusing drug. The process to be followed when it is suspected that a student abuses drugs, how to manage interpersonal relationships with students who abuse drugs, how to recognise students with possible drug abuse, available policy documents on student support regarding drug abuse, different support methods to be used, educator's role when it is suspected a student abuses drugs and methods on how to engage with students who abuse drugs. All educators in the educational institution should be encouraged to attend the

in-service training programme. This enables educators to have more knowledge of the process to follow when students are suspected of abusing drugs.

5.4.1.4.1 Rationale

Concerning the data findings, nearly 90%, of the respondents responded “no” to the above suggested topics when they were asked if they have received training as an educator on how to manage students who abuse drugs. This revealed that there is a need for educators to receive training on the management of student drug abuse. This is in line with Nkambule and Amsterdam’s (2018:1) statement that educators need skills on how to handle some deviant behaviour of students, such as alcohol and drug abuse among students. Most educators lack knowledge of their own training needs (Arzu, 2017:79). Educators’ age, gender, qualifications and years of experience did not have an influence on educators’ training needs in regard to management and an outline for the educators’ training programme. Educators’ in-service training serves as key role to educators continuous professional development, in other to assist student in all areas of their needs (Nguyen 2020:1). Therefore, all educators should be encouraged to attend the in-service training programme.

5.5 GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR IN-SERVICE TRAINING PROGRAMME

Furthermore, a presentation of an in-service training programme as outlined above may follow different delivery methods such as:

- Formal methods of an in-service training programme can be in the form of seminars, workshops, conferences, classes and induction programmes.
- Informal methods where the training of the educators may be in the form of role-play, films, support groups and cultural activities.
- Face-to-face in-service training programmes (Bonyani et al 2018:3) encourage educators to ask questions freely and allow quick response from the facilitator (Hassan et al 2020:36).
- Online educators’ in-service training programme ensures all educators have access to the web-based training programme (Erasmus & Joubert 2017:1013).

This supports educators' performance and development (Erasmus & Joubert 2017:1013)

- In-service training programmes may also be once-off training through a special educational programme, depending on the work plan of the institution (Al-Zboon 2018:162), as this improves educators' competency (Mahmood et al 2018:667) when dealing with students who abuse drugs.
- In-service training programmes may be continuous as this ensures retaining of the knowledge acquired in the course of training (Junejo, Sarwar & Ahmed 2017:59). Continuous (long-term) in-service training is primarily recommended for retraining, re-skilling, updating, improving knowledge, and improving both technical and professional qualifications of the educators (Hepper 2018:89; Mustikawa & Qomariah 2020:15).

The duration of the in-service training programme should be determined and this time should be allocated by the institution to the in-service training programme (Hila et al 2017:145). Time allocation ensures appropriate future planning for in-service training and monitoring of a training programme (Bahadir 2018:115); it also ensures professional teamwork (Nguyen 2020:2). In addition, an appropriate and conducive environment for an in-service training programme should be included in the educators' training programme as this enables proper assimilation and understanding of the major purpose of the in-service training programme (El Hajjar & Alkhanazi 2018:2).

5.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The limitation was the sample was only representative of a college in one of the 25 districts in Limpopo Province. The results cannot be generalised to other provinces but may be useful for research on the same topic in the future.

5.7 RECOMMENDATIONS

5.7.1 Recommendations for research

The researcher recommends further research on continuous professional development for educators to equip educators with skills to manage students. The

continuous development plan for providing, planning, implementing and evaluating the specific in-service training programme that can meet the needs of the educators, through Batho Pele principles, in order to achieve their specific goals, objectives and an outcome. The researcher recommends the following programmes outline for educators:

- Early identification and treatment of drug abuse by college students;
- Specific attitude exhibited by people who suffer from drug abuse, such as display of aggression and inability to concentrate in class;
- Conflict management between educators and students.

The researcher recommends a specific standard of practical assessment of tools, using continuous in-service training programmes to measure the level of educators' competency when dealing with students who abuse drugs.

5.7.2 Recommendation for policymaking

The researcher recommends that for an in-service training programme to be sustained, the college departmental management should be involved. Thus, there should be professional teamwork regarding the policy, methods and process to be followed for a successful in-service training programme for educators. The planning, implementing and evaluation process of the in-service training programme must be designed to meet the training needs of the educators. The in-service training programme outline should provide adequate strategies to develop different policies to foster a positive healthy campus environment and learning experiences.

5.7.3 Recommendation for Education

The researcher found that there is a need for in-service training for educators on the early identification of signs and symptoms of drug abuse in college students, how to manage students' drug abuse, and ensuring a good interpersonal relationship between educators and students when dealing with students who abuse drugs. Educators need continuous professional development to counter student abuse of addictive drugs in colleges, which affects student achievement.

5.8 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

The information on the training needs of educators at the colleges will enable the development of an outline for an in-service training programme for educators, empowering educators to manage students' drug abuse. Educators' ability to manage students' drug abuse has the following implication for the educational institution, ability to health educate the students on the negative implications of drug abuse on students academics. Thus encourages the students to abstain from drug abuse end cause students to pay more attention to their academic achievement, thereby ensuing excellent academic performance furthermore, If students are supported in this regard, they may decide to stop abusing drugs which could consequently improve their academic performance and educators could focus on teaching and learning with students.

5.9 CONCLUSION

Drug abuse among students is a challenge for educators at an educational institution. In this research, a non-experimental quantitative descriptive, explorative research design was used. The purpose of the research and objectives of the research were related to the research methodology, data analysis and findings. The findings regarding educators' general awareness and willingness to participate in addressing, the challenges of drug abuse, among students, were described, because the general awareness and willingness of the educators to participate in the supports of students who abuses drug enhance early in identification, assessment and providing immediate supports to students who may be potential for drug abuse and also to students who is already abusing drugs. The questions and purpose of the study were answered. Recommendations for an in-service training programme outline were developed. The in-service training programme for the management of students' drug abuse will empower educators at an educational institution. Based on the findings of this research, the researcher made recommendations for further research to inform policy formulation and enhance education.

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ANNEXURES

ANNEXURE A: PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

ERIC Reference #: HSHDC/995/2020

Rec #: 012714-039

10-11-2020

Title: Educators' in-service training programme to manage student drug abuse at a college in Limpopo

Dear prospective respondent

My name is Mrs. Ezomo Olawunmi Doyinsola and I am conducting research under supervision of Dr Carine Prinsloo in the Department of Health Studies, towards a Masters of Arts in Nursing Science at the University of South Africa (UNISA).

You are kindly invited to participate in an academic research study that should not take more than 20 minutes of your time. You will be required to complete a web-based questionnaire. The purpose of the study is to develop an educators' in-service training programme at a Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) college to manage student drug abuse. The research study will explore and describe the training needs of educators at a TVET college regarding the management of students who abuse drugs. The information obtained from this study would allow the development of a programme outline for in-service training of educators at a TVET college to manage students who abuse drugs

You are invited to respond to a web based questionnaire on an in-service training programme for educators' at TVET colleges to manage students who abuse drugs because are an educator, whom we believe will give us valuable information that could assist the researcher to develop a programme outline for in-service training educators at a TVET college to manage students who abuse drugs.

Please take note of the following:

1. The survey will take approximately 20 minutes to complete.
2. Completing the questionnaire is voluntary.
3. The survey is anonymous.
4. You have a right to withdraw from the survey at any time.
5. You will not be compensated for completing the survey.
6. Your information will be kept confidential.

7. By starting the survey, you provide consent to participate in this research

The study has received ethical clearance and research permission. Any queries related to the study, in general, can be sent to Mrs Ezomo Olawunmi Doyinsola on 0848016188 or ayindeolawunmidoyinsola@yahoo.com. Should you require any further information on which the research has been conducted, you can contact, Dr Carine Prinsloo at eprinsc2@unisa.ac.za. or 0726176020. You can also contact the research ethics chairperson of the University of South Africa, Department of Health Studies Research Ethics Committee, Dr KJ Malesa at CREC@unisa.ac.za if you have any ethical queries.

Any ethical queries related to this study may be sent to using the following reference numbers: Ethical clearance HSHDC/995/2020 & Rec # 012714-039.

Please click on the link below to start the survey

<https://forms.gle/rjDhF4GmiSYSgg7v5>

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet and for participating in this study.

Mrs. EzomoOlawunmiDoyinsola

084 8016188 or ayindeolawunmidoyinsola@yahoo.com



Signature

ANNEXURE B: QUESTIONNAIRE

EDUCATORS' IN-SERVICE TRAINING PROGRAMME TO MANAGE STUDENT DRUG ABUSE AT A COLLEGE IN LIMPOPO

Questionnaire number: _____

The study focuses on the training needs of educators, to develop an in-service training programme for educators at a selected TVET college to manage students who are abusing drugs.

INSTRUCTIONS:

1. You have been asked to participate in this study. Please note by completing this questionnaire you are voluntarily agreeing to participate.
2. All information provided will be treated anonymously and confidential.
3. You may withdraw from the study at any given time during the completion of the questionnaire.
4. Please do not write your name on this questionnaire.
5. Kindly answer the questions as honestly as possible. Remember there are no right and wrong answers.
6. Please answer all questions by encircling the most appropriate answer or where indicated provide further information.
7. Your time is highly appreciated.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Please encircle the most appropriate answer and where applicable

Q1	Gender	
	Male	1
	Female	2
Q2	Age	
	How old are you?years
Q3	What is your position at the TVET college?	
	Junior lecturer(educator)	1
	Senior lecturer (educator)	2
	Departmental head	3
	College manager	4
Q4	What is your highest level of education?	
	National vocational certificate	1
	Diploma	2
	Undergraduate degree	3
	Postgraduate degree	4
Q5	For how long you have been lecturing at this college?	
	Less than 1 year	1
	1 – 5 years	2
	6 –10 years	3
	11 – 15 years	4
	16 – 20 years	5
	21 – 25 years	6
	26 years and above	7

SECTION B: RECOGNISING STUDENTS WHO ABUSE DRUGS

Encircling the most *likelihood statements* in identifying students who abuse drugs

	Statement	Extremely unlikely	Unlikely	Neutral	Likely	Extremely likely
B1 - Students who are suspected to abuse drugs will most likely display the following:						
Q6	Poor academic performance	1	2	3	4	5
Q7	Delinquent behaviour	1	2	3	4	5
Q8	Signs of depression	1	2	3	4	5
Q9	Poor personal care	1	2	3	4	5
Q10	Signs of being stressed	1	2	3	4	5
Q11	Disruptive behaviour	1	2	3	4	5
Q12	Come late for class	1	2	3	4	5
Q13	Tend to have unnecessary arguments with classmates	1	2	3	4	5
Q14	Inappropriate behaviour	1	2	3	4	5
Q15	Hyperactivity	1	2	3	4	5
Q16	Participate in organised riots	1	2	3	4	5
Q17	A lack of concentration in the classroom	1	2	3	4	5
Q18	Poor interpersonal relationships	1	2	3	4	5
Q19	Repeat subjects	1	2	3	4	5
Q20	None above					

Q 21 Please provide any additional information you think is important

SECTION C: EDUCATORS' MANAGEMENT OF STUDENTS REGARDING DRUG ABUSE

Encircling the management method, you **most frequently** used when you suspect as student is abusing drugs

Nr	Statement	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
C1 - Should I suspect a student to abuse drugs I will						
Q22	Engage in an informal discussion with the student	1	2	3	4	5
Q23	Refer the student for substance abuse rehabilitation	1	2	3	4	5
Q24	Refer it to the senior educator who takes the responsibility in assisting the student	1	2	3	4	5
Q25	Seek advice because I feel unsure how to address such a problem	1	2	3	4	5
Q26	Give a formal lecture on drug abuse prevention	1	2	3	4	5
Q27	Involve other students to support the involved student	1	2	3	4	5
Q28	Provide individual counselling	1	2	3	4	5
Q29	Have a group discussion with the students	1	2	3	4	5
Q30	Refer the student to the college health and wellness programme	1	2	3	4	5
Q31	Ignore it as it is outside my scope	1	2	3	4	5

Q32 Any other activity that are not mentioned above.

Encircling your view on the **level of importance** regarding educator-student relationships

Nr	Statement	Not at all important	Slightly important	Neutral	Often Very important	Extremely important
C 2 - Educators ...						
Q33	Should be flexible towards students' behaviour who are involved in drug abuse	1	2	3	4	5
Q34	Are role models to students	1	2	3	4	5
Q35	Should invest their time in listening to students' problems to support positive relationships.	1	2	3	4	5

Q36 Please provide any additional information you think is important

SECTION D: EDUCATORS' TRAINING NEEDS

Please encircle the **yes** or **no** option about drug abuse training received

Nr	Statement	Yes	No
D1 - Training			
Q37	I received training as an educator how to manage students who abuse drugs	1	2
Q38	I have been trained in the process to be followed if it is suspected that a student abuses drugs	1	2
Q39	I know how to manage the situation when a student is suspected to abuse drugs	1	2
Q40	I do not think it is necessary for an educator to know how to support students if it is suspected they abuse drugs	1	2

Nr	Statement		
D2–An in-service training programme for educators regarding student drug abuse should include...		Yes	No
Q41	Content that covers the processes to be followed when it is suspected that students abuse drugs	1	2
Q42	Content on how to manage interpersonal relationships with students who abuse drugs	1	2
Q43	Content how an educator should be able to recognise possible drug abuse amongst students	1	2
Q44	The role of policy documents in guiding student support regarding drug abuse	1	2
Q45	Different support methods to be used	1	2
Q46	The educator’s role when if it is suspected a student abuses drugs	1	2
Q47	Methods followed to engage with students who abuses drugs	1	2
D3 - Training should be...			
Q48	1. Continuous	1	2
Q49	2. Once-off training	1	2
Q50	3. Formal	1	2
Q51	4. Informal	1	2
Q52	5. During induction (orientation)	1	2

Q53 Please provide any additional information you think is important

Thank you for your time in completing the questionnaire.

ANNEXURE C: UNISA Ethical Clearance



UNISA HEALTH STUDIES HIGHER DEGREES ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

Date 12 June 2020

Dear Olawunmi Doyinsola Ezomo

NHREC Registration # : REC-012714-039

ERC Reference # : **HS HDC/995/2020**

Name : Olawunmi Doyinsola Ezomo

Student #: 55772099

Staff #:

Decision: **Ethics Approval from 12 June 2020 to 12 June 2023**

Researcher(s): Name Olawunmi Doyinsola Ezomo

Address 10, Timbavati Street, 47, Omega Park, Penina Park, Polokwane
E-mail address ayindeolawunmidoyinsola@yahoo.com, telephone #

0848016188

Supervisor (s): Name Dr HC de Swardt

E-mail address rina.deswardt@gmail.com, telephone # +27 72 518 8003

Working title of research:

Educators' in-service training programme to manage student drug abuse at a college in Limpopo

Qualification: MA

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the Unisa Health Studies Higher Degrees Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. Ethics approval is granted for three (3) years.

*The **low risk application** was **reviewed** by a Sub-committee of URERC on 2 June 2020 in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment. The decision will be tabled at the next Committee meeting on 7 July 2020 for ratification.*

The proposed research may now commence with the provisions that:

1. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to the relevant

guidelines set out in the Unisa Covid -19 position statement on research ethics attached.

2. The researcher(s) will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.
3. Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study should be communicated in writing to the Health Studies Research Ethics Committee HSREC@unisa.ac.za.
4. The researcher(s) will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.
5. Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the data, should be reported to the Committee in writing, accompanied by a progress report.
6. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study. Adherence to the following South African legislation is important, if applicable: Protection of Personal Information Act, no 4 of 2013; Children's act no 38 of 2005 and the National Health Act, no 61 of 2003.
7. Only de-identified research data may be used for secondary research purposes in future on condition that the research objectives are similar to those of the original research. Secondary use of identifiable human research data require additional ethics clearance.
8. No field work activities may continue after the expiry date (12 June 2023). Submission of a completed research ethics progress report will constitute an application for renewal of Ethics Research Committee approval.

Note:

The reference number **HSHDC/995/2020** should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants, as well as with the Committee.

Yours sincerely,

Signatures :



Chair of HSREC : Prof JM Mathibe-Neke

E-mail: mathijm@unisa.ac.za

Tel: (012) 429-6443



Executive Dean : Prof K Masemola

E-mail: masemk@unisa.ac.za

Tel: (012) 429-6825

COLLEGE OF HUMAN SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

21 January 2021

Dear Mrs Olawunmi Doyinsola Ezomo

NHREC Registration # :
Rec-240816-052
CREC Reference # :
2021-CHS - 55772099

Decision:
Ethics Approval from 21 January
2021 to 21 January 2024

Researcher(s): Mrs Olawunmi D

Ezomo Email: 55772099@mylife.unisa.ac.za

Supervisor(s): Dr Carine Prinsloo

Email: Eprinsc2@unisa.ac.za

Title: *Educator's in-service training programme to manage student drug abuse at a college in Limpopo*

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the Unisa College of Human Science Ethics Committee. Ethics approval is granted for three years and you may request extension afterwards.

The **low risk application** was **reviewed** by College of Human Sciences Research Ethics Committee, on **21 January 2021** in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment.

The proposed research may now commence with the provisions that:


1. The researcher(s) will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.
2. Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study should be communicated in writing to the College Ethics Review Committee.
3. The researcher(s) will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.

4. Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the data, should be reported to the Committee in writing, accompanied by a progress report.
5. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study. Adherence to the following South African legislation is important, if applicable: Protection of Personal Information Act, no 4 of 2013; Children's act no 38 of 2005 and the National Health Act, no 61 of 2003.
6. Only de-identified research data may be used for secondary research purposes in future on condition that the research objectives are similar to those of the original research. Secondary use of identifiable human research data require additional ethics clearance.
7. No fieldwork activities may continue after the expiry date (**21 January 2024**). Submission of a completed research ethics progress report will constitute an application for renewal of Ethics Research Committee approval.

Note:

*The reference number **2021-CHS- 55772099** should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants, as well as with the Committee.*

Yours sincerely,

Signature : 

Dr. K.J. Malesa
CHS Ethics Chairperson
Email: maleskj@unisa.ac.za
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Signature : PP 

Prof K. Masemola
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E-mail: masemk@unisa.ac.za
Tel: (012) 429 2298



ANNEXURE D: PERMISSION LETTER

PERMISSION LETTER TO THE HRD CAPRICORN TECHNICAL VOCATIONAL EDUCATIONAL AND TRAINING COLLEGE

16, MARKET STREET,
PRIVATE BAG X9674,
POLOKWANE
0700.
March 2020

Dear Mr. Matiba,

Permission request to conduct a research study.

REQUEST TITLE: EDUCATORS' IN-SERVICE TRAINING PROGRAMME TO MANAGE STUDENTS DRUG ABUSE AT A COLLEGE IN LIMPOPO

I, Mrs Ezomo Olawunmi Doyinsola is currently undertaking a Master's degree in Master's of Art in Nursing Science at the University of South Africa (UNISA). My supervisor is Dr HC de Swardt.

The purpose of the study is to develop an in-service training programme for educators at a college to manage student drug abuse. The objectives are to:

- Explore and describe the training needs of educators at a college regarding the management of students who abuse drugs
- Develop a programme outline for in-service training for educators at a college to manage students who abuse drugs

I hereby request your permission to conduct this study using educators to complete a questionnaire regarding an in-service training programme enabling them to manage students who are suspected to abuse drugs. The questionnaire will take approximately 20 minutes to complete. The respondents can fill it in a time convenient to them without

any infringement of college activities. This information will be valuable information as it could assist us to develop a programme outline for in-service training for educators at a TVET college to manage students who are suspected to abuse drugs.

I am looking forward to hearing from you. Thank you in advance.

Sincerely yours,

Mrs. Ezomo Olawunmi Doyinsola

Contact Details: 0848016188

ayindeolawunmidoyinsola@yahoo.com

Study Supervisor:

Dr HC de Swardt

072 5188003

rina.deswardt@gmail.com

Chairperson of the University of South Africa,

Department of Health Studies Research Ethics Committee

Prof Mathibe-Neke

Email address: mathijm@unisa.ac.za

Annexure D: Approval letter from research site



CAPRICORN COLLEGE FOR TVET

ISO 9001:2008 Certificated

CENTRAL OFFICE

16 Market Street Tel (015) 230 1800 0699 POLOKWANE

Private Bag X9674
0700 POLOKWANE

Fax (015) 291 2767

www.capricorncollege.edu.za

Enq Snr Personnel Officer Mooka

E.K

Date: 12/10/2020

To College Principal
Mamabolo L.J

cc Deputy Principal: Corporate

Services Moja J.K cc . Snr HR

Practitioner: Mathipa SL

**SUBJECT: APPLICATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE COLLEGE:
Mrs. EZOMO OLAWUNMI DOYINSOLA, A STUDENT IN THE
FIELD OF NURSING AT UNISA**

PURPOSE

To obtain approval of Mrs. Ezomo O.D application to conduct research in the College.

BACKGROUND

The College received the application form from Mrs. Ezomo O.D to conduct research in the College with the purpose of completing her qualification in Masters of Nursing.

DISCUSSION

Mrs. Ezomo O.D is requesting the College to offer her an opportunity to conduct the research in the College. The proposed topic of research is Educators' in-service training programme to manage student drug abuse at a College in Limpopo. The objectives of the study are:

1. To develop an in-service training programme for Educators at Technical Vocational Education and Training College to manage student drug abuse.

The College is expected to give her a full support to make study research a success by:

- Identify participants and provide their contact details to the Researcher.
- Distributing questionnaires/ instruments to participants on behalf of the Researcher.
- Providing the Official documents that might be requested by the Researcher.
- Providing data to the Researcher if requested and if available.

Attached please find the following documents:

- Student permission letter and application form to conduct research in the College.
- The research proposal approved by UNISA.
- Ethics clearance certificate issued by a University Ethics Committee.

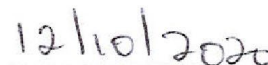
POLOKWANE CAMPUS C/o Dorp & College Streets 0699 POLOKWANE 0790 Tel: (015) 283 3300 2670 Fax: 015 297 2183	SENWABARWANA CAMPUS Senwabarwana Main Street 1919 SENWABARWANA 0742 Tel: (015) 505 3172 Fax: 015 505 3174	SESHEGO CAMPUS Freedom Drive SESHEGO 0811 Tel: (015) 223 9600 Fax: 015 223 5187	RAMOKGOPA CAMPUS Next to Mokomene High School RAMOKGOPA Tel: (015) 526 2750 / 526
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HRD is making the recommendation for the approval of the researcher's application as per request.



Snr Personnel Officer
Mooka EX

Date



Recommended/Nøt-reeommended-----



Snr HR Practitioner
Mathipa S.L

Date

12.10.2020

Supported Not Supported



Deputy Principal: Corporate Services

14/10/2020
Date

Ms. Moja J.K

Approved/ Not Approved

Principal

Date

Mr. Mamabolo

L.J

<u>POLOKWANE CAMPUS</u>	<u>SENWABARWANA CAMPUS</u>	<u>SESHEGO CAMPUS</u>	<u>RAMOKGOPA CAMPUS</u>
C/o Dorp & College Streets	Senwabarwana Main Street	1919 Freedom Drive	Next to Mokomene High School
0699 POLOKWANE	0790 SENWABARWANA	0742 SESHEGO	0811 RAMOKGOPA
Tel: (015) 283 3300	Tel: (015) 505 3172	Tel: (015) 223 9600	Tel: (015) 526 2750 / 526 2670
Fax: 015 297 2183	Fax: 015 505 3174	Fax: 015 223 5187	



14/10/2020

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ANNEXURE F: Language Editing

CERTIFICATE OF EDITING

11 February 2022

To whom it may concern:

This is to confirm that I have edited the following dissertation: **EDUCATORS' IN-SERVICE TRAINING PROGRAMME TO MANAGE STUDENT DRUG ABUSE AT A COLLEGE IN LIMPOPO** by **OLAWUNMI DOYINSOLA EZOMO** for language use. The technical layout of the document remains the responsibility of the student.

Eleanor M Lemmer

864 Justice Mohamet Street

Brooklyn

Pretoria



Annexure G: Technical Editing

To Whom It May Concern

Re: Technical Editing

This letter serves to inform you that the **MASTER OF ART IN NURSING SCIENCE** dissertation for Ms **OLAWUNMI DOYINSOLA EZOMO** , title: **“EDUCATORS’ IN-SERVICE TRAINING PROGRAMME TO MANAGE STUDENT DRUG ABUSE AT A COLLEGE IN LIMPOPO”**, was technically edited and formatted.

Regard

Rinnie Matlou

