HELPING STUDENTS COPE:

PEER COUNSELLING IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Being a Thesis submitted for the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

In the UNIVERSITY OF HULL

by

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March, 1997
To my Daughter

Ana Beatriz
PREFACE

Personal Preface

I have worked for some time as an assistant at a University in Portugal. During this time I felt I had been ineffective, as I observed were my faculty colleagues, in helping students to understand their own development and helping them to cope more effectively with stressful situations.

I wanted to help my students develop their potential and to promote their own personal growth. However, my efforts were not particularly successfully, and I came to believe that the Portuguese University system itself needs to change to become more supportive of its ‘customers’.

Educators have given most of their attention to developing students’ intellectual knowledge base and have tended to neglect students’ personal development needs. For me it became obvious that emphasising intellectual development above all is not sufficient to prepare students for their future lives and careers.

Conscious of the limitations of the current system in offering support for students and opportunities for them to develop themselves as persons, I embarked upon this research

Research Preface

A project was initiated to examine “stress” in students. In order to offer support to students (in Portugal) a Nightline project was established. The needs of peer helpers thus become the focus of study. These tended to be very similar to those for whom they offered help. Both demonstrated a need to take action for themselves to change their lives.
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Special thanks are due to my daughter Ana Beatriz, who, while I was welded to my computer, stayed with me and gave me hugs. And also for her co-operation in adapting to a different country. Her affective supportive helped me to react with optimism face up to my situation.

Finally, my thanks go to all my family and friends for their encouragement, time and love throughout these special and often difficulties times.
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ABSTRACT

This study looks at the problems facing students in their University careers and considers how they may be helped and supported at this time. A University Nightline telephone befriending service (LUA-Linha da Universidade de Aveiro) was established in Portugal (where no such provision previously existed) in order to provide a research vehicle for examining these issues, as well as to meet students' needs. The primary focus of the research was on the experiences of the Student Helpers who staffed the Nightline and on the issues presented by their clients. The research method was one of co-operative inquiry.

Through the training of Student Helpers and implementation of this service, insight was gained into the nature of students' problems. Consequently, it was possible to produce a taxonomy of student needs. A distinction was drawn between problems relating to 'inter-individual' (individual and academic) life and 'intra-personal' (personal and academic) life, with a course of action relating to each problem area being described as short or long-term. This taxonomy was used to analyse the calls received by the Nightline. Results indicate that most clients were seeking short term solutions to problems relating to 'intra-personal - personal life'. The experiences and problems of Students Helpers were assessed predominantly through the use of questionnaires and focus groups. An unexpected and pleasing outcome from this research was that in providing a peer counselling service, Student Helpers had facilitated their own personal growth. In most respects, their needs paralleled those of the clients they were trying to help.

A central tenet of this thesis is that the provision of academic support alone is not sufficient to ensure academic success. The research suggests that greater consideration should be given to opportunities for personal development programs as part of the curriculum in higher education.
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1. Setting the Scene

1.1 Introduction

The aim of this work is to examine sources of stress in the lives of university students, identify ways in which they cope, and explore ways in which they may be helped/support.

The context is a developmental one of a young adult entering a new, strange, and difficult world, having to face conflicting personal, social and academic pressures. The student has to cope with these as part of the "growing up" process so as to emerge as an adult ready to face employment and other world pressures. The focus of this study is on personal development and the quality of students' lives. This should, in turn, be reflected in the quality of academic performance. That is, while attention is directed at the individual person, and how they adapt to new life situations, learn to work with others, and master organisational/academic demands placed upon them - on their personal growth. The beneficiary is expected to be not only that particular individual but the university and ultimately the country itself.

Universities world-wide, and particularly in the UK, have grown at a tremendous rate in recent years. Increase in student numbers may have brought about economies of scale, but it could be argued that the loss of personal tutor contact with students and other pressures, some financial, in this new era may be responsible for increases in the "drop
out" rate in higher education. That is, although in terms of student numbers the system may seem more efficient, in terms of turning “freshers” into graduates it may be less so.

1.2 Changes in Contemporary University Education

Institutions of higher education in the UK have changed considerably over the last decade, and the most obvious change is in student numbers. In 1965/66 there were 400,000 students in higher education; by the 1980/81 the number doubled to 800,000 while by the 1994/95 it had reached 1,500,000 (HESA- source: The Times Higher Education Supplement, Sept. 29th 1995). This increase in numbers has necessarily been accompanied by physical changes on the campus. As student throughput has increased, so the design of library facilities and teaching networks has had to change. There are many more disabled students who require special facilities and ethnic minorities who require particular provision. Security systems have had to be developed to cope with campus crime, theft of bicycles, computers, etc, personal attacks, rape, violence, and the problem of drugs (International Congress On Campus Security, Southampton, April, 1996). Advances in information technology have both provided solutions and yet created their own problems. Teaching has also changed, with larger classes greater pressure on course texts, fewer tutorials and less one to one contact with a tutor. The move to semesterisation has increased time pressure on students and the need for assessment to be completed within the semester has taken away any “down time”, with little gap between formal teaching, exams and handing in assessed work. Patterns of assessment have also changed with the introduction of multiple choice examination and increased emphasis on continuous assessment and personal project work.
Study patterns have also changed with a considerable increase in part-time students. Fifteen years ago, part-time students were rare. By 1994/1995 there were 829,700 full-time and 79,400 part-time students, and there were more part-time (134,700) than full-time (127,800) postgraduate students. Similarly there has been an increase in mature students.

1.3 Students Problems

University students, in the main, still come from the age group of late teens/early twenties. This is a major transition period in life. It could be argued that students enter university as someone’s child and emerge into the world as adults, perhaps married and seeking employment. Everyone, has to go through the problems of growing up, whether at university or not, but students are subjects to particular pressures—academic, social and financial— which may exacerbate the problems. New students face difficulties in adjusting to their new environment; university life brings freedom but also new difficulties (Bell, 1996).

There should be interest in these issues from the students’ point of view, but there are implications beyond those of the individual. Problems arising from students’ anxiety and lack of satisfaction may result in students withdrawing socially and academically; this may lead to them not completing their degree programmes successfully (Moore, 1995). The number of students not completing their degrees is a matter of serious national concern. For the individual, this represents loss of an educational opportunity that may have long term consequences for both their attitudes to education and self esteem. For the university, it represents an inefficient use of resources, which may be reflected in
future financial provision. For the State, it means that students deemed by their school results able to benefit from higher education are not turned into graduates (see The Times, Good University Guide and Times Higher Education Supplement 27 May 1994). It is in the individual universities’ interests to play down the drop-out problem. A high drop-out rate reflects badly on the university, and particularly on its pastoral care, and will be likely to effect future recruitment. But high drop out rates are a fact, especially in the first semester of a degree course (Rickinson & Rutherford, 1996).

There are a number of potential reason for students dropping out. It may be that students lack ability or have chosen the wrong course, and thus dropping out is an inevitable outcome. However, there are good reasons to suppose that many students drop out through personal failure to cope with the stresses of the course and of university life. It is also arguable that the provision of adequate support services, both academic and personal, may be effective in alleviating students stress and so enabling more students to successfully complete their courses.

One major contemporary issue is financial hardship. In 1994/1995, for example, the Education and Welfare service of Hull University Union received 594 referrals about financial hardship/debt/grants and loans. It has been claimed that one in three students miss meals for lack of money; one in four considered dropping out through financial problems and 54% said that their financial situation interferes with their studies (Nightline Co-ordinator, 1995). Financial difficulties intensify personal problems. They can result in students using poor, unsafe (cheap) and often damp accommodation with little heating which can lead to health problems and a further exacerbation of personal
difficulties. The following fairy story has more than a ring of truth; it is an illustration of the sort of episodes a student may go through/encounter as they pass through University.

1.4 A Student Life

Once upon a time a very happy student arrived at University - very proud of himself. A success. All that hard work at school had been worth it. The reward was at hand.

But after the initial euphoria - after the carefree round of the fresher bazaar and fresher parties the new reality has to be faced. University life presents many facets, some opportunities and some pitfalls. The student has to learn to adapt to this environment.

He had to learn to cope with new freedoms; with new learning and new knowledge; to cope with the lecturers, their different methods, styles and idiosyncrasies; with working with other students - perhaps in small groups to eventual deal with assessments; and with examinations and new relationships, perhaps a new boy/girlfriend. All this without parental authority and support.

This new world may present problems of sexual behaviour and friendship; problems of loneliness, homesickness and of the boy/girlfriend left behind home (are they betrayed?). Another problem is how to cope with high expectation of the family.

Work may start to slide. Anxiety may arise from how to face tutors when an essay is late. There will be other crises - the computer goes down with no back-up - the vital book is not in the library - another student may have lost the essential experimental results!

Social life may be pressing - beer-drugs-sports. Colleagues may press a friend to go out instead of studying. Perhaps depression ensues. Finances maybe out of control. A girl/boyfriend in trouble uses drugs and maybe contemplates or does attempt suicide.

The promised land that the University might have seemed, proves not so attractive after all. Once the world was rolled out before the student - but now there are problems - being behind with assignments - not understanding the course - debts.

Without help and support it may be easier just to give up, to leave, to dropout.
This is a small and generalised, story, yet it describes the everyday world of a student. And as well as problems with the University, there may be problems at home: a mother dying, a father’s coronary, a sister injured in a road accident, a parental divorce. It is in the Student Unions’ interests to support services such as advice, guidance and counselling. Universities also need to support such services to try to ensure that more students successfully complete their studies.

1.5 Student Pressures and Needs

"If a man asks for bread give him grain
and he will feed himself for life.” (Oxfam Advertisement.)

The above pen portrait points to some of the problems, challenges and stresses that students may face and how these may interfere with academic success. Most efforts, both in terms of research and of practical help, have not concentrated directly upon students’ needs, but rather have concentrated on picking up the pieces when coping has failed - a rescue sticking plaster approach. As the Oxfam advertisement tells us it is better to give a person the skills to cope rather than put efforts into supporting them when they fail. More information is required on the ways students seek to deal with new problems and new situations, the skills they need, and the support services that require to be on offer for them.

While there are ample statistics on outcomes - the number of students who fail exams; fail to get degrees; and the number who drop out, there is very little published research on the sort of problems that students face and the sort of (inadequate) coping strategies
they use. A number of universities and professional organisations are beginning to acknowledge this. If not out of concern about the individual student, economic consideration is a potential motivator. (For example, in 1996 the Institute of Chartered Accountants, has identified a 50% failure rate in their professional examinations; this is recognised as a waste of training facilities and student potential, and consequently it is seeking to finance a research project into students’ perceptions and coping strategies in relation to these examinations.)

So at the outset, it can be said that it is a problem. This can be evidenced by an increase in failure rate in examinations and an increase in drop-out rates. First it has to be acknowledged that students have always had problems. But whatever these may have been in the past, they are not the same as the problems experienced by students today. If this is so, then today’s students are less able at coping, or receive less support, or the problems they face now are so much greater. There is absolutely no reason to believe that students today are any less well equipped to deal with University life than they were twenty years ago, and in many ways, indeed, they ought to better prepared. Training is available now in useful skills such as those needed to make better use of facilities, (library or computer centre), and in those strategies designed to improve exam performance. In many ways, contemporary students are much less naive than their predecessors. They generally know how assessment systems work and are fully aware of their rights. This is admittedly all conjecture, but there is no research evidence nor any prior reason to suppose that in personal terms students at University today are less able to cope than their forbears. So it may be assumed that either they are less well supported, or the problems they face are greater.
How can this be? Ostensibly, welfare/support and counselling services are more widespread, more professional and more effective than ever before. But there are also more students, and staff/student ratios have deteriorated. In the Psychology Department at Hull, for example, the ratio in 1960 was 7 to 1 and in 1996 is 21 to 1. In the United Kingdom across all Psychology Departments in 1996, the staff/student ratio was 18 to 1 (Association of Heads of Psychology Departments).

Although more attention has been paid to personal supervision systems with training and monitoring of tutors, it is nevertheless the cases that the number of tutorials has decreased. Ten years ago in Hull every second year student had a minimum of 10 general tutorials per year. Now they have tutorials only if they request them. Lecturers classes have also increased in size. These changes, together with increased pressure on lecturers to publish and to earn money outside the department, have resulted in a considerable reduction in personal staff/student contact time.

The Head of the Engineering Department boasted in a local radio broadcast that on any one day half of his staff were away from Hull. What about the students? It is evident that career minded academic world be better advised to minimise their student contact time to concentrate on more commercially viable projects. At one time it may have been true that each lecture/tutorial was informed by the practical research involvement of the tutor; this is hardly true today. All this is happening against a background of modularisation, where the students have allegiance to their course, rather than to a department; indeed students on many modular degrees have no “home” at all.
Such students, especially if they are part-time, can easily become “lost”, and it maybe that no one, not even their supervisor, is aware that they are falling behind in their studies.

Another factor is un-doubtedly the student mix. There are more students from different social/cultural backgrounds than ever before. Many of these are without financial support from their parents, and the contemporary ethos of independence may make many students reluctant even to ask parents for help. There may also be little support from home, as the parents themselves may have had no experience of higher education and so fail to understand the problems their children face. There may be little sympathy from parents for their child’s choice of study area. Their subject, like Peace Studies, may seem irrelevant, and even traditional courses such as Literature and Classics, may seem a luxury to parents, who are aware of economics in a world of high unemployment and hoping only that their offspring will gain a qualification that will get them a job. It is also probably true that today’s students face greater stresses than their predecessors in not being able to look with confidence to a future of secure employment.

Perhaps all the above suggest how the world is changing. The university world may be changing faster than most, but nevertheless change is an ingredient in all our lives. Students, in this sense, are no different to anyone else. But as well as day-to-day changes in life, some of which happen as a result of all we do and others which are independent of us and of which we have no control, there are identifiable stages that represent a natural progress in higher education, taking a new job, becoming parents. Such transitions invariably create problems for us all, and each of us has to learn a new
set of strategies of how to cope with the change and to be able to cope with the new circumstances. University entrance is a time of major transition—usually it means leaving home (sometimes for the first time), learning to be independent, having to make individual decisions of how to allocate time and money, which academic options to choose, perhaps the first “serious” sexual relationship. But more than this, it is a transition into full adulthood.

Even for mature students, entering University represents a major transition - perhaps from being a housewife and mother responding each moment to the demand of the home and family, to doing what she wants for herself in a new world; mixing with younger people with radical views; perhaps moving from being a person who knows everything, a person in charge, to being placed at the bottom of the heap again; maybe feeling fallible, and lost, having to ask a secretary for advice on the course, rather than giving help and advice as they may have done in their previous life. Some students will be resilient, able to cope with change; others will not. It is reasonable to distinguish between different developmental patterns (Super, 1980, Chickering & Havighurst 1981). For example, the mature manager made redundant and seeking retraining is likely to appear a very immature student!

Successful students will need to have academic skills if they are to succeed, but they will also need individual skills - for example, in organising time, keyboard skills, and the like. They will also need personal skills to enable them to be resilient and cope with change (Tavares, 1993, 1995). Students are assumed to have the necessary academic ability if they have been successful in obtaining a place on a particular course; the
University/Student Union will provide courses on “learning to learn” as well as specific computing skills and so on in order to be a successful student. The early period at university can be viewed as a major transition, a major period of personal development, a period of personal growth. Looking at the personal needs of students and how they cope with challenge/adversity in their learning processes could be one of the central issues.

1.6 Personal Development

Overall, the literature on student needs is diffuse. On review, it shows a concentration, on the one hand, of students with special needs such as mental, physical or sensorial, and on the other hand, a focus on academic needs such as academic skills with little on personal growth. The needs of real students in their day-to-day life have not been extensively studied. The reality shows students seeking help with personal issues from support services such as counselling (McGuiness, 1995), self-help groups, Nightliners, or others (Counselling Service, Annual Report, 1995/96, University of Hull).

The present study aims to identify students’ problems and students’ needs, and particular attention is given to the needs of growing up and the needs of ‘self’. Figure 1.1 (developed from the literature) is intended to illustrate student needs in two ways. First are needs related directly to academic requirements and academic success, and second are needs related to the growing up process, needs linked with private and personal life.
In this research, attention is directed primarily at how students can be given the skills to cope and understand this period of rapid personal development/growth.

The first priority of such research is to understand the process of growing-up and the needs of self (self-concept, self realisation, self-esteem), the needs for healthy physical development and the acquisition of personal competencies.

The second priority is perhaps to understand the needs related to survival in an academic environment and how to achieve success, that is, the needs of learning how cope with
teachers and study skills, particularly the need to cope with anxiety and the stress of assessment, the needs for social life, and needs for personal support (to support and to be supported).

Figure 1.2: Research Agenda
Figure 1.2 sets out the pattern of needs characteristic of students life. In themselves they provide an agenda for research, and suggest the necessary provision of services to meet these needs.

Universities would be advised to take these parameters into consideration and acknowledge that support services are necessary in order to support and meet the students needs to ensure successful academic outcome.

Higher education systems world-wide have already given attention to such student needs. However more effort could perhaps be placed on students’ specific needs such as understanding the personal process of growing up in an uncertain environment and an uncertain world.

One recent innovation has been the introduction of services such as Peer Counselling/Peer Support (Carr, 1987, 1988; Rigby & Slee, 1991; Funk et al. 1994; Pepler, 1996; Hart, 1996; Broadbridge, 1996; Menesini et al. 1996). This type of support, based on a psychological counselling approach (Cowie & Sharp, 1995; Broadbridge, 1996; Rivas, 1996; Cowie, 1996), is provided by students for students, has increased in recent years.

1.7 Support Services

In Hull like most UK universities, there are two types of support structures: one is offered by the University such as the Counselling Service and the other offered
principally by the Student Union, such as Nightlines, Self-help Groups (e.g., Support Gay and Lesbian group etc.).

For example in Hull and Humberside University (operate a joint Nightline), during the academic year 1994\1995, Nightline received 438 calls and there were 136 “drop-ins” (Nightline Co-ordinator, 1995). This service is run by students for students. In the 1974/1975 academic year, the Education and Welfare Service at University of Hull received 3275 enquiries.

A review of literature shows clearly the value of support services. For example, Sheffield Hallam University examines withdrawal from courses. Factors influencing the decision of students to leave the University were: course unsuitable/disliked 41%; personal reasons 17%; academic problems 11%; financial problems 11% and accommodation 6%, (Division of Access and Guidance Annual Report, 1993/94, Sheffield Hallam University). Information from students considering withdrawal showed that they found the information and support obtained from Sheffield-Hallam services to be most useful.

1.8 Portuguese Support Services

In different countries, there are different cultural realities, however the students and the students problems are remarkably similar, being defined more by context than country. Yet there are differences in types of support. For example, in Portugal the availability of student support structures such as a guidance and counselling service, is limited, and is
dependent on the university official structures such as Social Services and Pedagogique Committee.

The Student Unions (Associações Académicas) have had a tradition of concentrating on cultural and sporting activities. However, more recently, they are beginning to be conscious of different types of student problems and needs. For example only in February 1997, in Lisbon, there was the First National Meeting about Psychological Support in Higher Education. The prospects for the future seem to be very promising, not only because the Unions were involved in this event, but also because they emphasise the importance of direct participation of students in such support systems.

1.9 Summary

Generally the university student is a person just leaving adolescence. To be an independent adult means adopting a new physical image, and a different style of life. University students are in a major transitional period of their lives. This means many changes and many of new needs: physical, cognitive, affective and social changes have to be successfully dealt with if the process is to proceed in a normal way. However, sometimes people need help with this process. It can be argued that success in life depends more on psychological maturity than on academic ability. Thus it may be necessary to intervene in the educational system to promote the necessary personal development process.

In essence, the argument is that intellectual skill and academic endeavour are not sufficient to ensure success in a university course. Obviously a student will need the
necessary cognitive skills to cope with his/her studies. But there is more to success than simply understanding the course work; there are many practical problems associated with organisation of time, assessing facilities, interacting with the colleagues, etc. Students will need social and organisational skills if they are to succeed. Moreover, all these activities take place in the context of growing up, of establishing personal independence and relationships with others. University is then a place of both academic and personal learning and the two are interdependent and each is needed if the time at University is to provide a basic training for life and for a career. Both aspects of learning are essential (Sprinthall, 1994). Ideally a successful student should gain both academic mastery of his/her subject and personal maturity as a result of time spent at University. These may be seen as reflecting “thinking” activities in relation to study and “feeling” activities in relation to interactions with others. But this is too naive a dichotomy. Personal (emotional) maturity is, it may be argued, a prerequisite to successful academic learning, and clarity of thinking an adjunct to successful personal relationships. Writers such as McClelland (1973) have written extensively about the relationships between scholastic aptitude, education and life outcomes, and support the conclusion that psychological maturity and personal competence are better predictors of “success” in life than exam performance. Similarly findings in terms of moral development are provided by Kohlberg (Kohlberg & Mayer, 1972).

The starting point for this research is the assumption that Universities are aware of their responsibilities and that facilities are in place for most students to pursue their academic studies, but that facilities and support for personal learning and development are less well provided for and less well structured. The argument is that with growing student
numbers and increased fragmentation of teaching through the institution of modular systems, it is becoming even more important than in the past to have an effective pastoral care system in place. The unacceptably high drop out rate is seen as evidence of this need.

All dimensions of development should be considered in the educational process. As McGuiness (1989, p. 10) said:

"Human beings perform tasks more effectively where certain emotional and social conditions are met".

Figure 1.3: Life Success

Figure 1.3, attempts to show the relative importance of academic achievement and psychological maturity and their interaction in determining ultimate life success. Here the concept of "life success" is taken to embody both aspects. Similar concepts are expressed by Super (1957, 1980) in a model of career success. Here career is used not
simply to refer to a “job” but, as a framework where life is viewed as a set of parallel “careers”: some in employment and others such as marriage or sport. In these terms, a satisfactory career relates to the implementation of self concept in life. This may be achieved by a single career (maybe a job) meeting most needs or through the joint satisfaction gained through the interplay of all “careers”. That is, Super considers the “whole” person over the whole of their life activity, and how, at a particular point in time, and different ‘careers’, different aspects of life may together add to satisfaction by the fulfilment of the self concept.

Figure 1.4: Super’s hypothetical example of a life-career rainbow (Super, 1980)
As can be seen in Figure 1.4 and Figure 1.5, there are some people who gain their ‘happiness’ from their job alone. However, the majority of people need fulfilment from their job in conjunction with other factors such as family, love and leisure, to achieve overall personal fulfilment.

The self and self awareness are at the heart of Super’s ideas. This is in line with the theories of others, such as Rogers (1980, 1987), who emphasise personal awareness and individuality as the key to practical success and emotional contentment. The goal for an individual may be seen as personal fulfilment. This has to be incorporated into any educational goal and ultimately a societal goal. If an individual’s potential is to be exploited, following the ideas of people like Rogers, this may only be realised if people are aware, mature, and gain personal worth and fulfilment from their work and life.
The ideas of Rogers and Super can be translated into a practical learning programme where the curriculum is the 'self' and the syllabus one of awareness, understanding, experimentation, and implementation. Super is more specific in identifying stages within this process of learning about the self, but Rogers is no less clear about the prerequisites for learning and of the experience and understanding which it is necessary to develop, for a person, in his/her own terms, to personally grow. Super was adamant that to understand the process of learning about self, the individual will probably need the help and support of another. Similarly, Rogers' ideas gave us the whole profession of counselling in that he demonstrated how the empathic support of another can be a powerful force in personal growth.

In simple terms, and in the context of this current research, students are seen to face problems which challenge "self" - challenge the ideas of who they are and who they should be - and then they need to learn about themselves. In Super's terms, they need to develop their "self concept"; in Rogers' framework, they need to move towards being self-actualised. The evidence is clear that those with high self esteem and self efficiency - those who are in fact "happy with themselves" - are more likely to persist and achieve their goals in the face of stress and adversity (Lazarus 1976).

Equally clear but more difficult to demonstrate to the satisfaction of science is the fact that those who are happy with themselves (have implemented their self concept in their lives (Super, 1980) are also happy in their lives.
1.10 Rationale of Study

This chapter makes many assumptions and draws up on a number of theoretical ideas. As it is stands it is pragmatic and can be thought of in terms of grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The initial observations are of students not coping - of dropping out, of experiencing personal difficulties. Following from this is the observation that most of the reported difficulties arise from failure to cope which may be characterised as a personal rather than as an intellectual issue. This in turn points to the necessity for psychological maturity as well as academic competence if students are to succeed. So attention is directed at the importance of the concept of self and implementation in life. Here the work of theorists such as Super and Rogers provide a rich framework to explore students needs and to support ways in which they may be helped and encouraged in their personal development.

1.11 Research Questions

Part I: Students Stress

1) What are the principal sources of student stress and students' problems in an academic context?

2) What are the principal students’ needs in relation to their problems?

3) What kind of support services may serve these needs?

Part II - Practical Help

4) Can a “Nightline” service offered by students provide an efficient support service?
2. Stress and Coping

2.1 Outline

Theories of stress are examined to establish a theoretical framework for this research. Stress is a multifaceted word, which gives rise a number of very different theoretical models, within which cognitive theories appear to offer potential useful frameworks for empirical work. Special attention is given to life events and transitions, the concept of control and meaning of stress. Stress is an inevitable factor in all our lives. Cognitive Behavioural theories not only allow theoretical understanding, they suggest interventions and techniques to manage stress and develop effective coping strategies. There is evidence that people can be taught to cope with stress, either specifically through learning appropriate coping skills or more generally through personal development work.

2.2 For Understanding Stress

2.2.1 Definition of Stress

Much has been written about stress. It is one of the most misused words in the literature on human behaviour. It is used as a "noun" (I am under stress) or as a "verb" (I am being stressed by these examinations) or as an "adjective" (the "viva" examination will be stressful for me). Stress has been accepted as an explanation for many things. As Fisher (1994) said, stress is a "broad umbrella term". Although very widely used it is a difficult concept to define. Hans Selye in 1936 was the first to introduce the concept of stress
into the life sciences, as “a non specific response of the body to any demand made upon it” (Selye 1974, p. 17).

Stress can be seen as either a positive or negative experience. Selye in 1957 described positive stress experiences as “eustress” and negative stress or distress or strain.

Another distinction has been made between stress, stressor, and strain (distress). This is using the analogy of physical stress. For example, it is possible to say that a person is like a guitar; imagine if you broke the highest string on the guitar and you needed to continue to play. One solution would be to tune a lower string until it reached the pitch of the higher string. Then you can say that this string is distressed; it is being submitted to exaggerated strain and will be in a stressed state. If precautions are not taken (e.g., not playing to violently) serious damages could result (string breaks, and consequently it will be impossible to play the guitar).

Stress as the subjective experience of the event, a condition that may be experienced when a person perceives that they are unable to meet demands and pressures that are place upon them and which may be associated with a range of ill-health effects both physiological and psychological. A stressor on the other hand has been defined as a specific characteristic of the environment. And strain is the individual maladjustive psychological, physiological or behavioural response to the stress (Unsal, 1994).

Early work was based purely on this based physical concept of stress. For example stress would be defined as a stimulus that imposes detectable strain that cannot be easily
accommodated by the body. Similarly Cannon (1932) identified stress as the typical reaction of the “fight or flight” with hormonal and chemical concomitants.

Later research took a more psychological perspective. For example Lazarus and Folkman (1984) saw psychological stress is as "particular relationship between the person and the environment that is appraised by the person as taxing or exceeding his or her resources and endangering his or her well-being." (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 19). They emphasise the relationship between the person and the environment; how the characteristics and subjective experience of the understand both shapes the perception of the environment and the effects of it.

Stress can be associated with pleasant (e.g. a passionate embrace a kiss or making love) and unpleasant (e.g. discussions with partner about their being unfaithful) experiences. The term is often used indiscriminately to describe a range of experiences, both positive and negative. It is frequent used when people can not explain their feelings or do not understand what is happen to them; they just justified this by saying: “it is stress”, and this appears to offer an explanation for them. Everybody talks about being under stress—stress is a universal, everybody has it. But in fact the more the definition is explored the more difficulties are raised.

Again Selye (1980) said that complete freedom from stress is death. In this context stress is the spice of the life, experiences of stress may be perceived as danger or a challenge.
Cox (1978) defined stress as a threat to physical and psychological well-being. The psychological structure includes motives and beliefs that initiate the processes of dealing with the source of stress. The process depends on how the context is perceived by the person. The primary appraisal of threat and anticipation of harm; the secondary appraisal has to do with action and coping responses. The action represents the response to the stress and it produces certain consequences; it follows the simple ABC rule of Antecedents, Behaviour and Consequences (Folkman et al., 1979).

The principals symptoms or manifestations of stress are physiological (such as changes at hormonal level as adrenaline and noradrenaline) and psychological (variables such as satisfaction, self esteem, tension, anxiety depression and boredom) and behavioural symptoms (alcoholism, smoking, absenteeism and turnover).

2.2.2 Research on Stress in an Historical Context

The types of stress experienced by human beings has changed over the centuries. The changes are due to essential changes in society. In the past the main concerns were physical survival, then the pressure was put on basic physical needs, like not being killed or injured. Then with the industrial development the hierarchy of needs changed, centralised on psychosocial needs. Despite the removal of physical threat, the human being continues to actually experience stress. People now live longer and at a higher standard of luxuries and comforts. But this does not guarantee a good quality of life. In fact, to the contrary, there are today more reports of stress than ever before (Cox, 1978).
Stress was used on 14th century to mean adversity, affliction, or hardship. By the 17th century the term used was based on the physical analogy. In the 19th century stress was conceived as an internal force, particularly in medical contexts where stress was seen as a cause of ill health. By 1932, Cannon, considered stress to be a disturbance of homeostasis and regarded stress as a stimulus. In the same period Selye was using the term in a very special technical sense to mean an orchestrated set of bodily defences against any form of noxious stimulus. By 1953 Wolff moved from the simple concept of physical stress to efficiency of human functioning.

Wars, particularly the II World War and Korean War had a substantial impact on stress research. The 20th century has been described as the age of anxiety and stress. Since the 1960's there has been a growing recognition that while stress is an inevitable aspect of the human condition, it is coping that makes the big difference to actual outcomes (Lazarus, 1966).

Lazarus(1984, p.4) considered four principal issues:

1 - Stress in the biological usage as an “orchestrated physiological response” (Selye 1932), or a “dynamic state” (Wolff, 1953).

2 - Psychological process such as coping in which a person “struggles to manage” psychological stress.

3 - Stress outcomes and costs including disease and psychological distress.

4 - Relationship between the organism and the environment. In this perspective the transactional or relational model of stress suggested by Cox and Mackay (Cox, 1978) described stress as a threat to physical and psychological well-being.
Stress research has been categorised here in terms of a processing model but it must be noted that different perspectives focus attention on different outcomes and causes of stress. For example psychosomatic medicine seeks to explain various types of disorders such as colitis ulcers in terms of psychodynamic processes.


On the other hand developmental psychology has looked at developmental process within childhood and adolescence which, a) predispose people to distress and, b) allows identification on of transitions points where stress is likely to arise. The most recent stress research has concentrated the consequences of stress and coping behaviours which may alleviate the negatives aspects of stress. Coping responses will be discussed in Chapter 3.

2.2.3 Stress: A Summary

Stress has proved difficult to define. However stress continued to be in vogue as a concept. Many researchers draw a distinction between stress and closely related concepts like anxiety and may conflate the concept with frustration and other negative emotional states.

Studies, have tended to concentrate on psychological aspects of stress and how these
may precipitate physical symptoms. It is evident even from this brief review that context is an important aspect of stress, and that both personal and contextual factors give rise to different reactions to potentially stressful events. For example, in an academic context stress on students may be just as disruptive as the stress of a soldier in battle. Within this context, it is important to note specific life events and to pay particular attention to the developmental aspects of life transitions.

2.3 Theory and Practice

Kurt Lewin (1951) said that:

"There is nothing so practical as a good theory."

That is a good theory, which ought to allow access to practical solutions. However the theory is not all: "If the facts don’t fit the theory, change the facts" wrote Albert Einstein. Theories are important because they give orientation to research. With due respect to Einstein, it is important to examine both the facts and the theories in trying to suggest ways of helping people.

Theories construct facts, so facts are not actually independent of theories. A particular fact is not a fixed point in reality it is actually a product of some theory. This chapter focuses on the aspects of both theory and practice

Theories of stress are found at different conceptual levels and within different families. For example, Palmer and Dryden (1995) used a Multidonal Transactional Model of Stress based on Cox and Mackay (1981) and some modalities of Lazarus et al. (1984).
Kutashi (1980) identified the following theoretical categories: psychoanalytic; learning and behavioural theories; developmental; sociological; ethnological; physiological and neurological. These perspectives indicate at the outset that the single word “stress” is likely to conform to one or more of these levels. The cognitive-behaviour approach is probably the theory that offers the most useful structure for allowing an understanding of how people perceive stress and how they try to adapt their behaviour to cope.

Stress it is an important aspect of our lives. But is it to be seen as a disruptive phenomenon that we cannot control, or is stress a positive issue in living, a fact of life, which would not be the same without it. This research is specifically concerned with the University context, where stress is mostly usually seen as a negative factor having a detrimental effect on performance.

2.3.1 Levels of Explanation

It is possible to consider stress in terms of different levels of explanation, centralised on theories (physiological or psychological) and on outcomes (also physiological and psychological). Physiological theories are often in competition with psychological theories; some theories are more useful in some contexts than others. Physiological concepts are perhaps more valuable in considering diseases and related outcomes. Psychological theories are of more value in understanding the disruption of peoples lives. The psychological response may be construed in two ways, cognitive or behavioural.

We can understand the effects of stress on an organism at a very simple level as physiological e.g. a heart beating or a disease, and many of these effects will be long
term. At a psychological level, e.g. what has happened when we are insulted; will depend on meaning attributed to the event. The response to stress has the objective of reducing or eliminating the source of stress. Both physiological and psychological responses can be considered as forms of coping. But of course these different levels of explanation are not independent, for a particular stimulus, interpreted as danger, may engender fear, with concomitant physiological responses which may (as with excess production of stomach acid) produce long term consequences of illness or disease.

2.3.2 Understanding an Individual’s Response to Stress

Different authors have taken different perspectives. The stress concept has been considered in terms of tolerance; stress is seen as an imbalance between demand and capacity (McGrath, 1976; Fisher, 1994); stress has been linked to the concept of “loss of control”, and a positive correlation shown between high stress and a loss of sense of control (Fisher, 1984, 1994). The potential impact of a stressor depends on how it is perceived and appraised by the individual (Lazarus, 1966, Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). It is important to understand how an individual perceived and responded to an event and to understand the qualities and meanings of the event itself (Retfield & Stone, 1979; Folkman et al., 1986). The interactional approach emphasises the interaction between the person and environment allowing more efficient explanations. Because the “person” and “the environment” are each complex there is a great variation in the ways that people experience and responded to stress, even to the same stimulus. Environment may be perceived as stressful or non stressful by different individuals. Analysing the situation in this way it is clear the processing of information (and consequent meanings) that is the key to understanding individual differences.
One of the most useful definitions that can be used in both research and practical activities is to consider stress as a perceptual phenomenon. It is the imbalance between the demands of a person and their mechanism of coping what gives rise to the experience and symptoms of stress. When coping strategies are inadequate or ineffective, the stress will continue and if prolonged will give rise to permanent damage.

By analysing the different components of the stress response, it can be seen that different theories have tended to focuses on different parts of the process. For example, some theories define stress particularly in terms of the stimulus (focus on events in the environment, such as natural disasters or disease) as the cause the stress. Other theories concentrate on the interpretation of events and how they are construed as threat, while others theories pay more attention to the effectiveness of responses and how people cope with a state of stress.

2.3.3 Stress and Disease as Outcomes at the Physiological Level

Psychological stress is mediated by the Autonomic Nervous System and by the Neuroendocrine System (Hall, 1996). Explanations in terms of specific mechanism are readily available to explain the link between stress and coronary heart disease (Caplan, 1975; House, 1974; Matteson and Ivancevich, 1978), depression (Beck, 1976; Beck et al., 1974; Kasl, 1995) and cancer and even to conditions like diabetes (Cooper, 1984).

For example sympathetic activity speeds the heart rate and constricts blood vessels causing blood pressure to rise; if this is too rapid, sensors may cause the parasympathetic system to operate to lower blood pressure - this may even cause the heart to stop (Hall,
Similarly, stress may act so as to block the action of neurotransmitters such as serotonin, norepinephrine and dopamine which might then produce the symptoms of depression.

There is an obvious link (interaction) between a person's behavioural and their physical health. For example, Type A coronary prone behaviour has received a lot of attention. The characteristics of this behaviour are: competitiveness, striving for high achievement, aggressiveness, time urgency, and the need to control the environment. Type B behaviour is characterised by the absence of these qualities. People exhibiting type A behaviour have more health problems such as heart attack, headaches, depression etc. (Glowinkowski and Cooper, 1986 p.7).

Other physiological changes that need to be noted are in relation to biological rhythms. For example circadian rhythms; level of cortisone change during the day. Those changes are correlated with decrements in psychological performance in a shift work (Empson, 1993). And mood changes, with consequent differences in reaction to life events, occur with changes in the menstrual cycle; depression and stress associated with the notion of PMS (Pre-menstrual Tension Syndrome) are well documented. In the broader context the activation of these cycles be they light or seasonal themselves may link with stress reaction. SAD (Seasonal Affective Disorder) is one such condition received much current attention.
2.3.4 Understanding Individual Stress: Summary

In simple terms it can be that events of themselves are not stressful; it is the meanings that are made of them. If so then coping responses would aim to change meanings. A primary focus of interest here is the effect of stress on mental health, psychological well being and task performance, and to see in what ways people can be assisted to protect themselves from, and to cope with, the effects of stress in their lives.

2.4 Stress, Work and Well-Being

2.4.1 Definition of Coping

The work of Lazarus has been influential in looking at ideas of coping. He defined coping:

"As constantly changing cognitive and behavioural efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person" (Lazarus & Folkman’ 1984, p.141).

The term "coping" was used by Monat and Lazarus (1985) to refer to efforts in dealing with situations of harm, threat or challenge. An analysis in term of coping strategies enables researchers to suggest techniques for stress management. Personal coping strategies are the results of socialisation and personal history of learning (Campos, 1987). Lazarus et. al. (1984) attribute coping to two essential functions: emotion-focused coping and problem-focused coping. The first function is linked to the regulation of the emotional stage though efforts that permit individuals to develop efficient and appropriate thinking and behaviour. The second function is the modification or alteration of the relationship between the individual and the environment.
through the effort that permits efficient responses to stress induced situations. Stone, Helder and Scheneider (1988), cited by Pereira (1991) classify coping strategies in the following categories: solving-problems, social support, redefinition of the situation, reduction of tension, avoidance, search for information and religion.

In general in describing coping strategies it is useful to distinguish between active control, escape strategies, cognitive-reappraisal and coping style. The first is based on action which includes active control strategies (such as speaking to the teacher to get help) and escape strategies (avoiding being in the situation). Secondly, it is cognitive-reappraisal which may be proactive with escapist thoughts, or to find challenges in a situation. Thirdly, we can describe a coping style localised in symptom - management; getting extra sleep or naps, doing physical exercise, sex, eating or drinking are good examples of this.

For the sake of brevity and completeness stress can be described from three perspectives: Stress as an internal response (Selye, 1974). Stress in the environment where the stressful life events have importance to implement life changes (Holmes and Rahe 1967); stress as an interaction, (Lazarus, 1984). Each gives rise to different kinds of coping strategies: coping as an internal response (connected with comprehensibility, manageability and meaningfulness; coping as environment resources where social support has an important role (Cobb, 1976); coping as an interaction is viewed the cognitive and behavioural efforts, that people make to manage stress. These could be centralised on emotion (emotion-focused strategies) or on the problem (problem-focused strategies).
2.4.2 Crisis

What is crisis? In simple terms it is when a person is not coping (Lazarus, 1984). Sometimes the challenge can be met from an existing pattern of behaviour, more often a person has to develop new ways of coping, and particularly a person may fail to adapt - then the crisis defined in terms of some internal event - becomes a personal crisis - associated with a feelings of being able to cope. The evolution of a crisis is then an event which can not be dealt with by some standard response, so having to be dealt with by developing new strategies, new ways of responding. Successful resolution will be characterised by adaptation to change and the development of new personal skills. It is easy to see that the challenge of negative life events can be seen as making a person psychologically stronger and thus contribute to personal growth (Aguilera, 1982). It is interesting to note that in the Chinese language, for “crisis” is written with two symbols: one for danger and one for opportunity. Life can be described as a series of changes over time and failure to deal with such transitions precipitates crisis. The person who adapts will do so only by acquiring new ways of coping to deal with the new circumstances that present themselves. The process of adapting and acquiring new world knowledge and skill is the process of personal development/ growth. Those who grow emerge stronger from crisis; those that do not may be broken by it. Some are broken by a crisis, others grow up and became stronger (Aguilera, 1982).

Crisis is probably necessary for our maturation and our development. It is important to understand this and so to cope efficiently with the changes. Many of the crises’s in life tend to be social and emotional rather than physical. We have lots of crises in our lives,
but not all crises are the same. Some of them are small and easy to control or manage. We need all our skills to adjust and adapt to new circumstances.

2.4.3 Life Events

From a developmental perspective, crisis points can be anticipated in people’s lives and are associated with transitions; naturally the developmental “programme” coincides also with stages in personal development. For example, the trials of adolescence actually occur at the time when a people are learning to cope with educational and social changes in their lives.

Indeed, life events (even positive ones) can be conceived as having a stress valence. For example, Holmes and Rahe (1967), were able to relate stress and ill health in terms of Life Change Units, although other authors point to a positive relationship between stressful life events and freedom from illnesses (Lazarus, 1971). Overall, life changes have been shown to be a good predictor of changes in mental and physical well-being (Kobasa, 1979).

A simple way of making sense of the effects of (stressful) life events is in terms of meanings and control over meanings. Within this framework it can be argued that each of us has an overacting theory of life within which meanings are construed. If a child dies, people are generally more distressed than if an octogenarian dies; for it cuts across our “theory” that parents die before children and that death is a feature of old age. Similarly, if a “good” person is killed, people are often outraged and say “it is wrong”, “it is not fair”, because the happening contradicts their implicit theory of the relationship
between being good/moral and positive life outcomes. So the analysis of meanings within which stress is constructed itself has to be considered at different levels.

2.4.4 Meanings

The Stoic philosopher Epictetus, observed:

"People are disturbed not so much by the events as by the views which they take of them." (Scott & Dryden 1996: p.156).

Thus the meanings of interpretation of life events are crucial. Life events have unequal stress for people. Meanings has two frames: one is general and relates to the person, their concept of themselves, their aims motives beliefs and needs, the other relating to the perceived importance of a particular life event. The importance of a specific event such as getting married could be perceived by one person as a stressful event and for another as just the opposite.

Some studies (Debats et al. 1995) have show that experiences, or more particularly the meanings that they engender, have a direct effect on psychological well-being. "Meaningfulness was found to be strongly associated with contact with self, others and the world" (Debats et al. 1995). Using the 'Life Regard Index' (LRI) which measures the construct of positive life regard they showed that high life regard was associated with the interpersonal dimension of well-being. More complex stress seemed to depend on interpretation and meaning. Stress thus depends for its existence on "internal" indicators such as, intention, perception of personal capability and so on. The importance of
interpretation can not be underestimated. "One man's stress may be another man's challenge" (Fisher, 1984).

2.4.5 Stress of Transitions

A transition represents a change from one life state to another; marriage, a change of house, or perhaps just a different supervisor at work. It may be a discrete event or a continuous series of events. In any event change invariably means that an understanding will have to adapt; it is unlikely that in a new situation a person's usual repertoire of coping responses are all going to be effective. Yet when faced with a new situation, people invariably first to try to react using tried and tested methods, and only when these fail try to rethink and try a new approach. But many continue with their old ineffective behaviour even when it is obvious that it is not working and even may exacerbate the situation.

Some researches have suggested that transition and change are associated with mental or physical ill-health (Wolff, 1952; Dodge & Martin, 1970; Totman, 1979; all cited by Fischer, 1987). This is clearly true where gross environmental changes are involved such as moving house or moving to a new country; immigration and migration are all a case in point (Fisher, 1987, 1988, 1994).

A longitudinal study by Fred (1962, cited by Fisher, 1987) on psychological effects of moving, with migrants, showedd it to result in depression, grief, and a preoccupation
with home. The transition from home to University can be considered a similar change, and this might be expected to produce similar effects.

2.4.6 Stress and Perception of Control

Everybody to some extent seeks to establish control over their environment. For example, if someone hears a noise during the night and does not know what the noise is, they are likely to be unable to settle and be "under stress", which is only alleviated when the cause is known. The occurrence of stressful circumstances generally involves changes in the level of control; if they were under control, people may be expected to act immediately to reduce the stress. Because stressful situations are undesirable, people attempt to minimise the duration and intensity of stress. Stress imposes "mental demand". As part of the attempt to establish control and reduce uncertainty and risk of unpleasantness, a person must recognise impending situations and organise resources for effective action. Miller, Galanter and Pribam (1960) were the first to emphasise the view of performance as being designed with consequences in mind, and organised hierarchically with strategies to resolve the discrepancy between ambition and reality. A person needs a mental representation of reality and of his ambition, in order to select appropriate action. This formulation was contained in the idea of a "plan" as a unit of behaviour and provides a foundation for the understanding of control (Fisher, 1984).

There are a number of identifiable parameters of 'control'. Self efficacy refers to an individual's belief that he or she can successfully execute the behaviours required in a
particular situation. *Causal attribution* refers to the perception of the cause of behaviour, which influence our emotional responses and the way that we perceived it. For example in an academic environment, an event such as achieving a high mark in an exam, could be explained as due to internal causes (hard work or ability) or as due to external causes (good luck, ease of task, and so on). How the person feels about the grade, depends on what the outcome is attributed to internal or external causes (Weiner, 1974). Connected with causal attributions Rotter, (1972) used the concept of *locus of control* to emphasise an individual’s subjective expectations.

Some authors, for example McClelland et al. (1976), found considerable, evidence for the overlap between internal locus of control, achievement and motivation. This implies a necessity to maximise control to reduce stress. It is evident that in case of students considering withdrawing from University this is more likely if they perceive their failure as outside their own ability to do something about. The locus of control notion is but an extension of the general principle of allocating meanings to events. What does an exam failure mean? Is it to be interpreted in terms of little work or little ability?

Control involves knowing that there is a response available which can change a situation. The principal role of control is to take action to ensure a homeostatic balance with the environment. Stress and threats to personal integrity are sources of desequilibrium. The corrective responses offered by knowledge aim to restore the equilibrium. In cognitive terms, the situation must be perceived in meanings which make sense to the individual. The situation is nicely illustrated when a student initially arrives at University, very proud
because they have been successful; their expectations are grand and reality of what they expect is not what they often find. The idealistic view of University is far away from the actualities of University life. Students need to seek a balance between the ideal, and reality. If it is not found then stress could ensue. If a person can not ‘control’ their view of a situation or change the situation then problems may arise.

“People who believe that the events that occur in their lives are the results of their own behaviour and/or ability personality, and effort are said to have the expectancy of internal control, while people who believe events in their lives to be a function of luck, chance, fate, God(s), powerful others or powers beyond their control, comprehension or manipulation are said to have an expectancy of external control.” (Furnham, 1990: 42).

Also Fisher observed

“The struggle for control will require effort and be experienced as high demand. A person may have to maintain this over a period of time if he is initially unsuccessful or the problem recurs. Therefore there may be an important duration factor, which increases the changes for somatization to take place, resulting in structural damage.” (Fisher, 1984:241).

When people believe that they cannot control outcomes, they may develop a sense of learned helplessness (Seligman, 1975). And a state of learned helplessness may develop.

If someone feels that control is impossible, such that, anything they do will not keep them from complete psychological breakdown, often the reaction is in the form of
passive acceptance. To have control knowledge is important. First, to organise plans as an element of control; second, in using cognitive styles and planning constraints; third, in using adequate coping strategies essentially cognitively. In Lazarus’ perspective some importance is given to appraisal as a basis for a cognitive process. Later on, Folkman and Lazarus (1986) and Lazarus and Launier (1978) say that coping refers to the cognitive and behavioural efforts to master environment.

2.4.7 Social Support

People differ in personality and behaviour, have different experiences, and their own unique life histories. This means that the same potentially stressful situations will be perceived as stressful by some individuals and as non stressful by others. Three major factors have been identified as being pertinent to the stress-strain relationship: constitutional predisposition, personality characteristics and social support.

*Constitutional predisposition*; Weiner (1970), suggested that hypertension peptic ulcers and various allergic reactions are predicted by family history. And the influence of constitutional predisposition in heart disease and cancer are suggest by Kobasa *et al.* (1981).

*Personality characteristics* can affect the way an individual copes with stressful situations (Lazarus, 1966). Coping styles and perceived degree of control, have some connections with personality. For example Type A behaviour (time oriented, rapid rate of speech, impatient, often in a hurry) due anger and hostility has risk for coronary-arterial disease, (Glowinkowski and Cooper 1986; Hall, 1996).
Social Support. In the last 10 years there has been considerable research into the role and contribution of social support. Despite the of lack of agreement about the definition of this concept, it is possible to understand social support as in connection with “social networks” - friends, colleagues or family. It has, for example, been shown that social support can reduce the amount of cortical released in response to stressors. Antoni et al., (1991) offer evidence to suggest that social support can reduce stress and protect against disease. Social support can be seen as a buffer against the negative effects of stress. Family and friends play a great role in helping a person to adapt and adjust to change. In terms of social support having a “buffering effect”, stressors will have more negative effects on people without it (Cohen & Wills, 1985). There is no strong evidence in favour of the buffering hypothesis, although there are some supportive studies (Kessler & McLeod 1985).

The importance of social support has been studied (Chaplain et al. 1975 Unsel, 1994) in a number of different professions. For example, Cooper and Slogan, (1985) showed that family support has importance in such occupations as pilots, the armed forces and police.

Nowadays Universities are implementing different types of social support, with attention to welfare and social services as well as self help groups. Particular attention has been given to peer support (Carr, 1981, 1987). This type of support offered to students by students has been on the increase (Lawson, 1989).
2.4.8 Stress and Work Load

There is a vast literature on occupational stress, its causes (Hockey, 1983, 1993), its effects on the individual (e.g. conflict, low job satisfaction) and its effects on the organisation (e.g. absenteeism, turnover, low motivation and performance) (Cooper, 1980; Cooper & Sloane, 1985; Cooper and Ryne, 1994). Many studies associate stress with high work load (Caplan et al. 1975). This conclusion has to be carefully examined, as many tolerate a high work load without exhibiting symptoms of stress. The clue to this discrepancy seems to lie in the congruence of expectations and outcomes. If someone likes their work and expect to work hard for long hours then the fact that they do is not an issue - it is within expectations - here then there is satisfaction and no stress. However if workers are ‘put upon’ with external tasks that they do not anticipate, or agree to, then there is a discrepancy and stress may be the result. For example Hockey (1983, 1993) showed that the stress of a traffic policemen work is not the gore of a fatal crash but the paperwork assorted with it; most of these man joined the police for the action not for the clerical work; and similarly the stress in hospital casualty staff is not the medical crisis or life/death decisions but the bureaucracy of this system, as when trying to find a bed for a successfully treated casualty.

In relation to the present study similar effects can be observed. Many students carry horrendous work loads with the demand of a heavy course being combined with sporting and union activities. Others will complain who have considerably fewer work commitments. A typical example is of a psychology student, who despite the publicity is not expecting the high statistics/science content in higher degree and does not come to terms with this over the full three years of the course.
Many professions are associated with high stress as evidenced by high sickness and drop out rates. A good example is teaching in the UK - where there is a major take up of early retirement schemes such that few teachers are still working up to the day of their normal retirement. This situation is well documented (Corey, 1982). It is evident that the day to day problems of the job today are very different to the expectation of those entering the teaching profession a number of years ago.

If the demands of work, the demands of the task, precipitate stress, then ways need to be discovered, in the name of organisational efficiency as well as protecting the individual, to reduce stress. This leads to a consideration of stress management.

2.4.9 Stress Management

Stress management programs relate to two aspects of the person, their physical and psychological health. As psychological stress has physical (and health) consequences and as a fit person is probably better able to have the ability (and assumed confidence and well being) to implement new strategies it is essential to consider physical strategies, such as nutrition and exercise as factors to combat stress. Quite apart from health considerations there is evidence that endorphin release in exercise can induce a feeling of well being (runners high), combating feelings of depression apathy and avoiding stress.

Psychological approaches to stress management have two principle dimensions, first to examine ‘meanings’ and ‘reframe’, that is to attribute a more appropriate and constructive understanding to events, and second to consider the reliability and
effectiveness of responses to these or to the original interpretations. Cognitive
behavioural approaches take account of both these dimensions. NLP - Neurolinguistic
Programming (Bandler, & Grinder, 1975; Bandler, 1985) is a not dissimilar technique for
providing a person with a measure of control over the negative effects of stress. Both
NLP and CBT (Ellis, 19810; Ellis & Drydan, 1987; Meichenbaum, 1977; Dobson &
Block, 1988; Salkoukis, 1996; Dobson & Craig, 1996) illustrate how cognitive (talking)
therapies can lead to practical actions and consort outcomes. CBT has received a lot of
attention because its structured approach offers an action strategy that can be used by
professional helpers and independently by individuals to facilitate day to day coping
behaviour. University students with their intellectual skills and this facility in cognitive
problem solving often the ideal population with which to explore the ideas in CBT.

2.4.10 Stress, Work and Well-being: Summary

Transitions involve change and invariably require changes in patterns of responding to
deal effectively with it. When an event is not dealt with by existing coping responses a
crisis may occur; failure to adapt new coping strategies will exacerbate the crisis. And
this is related to a person's perceptions of locus of control. Failure to establish or
perceive control may lead to helplessness. Transition is a key concept in understanding
people's perception of stress; life transitions can be anticipated as precipitating personal
crisis. Social support has been suggested as a buffer against the stress. Stress
management strategies have been showed that to be useful in the prevention of
psychological problems.
2.5 Stress and Coping: Conclusion

The idea of transitions is a useful one with which to consider the problems faced by students entering University. Transitions individual changes and failure to cope with these may precipitate crisis and stress. It is suggested that it is not the degree of changes or 'psychological load' that is important, but meanings and in particular the discrepancies between expectations and outcomes. Cognitive -behaviour frameworks offer probably the most useful theoretical ideas, as they link meanings to actions and ultimately to the consideration of effective coping as a skill.
3. Understanding Stress and The Hazards of Students’ Life

3.1 Summary

Transitions and the changes they precipitate, represent a major potential source of stress in anyone’s life. Leaving home to attend university represents a major transition. If students are to be helped in their passage through university, attention needs to be paid to the demands of this transition. This chapter focuses on the stress and hazards of students’ life, identifying sources of stress and appropriate support facilities.

3.2 Introduction

Psychology, has concentrated principally on behavioural outcomes, with less emphasis on the meanings attached to them. More recently, phenomenological approaches have placed greater emphasis on a person’s interpretation of events and their coping behaviour in relation to their personal needs. This study focuses on students’ stress and how they cope with it. Stress may show itself in physiological, behavioural, cognitive, social, and affective ways.

Students entering university leave behind family and friends. They are known to have problems especially during the first week. The first impact is like a “big shock”. The fresher feels “Terrorised”, they are lost, struggling to survive. Sometimes known, as the “Tortures”. Some terrible rumours abound about freshers, having their heads flushed down the toilet and worse, during their first week. Excessive drinking also characterises
this period. This occurs not only in UK, but also in other European countries. In Portugal for example in some classics universities such as Coimbra, freshers experience terrible difficulties and suffer "praxis", such as having their hair cut very short, or having their clothes taken off or given punishments, such as having to measure large squares with small individual tools for hours and hours, or being exposed to other situations such as having to take a bath in wine instead water.

New students need help and support to give them strength to cope with the stress of being a fresher. They also have to adapt to new work contexts, changes in leisure activities, and so on. They have to cope with educational demands as well as the process of growing up and preparing to be an independent adult. If difficulties arise and problems emerge, they happen at a time when students are most vulnerable, having reduced emotional support from friends and relatives at home, and increased academic and social demands. Good preparation and support can reduce this stress and facilitate efficient performance.

3.2.1 Students as Young Adults

The majority of students are young adults having a little experience of life outside the safety of the home. For many, particularly, in Portugal, they are young physically as well as mentally and have yet to come to terms with the physical changes as adolescents and learning to develop full adult relationships with their peers.

Nevertheless the young adult is at the peak of their physical and mental and sexual powers but may not have the emotional maturity to utilise their potential to the full.
Of course not all students are young. Increasingly in the UK there is a large percentage of mature students who have experiences of work but still find the university environment very different from their previous experiences. Some are women who are returning to education after raising children and for them it is not a simply an educational challenge, but also a social one. It is well documented (Vaillant, 1977) that it is harder to train older people; this does not seem to be due to any lack of, or decline, of mental powers, but has more to do with flexibility and adopting new coping strategies. Nevertheless, this period of maturity can be one of increasing creativity for many people (Baltes, et al. 1980).

The time of entering university is one that coincides for many students with a huge physical and identity crisis (Erickson, 1980). The crisis in itself is not a pre-requisite for personal growth but it is important to understand how people cope with such mammoth changes. Failure to do so may result in crisis. Most student crises tend to be social and emotional rather than physical. Mature students are not immune from crisis. The situation that they find themselves in at university is so different from the previous life as to render many previous coping responses inappropriate. Here a life span developmental approach is taken to explore the process of student problems and how they cope. Students during their career at university face a number of developmental crises and have to learn new coping skills appropriate to their new world. The developmental path entails learning to cope with independence without home support, of establishing new relationships, and learning to be responsible for oneself in terms of both 'housekeeping' and academic work.
It is not simply that students' life situations change when entering university. They are entering into a new world and exposed to the latest technology; ideas arise both in their academic world and social contexts that may challenge their basic social and religious beliefs - indeed their knowledge of who they are.

3.2.2 Stress in Academic Staff

Is not the intention here to consider in depth the stress in teaching and other university staff. It is important to note such effects because they in turn could affect students.

The pressure on academic life in the last decade has been considerable. Success is judged against performance indicators, where the emphasis has been on productivity rather than quality. As a consequence academic staff maybe perceive a discrepancy between what they think the job entails and the performance indicators against which they are being judged (Fisher 1994; Pereira, 1996b). Also the number of students has increased whilst resources have decreased. Such resulting stress on staff could have a negative impact on students' quality of life and performance (Kogan & Kogan, 1983).

The roles of academic staff have clearly changed; they have a multiple of different functions such as teacher, administrator, and creative and productive researcher. How can academic staff be expected to increased productivity and quality with the increase in student numbers, particularly with emphasis on overseas students and the need to generate funds. This has led many to question their vocational decisions, and many now feel trapped in their job. Problems concerned with role overload and increased
bureaucracy have been shown to result in stress, which can be identified in biological symptoms like heart rate, blood pressure and high cholesterol levels (Fisher, 1994).

"Other professionals get tired, teachers become exhausted." (Hargreaves 1978).

"Burnout is a psychological process, caused by unrelieved work stress, that results in emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, and feelings of decreased accomplishment" (Matteson & Ivancevich 1987; Maslach, 1994). The term "Burnout derived from the fact that once a rocket has burned-up its fuel it is then useless, but continues to float in space until it crashes" (Murgatroyd 1990, p.120). Spielberger and Reheiser (1994) found in a sample of university employees, and corporate and military personnel two occupational stress factors, job pressure and organisational support. As a result burnout is becoming increasingly common. Straight forward comparison can be made with school teaching, where stress is increasing and very few British teachers now work until retirement age.

Data on mutual health and degree of job satisfaction confirm teaching (including university teaching) as a very stressful profession to occupying in Britain today, (Kyriacou, 1987; Travers and Cooper 1991). The situation has been exacerbated by the stress of formal evaluation procedures in teaching and research and the institution of formal quality control mechanism. All these procedures have contributed to bureaucracy and extra work load, to which have been added to the job and must be accepted in order to maintain job security (Attwood, 1995).
Fisher (1994) asked academics in English universities to complete a weekly diary and showed that work overload and administration problems caused the most difficulties for academics. When asked about their preference in academic work most indicated a preference for research rather than teaching or administration.

What is evident is that the system could collapse if assessment and associated paper works continue to grow, it is equally true that the work load on academics is unlikely to decline. Contracts limit the options to change work patterns leaving only the possibility of personal re-assurements of role as possible methods of coping (Fisher, 1994).

3.3 Students Stress and Their Problems

"We stored our winters supply of potatoes in the basement... The conditions were unfavourable... They would never become plants, never mature, never fulfill their real potential. But under the most adverse circumstances they were striving to become."

(Roger, 1980, p. 118)

If students are to be successful, the learning environment must be optimised. A stimulating environment is needed to facilitate constructive development (McGuiness, 1983, 1989). As part of an optimal environment for students, it may be necessary to consider putting in place a support system to facilitate the transition process. As an illustration of the demands of student life common contexts are reviewed.

The literature charts a wide range and variety of students' problems. Firstly are personal problems such as homesickness, loneliness, shyness, deficit on social skills, and decision
making skills, sexuality, emotional disorders and so on. Second, academic problems such as difficult relationships with professors and colleagues, study skills, marks, examination failure, anxiety and stress about exams and so on. Third financial and housekeeping problems with the emphasis on accommodation, eating habits, etc. and lastly problems related to security.

3.3.1 Personal Problems

Academic, family and social relationships and financial difficulties are particular causes of high levels of stress among students (Dunkel-Schetter, 1990). Indeed student counsellors face as wide a range of problems as in any other field of counselling - perhaps more so (Didsburg, 1994).

3.3.1.1 Homesickness

Going to university is often the first time the young adult has left home. Homesickness is normally described as a psychological experience of distress. It is very common in fresher students when arriving for their first year. The Concise Oxford English Dictionary, definition of homesickness include “depressed by absence from home”, or “missing home” (Chambers Twentieth Century Dictionary). In the 16th and 17th centuries, medieval texts define it as a physical disorder related to the move from home (Fisher, 1989). Homesickness is a motivational and emotional state related to grieving and missing home (Fisher and Hood 1987, 1988, Fisher 1989, 1994).
In an investigation of university students at a nursing college, Fisher (1989) found that symptoms such as depression, obsessionality, somatic problems, phobic avoidance and absent-mindedness were associated with homesickness as were constant and frequent thoughts of home. There is of course an extensive literature on separation (Bowlby, 1973, 1980) and separation and loss (Parkes, 1972) and Mandler (1975) which relate anxiety to the interruption of familiar routines. It may be seen as melodramatic to compare the feelings of isolation felt by students in a new location to bereavement, but in actuality the effects can be just as severe. Homesickness is not a trivial problem, and in the context of university students it represents a significant difficulty faced by many that, in a substantial number of cases, leads to students leaving higher education (Moore, 1995).

Different theories emphasise different aspects of homesickness. For example, Fisher (1986, 1989, 1990a) concentrates on the transition to a new environment, while others see the transition process in terms of consequential changes in a person’s role (Wapner, Kaplan & Ciottone, 1981; Oatley, 1988). Cognitive processes may dominate the condition with nostalgic thoughts and mental escapism. Further research is necessary to understand whether homesickness should be considered as a primary or a secondary phenomenon. Fisher and Murray (1989), developed a self-report, “Dundee Relocation Inventory“, that offers potential for future research, although its use thus far has been limited.
3.3.1.2 Loneliness

Loneliness is a subjective feeling. For example, for Moustakas (1996) loneliness is a condition of life, an experience of being human that provides the means for people to support and develop their existence. It is not necessarily synonymous with being alone. Peplau and Perlman (1982) found in their review a dozen definitions. They framed them in two principal elements. First, loneliness viewed as psychological distress, associated with pain and suffering with some implications for mental health such as interpersonal sensitivity, anxiety and depression (Cutrona, 1982). Second, loneliness has been interpreted as both absence or presence of social relationships. It could be defined as “the unpleasant experience that occurs when a person’s network of social relationships is significantly deficient in either quality or quantity (Perlman & Peplau, 1984, p.15).

Loneliness may be summarised by Weiss (1972) and Abu-Rasain (1996) as being of two different sorts of loneliness. The first is emotional isolation as a consequence of lack of intimate relationships (relations with family or partners). The second is social isolation, directly related to lack of individual social networks, such as friends or peers that experience similar hobbies or interests. This specific type of loneliness is typical of those who change their environment from the familiar to the unknown. University students are frequently associated to this type of loneliness.

Some studies in higher education have shown that loneliness is linked to drop out rates, alcoholism, suicide and suicide ideation (Cutrona, 1982; Medora & Woodward, 1986; Wiseman et al. 1995). The factor most predictive of loneliness in first-year college
students has been shown to be the quality of relationships rather than the quantity of social contact (Cutrona, 1982).

Gender differences in loneliness and depression were found in Israeli University students. Males scored significantly higher on 'loneliness' than females, while females scored significantly higher on 'depression' than males. Formally (or even informally with friends) men were more reluctant to seek help than women (Wiseman et al. 1995).

Although loneliness and depression show a positive relationship, they are distinct phenomena (Horowitz et al. 1982; Wiseman et al. 1995). Yet in the last decade loneliness has been identified and studied as a unique phenomenon separated from problems of anxiety and depression. In terms of pathological loneliness, university students are a high risk group. Considering the difference between loneliness as a state (temporarily episodic) and as trait (related as characteristics of personality), different considerations for types of support or therapy should be carefully thought about (Jones, 1987). Crisis intervention, such as building networks and social support, may be the method of choice for treating state loneliness, while approaches directed toward changing dysfunctional interpersonal orientations may be the most effective for treating trait loneliness.

Counselling approaches to helping lonely young people include social skills training, cognitive-behavioural therapy, network building and social support. Counselling strategies need to pay attention not only to the degree of loneliness but also to the type
of loneliness (e.g. emotional - i.e. lack of an attachment figure or social loneliness - lack of ties to a social group) - and specify the aetiology of the problem.

3.3.1.3 Suicide

A major concern of university administrations is suicide. "In the ten years to 1992, the number of men aged 15 to 24 who took their life increased almost 60 per percent, while the rate for the population as a whole was broadly stable. Poisoning with car exhaust fumes accounted for 30% of all suicides, hanging for 25% and drug poisoning for 23%" (The TIMES. November, 20 1995). People are worried about suicide. The aftermath is traumatic both for those who survive and for those associated with them (Middleton & Williams, 1995); fellow students, departmental members and the administration appear to feel a collective guilt if a student commits suicide.

Suicide prevention in universities requires attention to the personal development needs of students, in particular to prepare them to face problems/crisis. Preparation is needed to help staff in particular to cope with death, loss, bereavement, grief, crisis, and breaking bad news. (Bovair, 1993; Morgan, 1993). For example, it has been suggested that the topics of bereavement and grief should be included in personal and social education and be part of the school curriculum. Certain teachers are ill equipped and ill trained to deal with death amongst their pupils or pupils close relatives (Bullivant & Williams, 1997). This is even more apparent in a university context, although it is notable that the University of Hull runs a bereavement support group.
3.3.1.4 Shyness

Shyness and sociability are two constructs apparently at opposing extremes, (Zimbardo, 1990). But measures of shyness (inhibition and discomfort in social situations) and sociability (need to be with others) was found by Check and Buss, (1981) to be moderately correlated ($r = .30$). However, a replication of this study with 194 Portuguese college students at the University of Porto showed shyness and sociability to be distinctive personality dispositions (Neto, 1996). An interesting positive correlation was found between shyness and loneliness, self-consciousness, other-directness and embarassability. Also, shyness correlated negatively with self-esteem, public performing, satisfaction with life, and physical attractiveness, while sociability correlated negatively with scores on loneliness and positively with scores on self-esteem, public performance, satisfaction with life and happiness (Neto, 1996).

These results suggest that the best way to help people experiencing problems with shyness are to attempt to raise levels of self-esteem.

3.3.1.5 Family Problems

The high expectations of parents is often a source of students' stress. To cope with academic failure is not easy, and it is made more difficult if, in addition, students have to cope with parents' reaction to their failure. They are not protected even if they live far away from the family home. Family events, illness in parents or siblings, parental death and marriage break-down are all problems that can interfere with a students life and academic achievement; sometimes such events will force students to withdraw from university; it is not unusual for students to abandon their studies to return home to take care of the family.
"Arguments with the family, friends, flatmates and partners, the attitudes of others towards student life and the demands that this entails, being away from home, coping with family commitments were all causes of upset, frustration, annoyance or anger for 44% of the students" (Dabney, 1994, p.5).

3.3.2 Academic Problems

3.3.2.1 Lack of motivation

Motivation to study, even to get up in the morning to attend classes, is a major factor in successful student performance (Palenzuela, 1982). In particular, British Further and Higher education in the last five years has seen changes in the student body. The motives to enter to higher education are various, and it is not surprising that one of the worries is lack of motivation and apathy.

Despite different and technical strategies to enhance student motivation (Elton L.1996), it seems best to deal with the student as a complete and personal human being. Using an analogy from Warr (1987), it is possible to say that motivation works like a type of vitamin for life. Lack of motivation could be due to lack of the personal support at university. Considering this issue, the University of Central Lancashire organised a special conference in April 1996 on the motivation of students in higher and further education, titled "The Motivation Conundrum".
3.3.2.2 Examination Stress

Examinations, tests, and “vivas” put a strain on students (Dobson, 1980). The degree of strain depends on the level of difficulty, the examination conditions, the level of aspiration and the probable consequences of failure. Sarason (1961, 1972, 1978; Spielberger, et al. 1970) investigated test anxiety and concluded that increased anxiety in test examination product had negative effects on performance.

The studies of Folkman and Lazarus (1985) with university students on stress concentrated on the areas of emotion-focused coping and problem focused coping at three different moments: before the exam, after the exams, and when the marks were made available. The results of this work showed that two days before the exams, the student experienced emotions of threat and challenge.

3.3.2.3 Withdrawal and Drop Out

This problem has been extensively studied in the USA and Canada, no doubt due to the costs of withdrawal, for an institution; student withdrawal represents financial loss for the institution and a loss of opportunity for the individual student. (Braxton et al., 1988, Tinto, 1988, Rickinson & Rutherford 1995, 1996). Some of the work has focused on particular characteristics of those students who withdraw. Some studies by McKeown (1993) and based on Tinto’s (1975) model, provide evidence about the perceptions of students, and he concluded that students dropped because of their anticipation of failure.

Traditionally, the problem of drop out has been seen in terms of transition where students fail to adjust to the university environment (Rickinson & Rutherford 1996).
Thus attention needs to be given to how this process might be handled successfully.

What are the principal student difficulties? Do different students have different coping strategies? What support can be provided to help them?

3.3.2.4 Academic Work

Assignments cause many students problems, especially when several are due within a short space of time. As the deadline approaches, a feeling of panic in relation to insufficient time to do it properly occurs. This would appear primarily to be an organisational-motivational problem, but the introduction recently of semesterisation programs in the UK has created schedules for assessment which many students and staff regard as unrealistic, with only a matter of days elapsing between the end of a taught course and examination or handing in dates for essays.

A pilot study by Dabney, (1994) has shown that 91% of students interviewed mentioned academic work as one source of stress. Experiences related to exams such as having two exams one day or having no breaks in exams were seen as particularly problematic. Similarly, exams are a source of stress; may students seek help from counselling services for examination phobia and anxiety. Again the new semesterisation system in the U.K. is exacerbating the situation by increasing the number of assessments. The assessment period has been restructured and with increased student numbers students often have more than one exam per day and find their exams "bunched" over just a few days.
3.3.2.5 Facilities

Lack of facilities in the refectory, library and car parking is also a source of stress (as is the high cost of the beer in the student Union!). One project found that 32% of students complained about the inability to obtain essential books or articles, especially when the deadline for an assignment was due (Dabney, 1994).

3.3.2.6 Lectures

No breaks or long gaps between lectures were cited by many English students as a problem (Dabney, 1994). One of the most common sources of frustration was cancelled lectures, specially those starting at 9 a.m. Also, there are environment issues: it is difficult to concentrate if the lecture theatres are too cold, too hot or too crowded.

3.3.2.7 Lecturers

Lack of empathy on the part of the lecturers was cited by Snape (1993) as well as lack of understanding and flexibility when students have issues particularly health or personal problems. For many students, the availability of a lecturer/tutor is a source of contention. Attitudes of some lecturers towards students may be damaging; ‘being treated like a child’, being belittled in front of peers, or being treated in an authoritarian or patronising way. Seventy-five per cent of students questioned in Dabney’s (1994) study said that in general lecturers are perceived as lacking in empathy or social competence.
3.3.2.8 Other Students

Students cause problems for other students by lack of consideration, such as articles being ripped out of journals, books being put back on the wrong shelf, arriving 15-20 minutes late for a lecture, time-wasting or talking loudly; being picked on unfairly by classmates, subtle bullying or teasing. These can cause much tension. Some students express feelings of loneliness, “Of having the feeling that they just did not fit in with their group” (Dabney, 1994).

3.3.2.9 Ethnic Problems

Ethnic problems have been recently studied. For example, in the UK the report “Higher Education: The Ethnic Minority Experience” showed that while ethnic minorities constituted 5% of the general population they constitute 11% of the student body. Certainly some of those students experience discrimination on the basis of race, religion or colour. However only 37% of ethnic minority students said that their needs differed from those of white colleagues (The Times Higher, August 30, 1996: Ranks of Ethnic Students Swollen).

3.3.3 Financial and Housekeeping Problems

3.3.3.1 Financial Problems

Tuition fees have proved a headache and for more than one Education Minister, in the UK have provoked a nation-wide boycott, street demonstrations, petitions and lobbies of Parliament (The Times Higher Education Supplement, October 27, 1995). Among students' needs, when asking for help through the Welfare Service in English
universities, a large percentage came with financial problems. Other European universities are having a cash crisis, and lack of money has forced some to close their doors, (The Times Higher Education Supplement", October 13, 1995).

3.3.3.2 Accommodation

Accommodation is a perennial student problem. On initial entry to university, many seek to enter traditional halls and are disappointed. In their early days, students find much private accommodation unsatisfactory. They have difficulty finding inexpensive, clean, tidy and adequate accommodation. Even if they do, flatmates may cause upset and personal problems by making noise, smoking and taking each other's food.

3.3.4 Security Problems

Increasing problems of physical security are the source of personal distress for students.

3.3.4.1 Rape and Sexual Assault

Rape and sexual assault are serious problems within society and are on the increase. Such attacks also present serious concerns on campus, when the assailants are not students, play upon students walking alone across, little frequented wooded, areas. Rape is an act of violence and not all rapes are sexually motivated (Burgess & Holmstrom, 1986). Assaults on campus are usually associated with having women as victims, but an internal enquiry at the University of Hull showed that men are, in fact attacked, more often than woman. In many attacks, a contributing factor to both the victim's vulnerability and the attacker's aggressive attitude is alcohol.
While the standard image of rape is of an attack by a stranger leaping from the bushes, most rapes are committed by acquaintances—so called “date-rape” in particular, is the most common form of rape occurring on campus most often during students’ parties and other social events. It is well documented that rape in one’s non-immediate (safe) environment is far more destructive than if by a complete stranger and in a non-familiar environment (Burgess & Holmstrom, 1986).

3.3.4.2 Violence at Student Social Events

Violence at student social events has “become a chronic problem for many colleges and universities. To address these problems, many institutions are employing metal detectors, assigning more officers to work the student social events and developing policies related to issues such as venue occupancy standards, lighting levels, admission of non-students, responsibility of the sponsoring organisation” (Dagger, 1996).

Many universities (e.g. Cape Town; Rex, 1996) seek to involve students in campus security; in the manner of “Neighbourhood Watch” they are encouraged to notice and report unusual significant events on campus. Some institutions use a crime hotline (e.g. Crimestoppers 0800555111) so that information can be given via a “free phone” anonymously to the police.
3.3.4.3 Bullying

Bullying in schools has been very well documented (La Fontaine, 1991). In addition, in academic contexts, bullying has been pointed out as happening mostly with freshers. However it is also considered as an inevitable “part of growing up” (La Fontaine, 1991 p.31) Tattum (1990) defines bullying as long-standing violence and focuses on the bully’s intention, defining bullying as “The wilful conscious desire to hurt, threaten or frighten someone.”, Elliot (1991) includes threats and beatings with physical harm, threat, rejection and hostility. The bullied student has no friends and feels isolated and lonely. The victim is made to feel alone and vulnerable.

There appears to be no specific studies of university contexts. Although one report by Gilmartin (1987) on peer groups found that the concept of love-shyness in males is very prevalent in those who are victimised by bullying. It is evident from talking to university students that bullying is an issue and that more research is needed.

3.3.4.4 Thefts from Campus and Halls

Burglary and thefts can cause major disruption in a student’s life, more so if they take place at a critical time, for example when exams are impending. In recent years, computer theft has become a major problem and now is the fastest growing crime in the U.K. “Every police station in London will tell you, chip theft is now their biggest problem” (Dagger, 1996, p.106).

Imagine a situation where a student's personal computer with the final version of a thesis on it is stolen, or disks are stolen from a bag. How will he/she cope? What personal
support does he/she need? Advances in technology are producing more sophisticated crime - like the thefts of passwords - and data maybe stolen. It is probably true that software is the key to security in the future.

Security is now a major issue in universities. Unfortunately rules to ensure security - like limiting access to buildings, included limited use because security staff increase cost, when is reflected in shorter opening hours - all certainly increase the strain of students' life.

During 1995 those 25 universities that are part of the Compostela Group, (directed by Spain) invested an average of $17 U.S. per annum per student on security - 13 ECU/student/annum (“International Congress on Campus Security” 1996, Southampton). The most frequent offenses are: student house burglary and cycle/car thefts and computer thefts (Dagger, 1996).

3.3.4.5 Drugs and Alcohol

Drugs are a problem in universities and clearly as Boughey said, the drug abuse in universities “will always reflect the trends within our society” (Boughey, 1996, p.95). Universities can be vulnerable to drug dealers who may use students as their agents. Universities need to take the lead in the education of students to the dangers of drug abuse. This may make necessary specific Drug Counselling services.

The most common drug on campus is alcohol. Social events, or simply meeting in pubs, are sustained by alcohol, normally beer. It is part of the student culture to drink; it is a
necessary competence to be a social person. Alcohol can seen as a stimulating element for social meetings but drinking to excess does cause social problems on campus, and indirectly (as with other drug) financial problems as students are drawn into the bar by fellow students and to decline on the basis of financial difficulty not usually an acceptable reason.

3.4 Postgraduate and Mature Students Stress: Learning under Double Difficulties.

The "mature" student (over the age of 21) needs to make complementary efforts to adapt to student life. Previous research (Sharp, 1995) suggests that life for mature students at university is very different, because they are likely to be isolated sometimes due to their different experiences and ages. For example, in Summer 1996 the oldest person to graduate from the University of Hull was 85 year old, Colonel George Widows (University of Hull Briefing, Vol. I No 4, Winter 1996/1997, p. 2).

Becoming students again demands new re-transitions and new efforts. The term re-transition, because they are adult, and some of them have already been at university; with their colleagues younger more actualised/ fashionable?, efforts need to be made to re-socialise. Some of them are in mid-life crisis. The adaptation to a new system, new technology used to help them in the process of learning, (e.g. computers, networks, e-mail), sometimes terrifies them, instead of helping and are sometimes further conduits of demand. Recently in UK some universities such as Hertfordshire have developed special workshops to prepare mature students for the university life (Thorley, 1991).
The average mature student has a part or full time job so needs to cope with timetables in order to be available for study, to work and to get enough sleep. These are struggling with personal problems such as elderly parents, children, a wife/husband, and all household troubles. The lack of time, attention, tiredness and so on, increase the difficulties of coping with children and partners and other family matters. As a consequence, children's problems may increase as well, the support at home is not enough and the school reports are indicators of obvious failure; problems with a wife/husband arrive as education, social events and lack of dialogue may result in marital discord, separation and/or divorce.

The prestige and power of English universities brings not only a representative number of postgraduate and mature students but also big business, and lots of money. Unfortunately the support offered by the universities is not proportional to the specific needs of this type of student. The portrait described by one of these students could clarify their problems not only in adaptation to a new environment as a mature student but as well, the stress and coping strategies used by her in specific situations, described at the end of the Ph.D. Thesis.

"Portrait of an overseas Ph.D. Student
My plans were made: to leave family & friends, to concentrate only on a dream; an English Ph.D. The dream changed to a nightmare. How difficult it was to adapt to a new environment. My ability to speak English, which on the outset seemed OK, demoralised me. I faced difficulties in trying to express my opinions. I felt stupid read different books: how to do a Ph.D.; how to do research; how to survive in England! But when trying these skills - when for example learning to "surf" the internet - my thoughts always
went back to my beautiful country, where I can really surf magnificent blue waves!

Now two and a half years has passed and finally I can see the light at the end of the tunnel. At the last meeting with my supervisor we agreed that the work that I have done represents a “contribution” to knowledge in my field. Now it just remains to write my thesis! How mistaken I was! I did not realise how painful it can be to write a Ph.D. Thesis. (Pereira A., 1996a).

The above provides a portrait of a student who experienced problems related to her research, problems of being an overseas student (cultural and language differences), and family problems. This case shows how difficult a student’s life can be. It is unquestioned that students struggle for success, and it is only possible to obtain it with some help and support for others.

3.5 Management of Student Stress

“If you want really to do your best in an examination, fling away the books the day before. Go out and play or go to bed and sleep and I am sure the results next day will encourage you to use the method permanently.”

(William James, cited in Maddox, 1963).

It might be useful for teachers, counsellors therapists and students, who are interested in stress management strategies and techniques, to understand the nature of stress, to identify potential or actual causes of stress at university, to determine the perceived level of stress and to eliminate or reduce the risk, training information (Davies, 1986).

Students’ stress is related fundamentally with the loss of self-confidence and examination
stress anxiety (Fisher, 1990b). Concerning developing self-confidence, some comprehensive strategies could help. The management of concentration: relaxation with the practice of self-induced relaxation, (SIR), positive self-talk and self-coaching. Academic preparation and examination technique (following a systematic and regular program of study and acquire effective study habits). A healthy person is in a much better condition to tolerate long periods of study and is less vulnerable to stress and fatigue. Regular exercise is beneficial both physiologically and psychologically because it provides a means of releasing excessive muscle tension. It is widely considered that exercise improves sleep and consequently increases energy levels.

To combat stress and fatigue a proper diet is important (Davies, 1986, p.140). Another type of loss could be loss of concentration due to mental and physical fatigue. The beginning of fatigue may also be accompanied by feelings of anxiety and insecurity, when the student experiences misgivings about the inadequacy of his/her experience.

Examinations and evaluations are sources of stress and anxiety for the average student. A survey conducted by Davies (1986) showed that a substantial proportion of A level students experienced stress-related problems both in the months preceding the examination and during the examination itself in detriment of performance. This study showed that 44.4% of students worried during the examination, 69.7% “worried a lot” before the examination. 60.5% considered that worry had an adverse effect on their health. 33.8% had minor problems, included sleeping difficulties, and 26.7% experienced loss of energy.
Stress management student programs have as an overall objective the reduction of test anxiety and for a person to have greater control over certain physiological conditions - his emotions and over cognitive functioning. Some suggestions (Davies, 1986) are to i) Provide information on the source of stress, e.g. self-report inventories, observation, use of check-lists interviews and counselling. ii) Often relaxation such as the progressive relaxation technique used by Jacobson (1938), who theorised that by inducing muscular tension, people, would learn to recognise it. People could achieve greater awareness of tension and start learning to relax by alternately tensing and relaxing various muscles. iii) Biofeedback training - provides information concerning the physiology of the body. iv) Accommodating specific stress situations, - to accommodate a stress situation and to learn how to handle it. v) Over-learning. vi) Intrinsic motivation. vii) De-valuing (reframing) the importance of the event. viii) modelling behaviour-to observer someone working under stress in some problem solving in a positive constructive way. ix) Cognitive modification, involves cognitive reappraisal and aims to shift the focus of attention from self-preoccupation to ask-oriented behaviour, at the same time to reduce or eliminate the worry component of test anxiety” (Davies, 1986, p. 83).

It has recently been suggested that virtual reality can be utilised to help students to control anxiety in examinations (Knox et al., 1993).
3.6 Conclusion

Stress and hazards of students' life have been described. Most of these problems have a direct relationship with the process of transition to university. During this process, a many changes occur, and a lot of resources are lost. It seems a priority to understand students needs, problems, and to implement structures for helping and supporting them.
4. Students Needs

4.1 Transitions

Life can be considered as a set of serial transition states. At each life stage the parameters will be different, sometimes involving straight physical changes others intellectual and social. At each transition the needs of a person will be different. Within this context we can consider developmental transitions as a person moves from one stage to another say from baby to toddler, from child to adolescent: these are not simply physiologically: they also have personal and social connotations. At each stage there will be other changes, some precipitated by circumstances, (an accident, a disease, moving house), which are unrelated to the development stage, and others (such as entry to university) which although not a function of age tends to be correlated with it. For most young people, university life starts at the time when they are gaining independence and finding their own feet in the world.

Entering university can be seen, then, to be a major life transition, involving leaving home being independent for the first time, having to manage one’s own finances, while still at the stage of learning about relationships with others, with authority or with members of the opposite sex. This is clearly a complex transition and one where it would not be surprising if people failed to negotiate it satisfactorily. There are many very important personal, social and practical transitions occurring simultaneously.
Considering each transition separately they embody the concept of change; from a situation that is most familiar to a situation that is new; from a situation where the person has adapted, has learned the relevant coping responses to a situation where new behaviours new values new ways of thinking may be required in order to cope satisfactorily. This could be construed in relation to needs. For example the transition from child to Bank Account holder may place information needs on the student e.g. how to write a cheque. Other needs are going to be more complex involving extensive learning about others as well as about them selves. Successful transition from school to university will entail an individual finding out how their various divergent and often contradictory needs can be met. At each stage they will need different kinds of knowledge and different kinds of support.

Maslow (1962; 1964; 1968; 1970) has attempted to categorise human needs - in this case into five basic needs: first a psychological need for food, water and the other pre-requisites of life; second, a need for security and avoidance of physical harm; third, a social need for affection and friendship; fourth, a need for esteem and self-respect and fifth and last a need for self-actualisation related to the opportunity for personal growth and development- related to feelings of accomplishment, the liberation of creative talents and the feeling for self-fulfilment as a person. The model is useful in drawing attention to different aspects of need but in practice has failed to predict actual behaviour. It is apocryphal but nevertheless probably true to say that a student may go without food to buy the latest compact disc, or that special shirt. Maslow drew attention to the idea of being self-fulfilled and rated it the least necessary, whereas people may act in the very reverse way. Jahoda for example in looking at the Austrian village of Mariantall in the
30's when unemployment and depression were high, showed how despite being starved of food and other physical comforts the trinket shop thrived.

Maslow's ideas do not therefore provide a firm basis for understanding how different needs are handled within transitions, but his work has been valuable in identifying different kinds and types of need that have to be considered. These ideas are handled in a more sophisticated way by Herzberg (1968) who distinguished two factors: hygiene and maintenance. The maintenance factor concerns day to day living, whereas hygiene factors relate to what could be called mental health or personal motivation. Failure to meet personal needs was found to result in job dissatisfaction. This places the personal dimension at centre stage in determining both motivation choices and satisfaction.

This thinking is congruent with the work of other major theorists; Jung, Adler, Sullivan, Gardner and Rogers all emphasise the concept of personal growth - the development of a personal understanding of one's own needs and how they relate to the social environment. The work of Rogers (1961; 1980; 1987), and his development of the concept of self-actualisation has been perhaps one of the most potent and influential ideas' worldwide in emphasising the personal nature of individual need and coping strategies.

It can be seen from Maslow (1970) brief analysis that any transition will be complex, involving a variety of factors both physical and psychological. In considering the transition into university education, it is necessary to be aware of a number of different dimensions from the purely practical (relating to housing needs and so on) to the very
personal (relating to new study, coming to terms with the new situation in which students find themselves and learning to meet its demands).

4.2 Needs

It is usual in the literature and more particularly in ordinary explanations, to talk in terms of need. A need may be defined as "the lack of something necessary for survival or well-being" (Sutherland 1989:274). At one level this is straightforward, but is not very helpful in determining either what a person wants or how he/she might be helped to get it. By taking the idea of transition with its embodiment of the notion of change from a prior known state to a new (less known) state, it can be seen that to specify a need is to introduce a concept that is at the same time all encompassing and empty. To say that someone has a need begs the question of what gave rise to that need. It is necessary to specify the dimensions of the need and then to assess this in terms of the individual's internal and external resources that may be available. Thus sometimes the need can be met simply by providing some specific information, while at other times a co-ordinated strategy over a long time may be necessary to bring about the sought after state of affairs. The person may have to engage in long learning before any new circumstance no longer poses a difficulty or a threat.

Needs can be distinguished not only in terms of type but also in terms of level. While not endorsing Maslow's ideal, a lead can be taken from him in identifying different kinds of need all of which may occur in a single transition. So, for example, a student who joins a club will need information as to where to meet and what form meetings will take and at
the same time will need to possess the personal skills necessary to interact positively with other members.

So while needs can be identified in various ways, they will also be context dependent, different environments precipitating different needs. Sugarman (1986) in considering life-span development emphasises the importance not only of the individual but also of the environment and highlights the model of Bronfrenbrenner (1977). In this ecological model, the author suggested that a relevant model of the environment using distinctions between four environmental systems at different levels: Microsystems, mesosystems, exosystems and macrosystems. Microsystems are “the complex of relations between the developing person and environment in an immediate setting containing the person” (Bronfrenbrenner, 1977, p.514) characterised by place (home, college, job), time, activities, participants. A mesosystem, is a system of microsystems, considered as the interrelation between the person with practical points of her/his life. An exosystem contains both micros and meso systems as well as specific social structures (i.e. medical services, government structures). Macrosystems include micro-meso and exosystem; they are the overarching institutions of a culture or subculture. This is one model in which relations within and between the different settings in which the individual operates, as well as social contexts in which such settings are embedded.

The implication of this model is that roles and requirements change with context, such that responses in handling difficult situations that are appropriate in one environment may not necessarily work in another. For example, Tantrums may work for a child at home but will only cause trouble at school. Apparently similar situations may actually
demand different outcomes. So social behaviour at high table will differ from social behaviour in a student house which also may be different from eating at home; although in each case the simple act is that of eating with others, the different contexts demand different types of behaviour and involve different kinds and level of judgement.

A university could be considered a system made up of many different subsystems. Thus the best way to understand students, their problems and needs is to contextualise their problems within different parts of the university environment. In doing so, it is necessary to consider not simply their personal needs but the needs and demands placed upon them by the institution; the student's interaction with the different environments and with other people in those environments - part of the task in handling transition is to know how to deal with responses that come back from other people, in different contexts.

One aim of this study is to develop a taxonomy of need and relate them to the personal wishes that need to be satisfied and to the contexts within which they are displayed.

4.3 Why is a Taxonomy of Needs Important?

It can be argued that the first age in any scientific inquiry is to produce a description of events and seek to subdivide the categories so as to make the problem amenable to study. So, for example, in the field of biology the phylogenetic table, the taxonomy of species according to vertebrates, non-vertebrates, birds, reptiles and fishes is a way of trying to make sense of the diversity of the animal kingdom.
Taxonomies are not new in education. The first was probably Ragsdale's taxonomy (Ragsdale, 1950 in Husen & Postlethwaite, 1985, p. 3627) in the psychomotor domain, and similarly Bloom's (1956) taxonomy in the cognitive and affective domain. In general, since then there have been an increasing number of taxonomies in the domains of cognitive, affective and psychomotor behaviour - the principle areas within the educational field in an attempt to devise educational objectives.

- In the cognitive domain, Bloom's (1956) taxonomy is one of the most popular, and uses the categories of knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. Other classifications have followed a similar path for example Guilford's (1956) structure his model of "intelligence" used categories of figural, symbolic, semantic and behavioural. Other attempted taxonomies are those of Gagné-Merril (Tyler & Gagne, 1967), Gerlach and Sullivan's in 1967 and Block's in Husen and Postlethwaite (1985, p. 3635).

- In the affective domain, all taxonomies have usefully distinguished between attitudes, interest and values. Bloom and his collaborators (1956) classified the affective domain with respect to educational objectives in five categories: receiving (attending), responding, valuing, organisation, and characterisation. This scheme was more recently modified with the addition of characterisation cited by Husen and Postlethwaite (1985).
In the psychomotor domain, the principal taxonomies are: Radgsdale in 1950; Guilford in 1956; Simpson in 1966; Daves in 1969; Kibler in 1970 and Harrow in 1972 (Husen and Postlethwaite, 1985, p. 3628-3637).

Such taxonomies represent a very useful first step in directing our attention to relevant parameters. However, the concepts used are often imprecise and subject to cultural bias. There are very few systematic evaluations and very few attempts to develop precise instruments with which to assess these taxonomies. The aim of this study is to construct a taxonomy for student needs which can be used as a basis for formulating plans for developing student support and help services.

4.4 Motives for a Taxonomy

Currently there is no taxonomy of students needs with which to guide this research. It is suggested that programs of intervention and support for students may be more effective if they were linked to a constructive exposition of needs that could clearly indicate which interventions might best serve these needs. It is essential that any taxonomy applies over a wide range of contexts and clarifies means within a specific context.

Necessarily such a taxonomy, if it is going to be completely effective, will need to cover the cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains.

Such a taxonomy could provide a framework for both research and action programmes, serving to bridge the gap between pure psychological research and the work of teachers and support staff. It could allow comparison within and between institutions so that it
may become apparent where in a particular system or organisation there is a failing in its delivery of services to students. Such a taxonomy could also be used at an individual level as part of a personal developmental program to help students to know themselves better, give them guidelines as to which decisions need to be taken in order for their problems to be attacked and to help them to understand where and how their current difficulties arise and what are the problems and limitations caused by their current behaviour.

4.5 A Taxonomy of Students Needs.

Students arrive at university motivated to study and with the expectation ultimately of a successful career, a good job, and an increase in their potential. But to be successful, a student needs not only to do well in his/her academic studies but also to gain in psychological maturity. Some authors (e.g. Sprinthall, 1983) consider that success in life depends more on psychological maturity than results from academic success. There is much evidence, for example Mehan et al. (1996), that academic success is dependent as much on psychological parameters relating to personal coping as it is to intellectual ability.

In considering the transition into university and the needs of students, the problems they are likely encounter there are two initial questions to address:

• What personal skills and qualities can students be expected to bring with them when they arrive at university?
What personal skills and qualities do they need to develop to be successful at university?

The first question is fundamental. Students in entering university will certainly have particular academic and personal skills as evidenced by their success in the fulfilling entry requirements. How students handle the transition into university life will clearly depend on what they bring to the situation. Previous experiences and skills, may be relevant to the current situation and students will doubtless need to adapt these skills to their new environment. It is difficult, if not impossible, to assess what people bring to university, it is much easier to state what they need in order to succeed. An attempt is made here to construct a taxonomy of needs in terms of the skills and qualities successful students require to be able to cope with all aspects of life at university (Sprinthall 1983; Chickering & Havighurst, 1981).

This thesis is set out in the traditional manual with an introduction leading to the empirical work, with results and discussion that follow. However this is to simplify the actual process as it is set within grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). That is, the original hypotheses were generated from the literature and experience and a scheme was set up for generating data. Data produced ideas for their organisation that was then systematically applied to the original and new data. It became apparent that in order to make sense of the data on student problems there had to be a categorisation system in place to provide structure. The initial steps were to itemise issues that were related to academic work, to student life, or to personal relationships. This structure was quickly seen to be an oversimplification and a more complex interactions had to be allowed for.
The result of the process that developed interactively over time is shown in Figure 4.1. The empirical data will subsequently be described and illustrated in terms of this model, although it should be noted that the new taxonomy was in fact derived from these data in the first instance. That is, the aim of the research was not to test a particular hypothesis but rather to develop an understanding by organising the data in such a way as to suggest structures that could eventually be put in place to facilitate and support student coping.

Figure 4.1: Personal Development Needs: A Taxonomy

Inter-individual needs relate to the knowledge and skills that a student requires to cope with everyday living, be it in the maintenance of the person (for example food, sleeping, planning the day etc.) or Knowledge about the rules, values and procedures prescribed by the university context, which are necessary if the student is to survive. These are social skills and accomplishments related to knowing what they want in practical terms how to get it, and the ability to do so.
Intra-personal needs are based on understanding the person/self and relationships with others. They are a function of meanings and the opportunity to explore them and so increase understanding. They are defined as person specific; they may also be context specific. They relate to a person's own personal wants and how these can be achieved through personal interaction with others.

What sorts of things does a person want? How are these to be obtained? What strategies does someone need to engage in to get them? In attaining goals adjusting strategies, learning new ways of coping and dealing with other as person may be throughout of all gaining in terms of psychological maturity. Rogers (1980), along with others, uses the notion of "personal growth" which implies that understanding is gained new needs unfold and new ways of coping need to be developed to both meet these needs and in turn increase understanding that will give rise to new needs! Thus for example, in early relationships a woman's earlier needs may be exemplified by the promise of sexual exploration while in later (more mature?), relationships deeper psychological needs for support and caring may be paramount. Mearns (1996) identifies the steps of Awareness, Understanding, and Experimentation with Self as representing the progress of personal development leading to growth. The system is cyclic in that growth can only produce a new set of needs, new challenges, which will need new solutions. The process, in terms, could go on forever.

But Rogers (1961, 1980) saw some end point with what he terms self-actualisation. He was impressed with the innate tendency that people develop in the direction of "growth, maturity and positive change" and that the basic motivation of the individual for
actualisation or fulfilment. Self-actualisation is considered as full development as well as use of all talents and potentialities.

To construct a model of needs and ways of coping which facilitates both present and future behaviour and encompasses the belief that the challenge of the future will necessitate further changes is difficult enough. The belief of a ubiquitous set of coping skills to deal with any as yet unknown eventualities is perhaps too optimistic.

Figure 4.2: Taxonomy of Needs: Present Action and Coping

**SKILLS**
- *knowing how to get it*

**SELF**
- **INDIVIDUAL**
  - **INDIVIDUAL LIFE**
  - **ACADEMIC LIFE**
- **PERSONAL**
  - **PERSONAL LIFE**
  - **ACADEMIC LIFE**

**UNDERSTANDING**
- *knowing what they want*

Observed behaviour, NOW. Action with available coping responses.

**Individual and personal life** refers to aspects of university life that are unconnected to academic tasks. When students arrive at university they face problems such as
developing relationships dealing with accommodation etc. They need to take care of
themselves in relation to these personal needs - physical survival/comfort, relationships
with other students, specific friends, family and so on. Particular issues, such as self-
esteeem, meanings attributed to self and so on, are related to their personal life. Both
"individual" and "personal" can be considered as private life as opposed to "academic
life".

**Academic life** as defined in the Dictionary of Psychology (1989) as concerned with
education, especially in college or university, and specifically with mental development
along cognitive-intellectual dimensions. It includes all matters to do with the course,
curriculum, course topics, etc., as well as the specific academic skills necessary to be
successful at this task (see Figure 4.2).

### 4.6 The Dynamic Structure of the Taxonomy

Previous taxonomies have generally been static, simply using different categories and
different words. Here, using the taxonomy of needs, an attempt is made to build a
dynamic model. The factors involved are be summarised as follows:

- The taxonomy deals with a person's behaviours, action plans and strategies
- It is an interactive taxonomy where actions/thoughts/feelings at different level, may
  interact as different types of problems, or different situations arise.
- The affective/cognitive state of person will itself fluctuate depending on both the
  situation and the success of the individual in coping with it.
• A student is considered as an *Individual* with specific needs, skills, physical and psychological health, and day-to-day activities. Life events are special focused in terms of academic contexts.

• It is also emphasised that the taxonomy is dynamic, as time passes changes appear and these will influence responses which will try and reproduce feedback at an information an emotional level.

The taxonomy must be capable of answering this question for an individual: “What do I need to be more effective in the future”. *Strategies* must be considered - both in terms of *short* and *long* term action plans. Strategies used may be cognitive or affective (see Figure 4.3).

In this taxonomy of needs, *inter-individual* needs will largely be expressed cognitively, with emphasis on skills knowledge and how to get information. *Intra-personal* needs are largely focused on understanding, and on knowing what is wanted.

When interacting with others, a person needs to use certain *skills*, particularly social skills, to realise plans and objectives. The *action plan* may involve learning new skills. In the *Long term* these skills need to be incorporated within an individual ’s personal disposition. The skills have to be compatible with personal beliefs and values. Moreover, they have to be compatible with how an individual sees themselves overall as a person, for example they may see the need to be assertive and have no moral or other objectives to assertive behaviour - but it may not be in their character to behave in this way.
The student's with *inter-individual needs* which knowing how to get what she/he wants and having the necessary cognitive skills and accomplishments to get it. For example if a student did not know how to use a computer, then they could make a decision to take a computer skills course, if they did not know how to face up to a colleague and say "no", they might decide to take a course in assertiveness training.

A student's with *intra-personal needs* has needs based on personal understanding (knowing what they want) which based upon their interpretation of events and what these are taken to mean. These needs are largely affective. For example when faced with a situation of how to cope with conflict, different strategies may be considered. An *action plan* could be to try to understand the meanings behind the conflict, a *long term*
plan might relate to clarifying goals; which might involve increasing the range of effective coping behaviours. A long term plan could be described as a Personal Development Programme.

An example of a student along the dimensions of intra-personal needs in (individual) life would be “Biby”. She has been seen in different places in the canteen, library, pub and so on, with a male colleague. She wants to speak to him about her feelings but she does not know how to start. How does she achieve this without embarrassing him or herself? How to be effective and safe?

Another example of a student considered with intra-personal needs in (academic) life. “Danny” who is having problems with his work. He has talked about it to others. Some friends come to help him but he refuses their offer. He feels he needs to be independent, to do things for himself, to be a perfect student. What should he do? What are his needs? Should he totally refuse all offers of support and deal with the consequences of failure in his work, or should he try to understand the meaning of help and reconsider his independence. He could possibly conclude that to accept help and support does not contradict to his need to be a perfect student. Acceptance of help will probably increase his level of performance and this could make him feel better. This represents the process of personal development - working with understanding the meaning of “help” and the meaning of “independence”.

A more practical example of understanding” is that a true story of a Japanese student, a fresher, in the UK for the first time. She went shopping for food but did not buy
anything as she did not recognise anything on the shelves as "food!". She had a lot of learning to do about culture and cooking before she could survive as a student in Hull. We take for granted so many of the day to day understandings that are essential to live our lives. This example shows that even the most straightforward action is predicated on an understanding of specific meanings and specific skills.

This taxonomy has dimensions in the cognitive, affective and psychomotor domain. For example imagine Peter a student who tries to cook his favourite recipe. He is able to read the cookery book and able to visualise what his mother did and remember what his mother told him, while cooking; he probably can imagine eating this dish with the family together at home; cooking the food is a central motor activity.

The taxonomy also offers a framework for classifying types of coping reactions. In this context the work of Perrez and Reicherts(1992) is useful and could be held in conjunction with this taxonomy. They considered three different types of coping reaction to the stress components, the cognitive representation of stress and the evaluation of situation. That is, in simple terms, you can get away from or avoid the particular situation or you can change how you construct it, or charge the value you put on the construction.

The taxonomy clearly has limitations. In the first instance it will be necessary to examine its empirical validity. That would be the task of this dissertation and I would expect that the individual concept will be clarified as a result.
### Table 4.1: Taxonomy of Students Needs: an Example

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INTER INDIVIDUAL</th>
<th>Individual Life</th>
<th>Action plan - How to find house, pay the bills, cook, shop, clean clothes, clean room/flat/house</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>NEEDS (SKILLS)</strong></td>
<td>Academic Life</td>
<td>Long term plan - How to find new friends, how to increase social contacts, how to cope with shyness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SKILLS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><img src="https://via.placeholder.com/150" alt="Action plan" /> How to survive as a fresher in a department; how to cope with stress and anxiety, how to ask for help from lecturer how to study, learning the University timetable, learning how to use computers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NEEDS (SKILLS)</strong></td>
<td>Personal Life</td>
<td>Long term plan- How to write essays, how to avoid procrastination on group projects, how to join in a football University team, how to avoid anxiety /stress when speaking in front of the teacher or the class mates.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>INTRA PERSONAL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><img src="https://via.placeholder.com/150" alt="Action plan" /> How to survive without parents, how to remain/be confident; how to cope with loneliness and homesickness,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SKILLS</strong></td>
<td>Academic Life</td>
<td>Long term plan - How to help and support colleagues when problems arise, to cope with intimate relationships; how to be satisfied with private life; to help others, to cope with new values, attitudes and interests; how to accept differences between people (race, cultural gender) how to promote the growing up process, how to evaluate personal self development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NEEDS (SKILLS)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>Action plan - How to obtain help from tutorial, and other staff; how to be self-disciplined in achievement academic goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SKILLS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>Long term plan - Where to find counselling and health support; how to cope with academic failure, to learn from the academic experience; how to use University opportunities for personal growth and development</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The assessment model presented by Wilkin & Altschuld (1995) suggests a framework for evaluation based on a three phase model involving pre-assessment, (the situation as it is now) assessment and evaluation i.e. how the system is with post assessment and evaluation of the effect of the particular method of coping.

4.7 Two Case Studies: Following the Theoretical Analysis of Taxonomy of Needs

These are ‘fictional’ cases based on real instances.

Ann is an 18 year old and she is a fresher student who came from Manchester to study Maths at the University of Hull. The first weeks at university were a “nightmare”. She left home for the first time and came alone to university. She does not know how to cook and she hates cooking. Finding accommodation was not a difficult task. The problem was how to live there alone. From the beginning she missed home and her friends, and her ability to cope with homesickness and loneliness was a real problem. During the first weeks tears and depression were frequent. She did not know her colleagues well and did not know who to ask for help. To complicate the situation in her department the relationships with lecturers and members of the department were not friendly. She felt lost and had difficulties in organising her studies in order to meet new challenges. She was a shy girl and began to have stress symptoms, e.g. sweating hands and trembling legs every time someone spoke to her. November arrived and she decided to withdraw from university, because, in her opinion, “the world was against her”. The precipitant factor for dropping out was due to a bullying situation in the cafeteria by some other students. After this incident, she felt so let down that her self-esteem was
Ann decided to take some action and not put her circumstances down to "bad luck" she went to the Counselling Service and enrolled in some study skills and stress management programmes organised by the university. As time passed and December came she was a self-confident student, had made new friends, and the idea of dropping out was out of her mind.

In February she saw an advertisement for Nightline saying, "Fancy a challenge?", asking for new volunteers to participate in a training course. She completed the intensive compulsory training programme and she became a volunteer member. There had been
considered change in her goals from the day she first arrived at university till the day she became a Nightliner. Goals not simply related to study but to other social activities which increased her social life and personal support. At the end of June she passed all her exams and decided to have a fun holiday in Scarborough with a group of friends.

Max is 22 years old. He came from Birmingham to do a Physics degree at the university of Hull. For him the transition was just one more change in his life, because of his parents’ work he usually changed homes an average of every five years. His problem with transitions was to find new friends and the loneliness was not a crucial issue for him. He learned to be alone. He was 19 years old when he was a fresher. However, the first year he did well at his academic tasks and focused totally on the intellectual and academic aspects of university life. He was a clever student, but did not have friends and his social life was very limited. By way of compensation he visited the Fitness Centre twice a week to exercise alone. During the second year his life changed.

He found a girlfriend and suddenly routines were different and he had increased social contacts. The second year brought many new changes. He learned to cope with his girlfriend and with sexual life, and with new friends that she introduced to him. It was a happy time for him, but his academic work was being neglected. Things were okay but soon problems appeared in his relationship. He discovered his girlfriend was emotionally and sexually involved with his best friend, which was traumatic for Marx. At that point he lost interest in everything and stayed at home feeling depressed. He avoided his colleagues. He lost self-confidence. Even in academic subjects, did not appear in the department and blamed himself frequently, with negative thoughts (e.g."

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nobody likes me”; “I will never find another woman”; “I will never be a successful man”; “my parents will reject me “and so on). His academic standard declined, relationships with lectures also become difficult. He could not control these stressful situations and one month later he just dropped out from the university.

He did not have the courage to tell his parents. The rest of his second year was awful. He began to drink, to smoke, gave up going to the gym. He tried to find a job but without success. A year, passed. One day he was found in the union having taken an overdose. He was taken to hospital near the university and was given the necessary medical support. Afterwards, psychological support was offered to him through the counselling service. The counsellor worked with him in areas such as improving self-esteem, self-confidence, and re-structuring his thoughts in a more positive way, to enable him to cope with stressful situations and crises that appeared in his life. As time passed some progress was noticed. One and a half years later he felt better, he had learned a lot about life, learned to see life from different perspectives and had more positive thoughts. He was more mature and prepared to accept life with all its challenges and pitfalls. He has grown up a lot and learned from his bad experiences. Frequently he used a phrase that helped him a lot. “Life teaches you a lot of things and then helps you to mature.” Looking back on his progress he feels much stronger now and he has decided to study again and try to finish his course.

4.7.1 How did Ann Cope?

Ann’s problems were the result of homesickness and having to live alone and organise her own life. Her interpersonal issues were loneliness and homesickness, and learning
how to cope with anxiety when speaking with teachers and colleagues. She had low self-esteem and was confused about her values. Her first response was just to escape from the situation; the first method of coping behaviour pointed out by Perrez and Reicherts (1992) is to move away from the stressful situation. However, after having seen the Nightline advertisement she changed her strategies. She asked for help and got it. She took action and sought help, getting help and information, for relevant training courses changed the cognitive representation of her situation and also changed her goals. A new goal was defined: not only to study, but also to be involved with the social life at the university and to give help to others.

4.7.2 How did Max Cope?

Max’s individual needs were centralised on a lack of self-confidence and self-esteem and a difficulty in controlling his negative automatic responsive thoughts, and coping with stressful situations. As a consequence he had difficulty in making friends, and in developing intimate relationship with others. His girlfriend brought new responsibilities into his life but when they broke down the situation was worse than it had been previously. His initial coping strategies at university had been successful, avoiding stressful situations had worked for him. But after the break down of the relationship he had started to smoke, drink, avoid friends at the university. He changed to an inadaptive behaviour. These strategies were not successful because they brought other problems with them such as dependence on drugs. With specialised help he was able to change his coping strategies, and has changed the meanings and re-evaluated, his situation. That is, he changed the implications his situation had for him, in line with the Perrez and Reicherts model (1992). He accepted help and searched for information and solutions
for his situation and to make different and positive evaluations. Although he lost nearly two years of his academic life he gained experience and maturity in life. He grew up a lot in those two years.

Ann’s and Max’s problems when they came to university were similar in many ways but then diverged. The crucial difference was in the helping process. Ann had more “luck”, because she searched and found efficient support. With Max, his girlfriend provided initial support but he did not contribute to his own learning strategies when this support was withdrawn; his situation began to deteriorate. His coping response became increasingly inadequate and maladaptive. However working through this problem, he learned a lot and grew more psychologically mature. In both of these cases, it is possible to see the importance of personal support. It is more effective however if this personal support is used in ways that encourage the individual to take responsibility for their own life and their own learning.

4.8 Understanding: a Key for Personal Development

From this taxonomy of needs, it is evident that for a person to be successful in his/her own terms, he/she will need to develop strategies to ensure that his/her needs on all dimensions are met.

Theories of personal development are related to time. As time passes, a person may develop and this seems to imply growth in a positive way. However, the paradox appears, because we could, as a result of our experiences, becomes less personally effective: in fact the reverse of growth. This can be considered as three phases of
First, it is related with awareness, unless one is aware of what will or might happen it is not possible to do anything about it. Second, one needs to understand what the problem is. Third, one may experiment with the self, that is try new ways of coping (Mearns, 1996). For example, imagine that a person has difficulty speaking in public. They will probably understand why (fear of looking foolish etc.) - but will need to try to find new meaning and to experiment with new ways of thinking, feeling, behaving and coping, if they are to succeed in the task. Personal development could be considered as a rising spiral, where time, problems/awareness, understanding, and experiment, could work as unit. However for some people personal development is a circle not a spiral. They could become stuck through lack of awareness or not understanding the problem, or being enable to change their coping strategies. In fact the spiral could go downwards; a person may be feeling low, and frail, not listen, not take interest - they could take effective coping action - or they could conclude that was not worth taking an interest - so feel worthless - so feel even lower.

4.9 Personal Development/Personal Growth

Personal development can be seen in the context of acquiring new knowledge, developing new skills, but this suffers from a conceptual slippage from what is generally meant by "personal growth". The term personal growth is used by theorists such as Rogers (1980), to indicate a development that is positive. The implication, in his writing is that understanding matters in the world and understanding particular personal needs, leads inevitably to positive growth. The analogy he uses of a growing plant to indicate their growth and the development of individual potential and a blossoming as a person is
demonstrably false. (Williams & Irving, 1996). Simply having more knowledge and information about the situation may increase understanding but this does not mean that understanding will lead to more positive outcomes in life. For example knowledge about the behaviour of other people might make a person cynical and untrusting, where without that knowledge they might be more ready to accept people at face value. Development in terms of increased flexibility might be considered a developmental process but does not have to be positive, as it increases the number of choices but it could be negative as well as positive.

In the context of students adapting to change in higher education then clearly the more responses that are open to them the more able they are to deal with new and unexpected situations. The more experiences a person has in terms of knowledge of the world and learning new behaviours, the more are they able to successfully avoid situations that they know stress them and moreover to “avoid” in a positive way does not necessarily increase anxiety. Secondly, the more understanding and the more flexible the thought processes the more creative solutions can be. Finally the more awareness and understanding a person has, the more able they are in evaluating outcomes and learning from them.

Personal growth has been defined simply change in a desirable valued direction (Arkoff, 1985). Values, of course, vary from person to person. The starting point for many of these theories is the human potential movement in the sixties, where many (including, William James 1890) pointed out that a human beings are really functioning at a very limited percentage of his/her full capacity; they have within them the knowledge and the
ability to generate outcomes far beyond those which they normally achieve. The assumption is that there is individual potential for change in all of us. People such as Maslow and Rogers built their models on the notion that people have the potential within themselves to solve their own problems and that change is not only necessary but a positive dimension in life. The “myth of unchangeability” has been emphasised by authors such as Vaillant (1977), who argued that people are extremely changeable, and empirical evidence by Wallenchinsky (1986) in his study of the “Class of 65” showed that in a ten year period after graduation people changed considerably to extend their behaviour, their beliefs and their values. In this context the notion of a fixed ideal is seen as maladaptive and dangerous, and people, such as Maslow, argued possibly that change has the potential to solve more problems than it creates. There is much validity in this argument; there are so many examples of where people face difficulties simply because of the way they have construed a problem.

Counselling is generally founded on the principle that the potential for change can be released by the techniques of the counsellor to open up choices for the client. As each person understands more about his/her particular situation, the range of options opens with will increase, the range of meanings attributable to events will increase and frameworks to evaluate outcomes will be increased. However, there is “no going back” having understood something, then it is not possible to understand it so to speak. Some of life’s pleasures are arrived at from a simple interpretation of how events are. The joy of a child with a doll that does wonderful things can be lost by looking “under the skin” to see how its works. That is by understanding some things, some of the magic will be lost. So change has risks. But if problems are to be solved and new situations demand
change then it is unlikely that a person's set of habitual coping responses will always be effective. Change in the world is inevitable and so changes in the person are inevitable if progress is to be made, or indeed for some, to 'stand still'.

4.9.1 Personal Development/Growth in Higher Education

For students, entering Higher Education is a time of maximum change in their lives. In every dimension: environment, intellectual and emotional. Students are faced every day with new challenges, which the coping responses they acquired at home and learned at school are probably inappropriate. For students to survive they have to learn a lot about this new world and a lot about themselves. After successfully completing their courses they do not simply know more, they will be different sorts of people. So an academic career is paralleled inevitably by a period of personal development and growth in all aspects of life intellectually, emotionally and physically.

Within a university context it is not sensible to consider academic learning separated from personal learning: the tasks are symbiotic. Academic success may improve self-esteem that may improve relationships with others, whereas personal learning and relationships developed with friends and within society may have a positive effect on students' academic performance. Arkoff (1985) estimated that 70% of what students learn at university is related to their own personal development rather than academic learning.

It helps to link the concept of personal development with the notion of personal effectiveness. That is, a person who has a very little understanding of themselves and
events have very few coping responses available. Their perceptions will be narrow and their possible responses few; therefore the possibility of them being effective is much reduced. However, if they understand where the border is and their range of responses, then they would be able to deal with a wide range of new complex situations (Pascarelli & Terenzini, 1991).

Arkoff and Jurick (1993) have identified some areas of personal change that take place at university where the institutional structure facilitates the process.

**Intellectual, knowledge and learning:** During their time at college, it is not simply knowledge that improves students, they also gain a wide, complex range of transferable skills, such as writing, critically evaluating work, structuring their time, public speaking and so on.

**Autonomy and internality:** To adapt at university and become more independent (particularly if they leave the parental home), students need to take more personal control of their lives and more responsibility for themselves; locus of control becomes more internalised.

**Relations to oneself and others:** Because students must to learn to be more self-sufficient, their self-esteem often increases. Work and relationships found difficult in the first year, become second place when they get to the end of their studies. And this is general to life after university.
Moral and ethical reasoning: As students progress in their understanding and experiences and are presented with different points of view, not only in their academic studies but by their fellows in the bar, a wider, more flexible view of ethical issues emerges. Things are seen as grey, that were before seen black and white. As a consequence, they become less conventional and conformist. It is not always right, but they have some framework from which to derive and defend their position. In this context there is evidence that individual religious beliefs and practices decrease as students learn more about the faith of fellow students they develop as a result more tolerant religious views of others.

Authoritarianism and dogmatism: As a result of having to be flexible and having to consider new idea; it is inevitable perhaps that students become more open minded and more liberal in their political and social attitudes (Arkoff & Jurick, 1993).

Prejudice: In line with the literature on social psychology (Mishel, 1993) stereotypes are reduced as students are exposed to more information learning, to see a black colleague from another country as another person, rather than just has a black person. Similarly sexual stereotypes change with wider social experiences of different people from different social and cultural backgrounds.

In the context of these changes, Arkoff and Jurick (1993) refer to two pathways to growth: one is an individual with an emphasis on self, and the second is a collective path concerned with changes in institutions and society. Following Maslow, Rogers and others, counsellors have tended to emphasise the first path by emphasising individual
perception as a route to change. The two pathways are in fact completely compatible. That is, the perception of an individual will be structured by the ways of his/her society. Meanings are acquired through a process of social interaction (Burr, 1995). A person can never be considered in isolation from the society of which they are a part. How people attribute their own life meanings can be considered as an internalisation of meanings of interactions with others. For example social structures such as marriage and social feelings such as affection or guilt have no meaning without a social environment. While people have their unique understandings of events and construct their own unique ways dependent on their own personal experience. This social and cultural context generally imposes limitations.

4.9.2 Self

The analysis so far is forcing a consideration of the concept of self. At the outset the problems' students face in their student lives are seen in terms of needs that must be met. The central feature in meeting these needs is the meanings that are put upon events, how they are construed, and how they are evaluated. In order to place this sort of interpretation in a theoretical context, it is necessary to make reference to the concept of self; that is to put at centre stage the unique features of the individual that are present in all the different aspects identified in the taxonomy.

Self is probably the most difficult concept in psychology! It is something that is rarely understood by an individual and yet when students read about “self” in the literature the reality is somewhat different. What seemed simple and straightforward suddenly becomes complex and unmanageable. In order to understand this one must be clear to
distinguish with between concepts of self derived from different methodologies. The self is what makes me different from another individual; the self is “I”: “I am” and “you are”. But traditional psychology defines the self simply in terms of an individual differences, so, difference between people based the self will be treated in the same ways as different between people in ability or aptitude tasks. Traditionally psychology takes the position of the external observer, trying to categorise differences between people in terms of overt measurable characteristics. So people like Burns (1978) writing about “measurement of the self” incorporate concepts like self-image, or even ideal self-image where the concepts of self-image derive from the external observer, and try to make sense of a person’s behaviour in terms of constructs which distinguish him/her from other people who behave differently in similar situations.

A complex and different perspective is offered by phenomenology which includes “self” with “me”. Phenomenologists construe the concept of self in terms of what the person themselves believes how the person sees meanings within their world and in their terms, whereas in traditional science, meanings are in the head of the observer. Considering for example the concept of self-esteem, Battle (1980, 1981) and Offer et al., (1988), include different measures of self-esteem in terms of different subclasses: general self esteem, social self-esteem, personal self-esteem, academic self-esteem and so on always taking the position of an outside observer. In a final recognition these concepts and measures may be of little use in trying to understand the problems and motives of the individual. Many people for example fall into the ‘observed’ category “mean”, but few would use the term to describe themselves.
Phenomenological view of self: Understanding “self” phenomenologically is to construct meaning in a person’s own terms (Spinelli, 1989). In terms of understanding how people cope with stress and change in their lives evidently the phenomenology model is not only more useful but probably the only model that can actually suffice because perception of an event/stress depends in large part on the meanings attributed to it by the individual. This means it can only be understood in individual terms. This dissertation takes a phenomenological perspective, where an attempt is made to understand peoples’ crisis, students’ crisis, students’ traumas in terms of the sense that each person makes of them. And coping responses are seen as being appropriate to these meanings.

4.10 Conclusion

When entering university, students are usually young adults submitted to a transition process. A taxonomy has been suggested to describe students needs in terms of individual, personal and academic life, with specific consideration being given to present and future actions, and handling potentially difficult situations. Particular attention is paid to the changing needs and opportunities for personal development and growth in higher education. It is argued that students need practical support and that this should not be based exclusively on problem solving but should be developing based, providing structures not only with ways of handling current issues but the skills to handle problems in future.
5. Student Support Systems

5.1 Summary

This chapter considers ways in which students' needs may be met by different kinds of support, in particular counselling and peer counselling.

5.2 Introduction

The taxonomy of need presented in the previous chapter, attempted to indicate the needs students have. These may be met in various ways, perhaps simply by the provision of information or the sort of practical help given by Welfare Services, or maybe the need is for more personal support. Of these, personal support is the most tenuous and perhaps the most difficult to give within a formal organisational structure. What is clear is that there are many ways in which such help might be provided, ranging from a formal counselling service through peer counselling to 'environmental restructuring' to trying to maximise social contacts and facilitate friendship circles. An example of the later would be the design of Halls of Residence, where study bedrooms may be arranged in small sets around a common kitchen facility.

Student problems can roughly be divided into those concerned with personal growth and development, those concerned with adaptation to the University environment those concerned with functioning as an independent adult, and those concerned specifically with the academic course. These needs are recognised by most institutions of higher
education who have in place support systems and welfare organisations which may well involve a formal counselling service. For example, higher education in Britain - polytechnics, Universities, Colleges - has been known since the Middle Ages not only for education but also for providing pastoral care (McGuiness, 1989).

5.2.1 The Academic’s Role

The role of the University teacher is a complex and often ambiguous one. Formally they have an equal responsibility for teaching, administration and research, although even with the introduction of ‘Quality Control’ into the teaching process, a lecturer’s initial appointment and promotion depend more on research than the other two components. This leads many to see teaching as a chore and particularly to have little interest in the personal problems of their students. There may be a “sink or swim” attitude with the lecturer interested predominantly in those that “swim”. But it is evident that the “good” teacher will need to deal with the problems of individual students and to be aware of how their academic career may be adversely affected by purely personal issues. Although the larger the class the less likely such awareness is to be facilitated.

In Britain the relationship between student and teacher has special characteristics, that is, the distance between professor and student is not as great as that in other European traditions. Since the Middle Ages there has been a tradition of pastoral care. Academic staff in the best institutions have always provides pastoral care, despite the availability of other professional support services, such as student welfare, counselling, and careers guidance. With the increase in student numbers, financial pressure and the assessment of Universities, provision of tutorial and personal support is becoming more difficult and is
often the first thing to be lost in any rationalisation of teaching programmes. However support given by tutors has been found to be invaluable to the survival and success of individual students (Fisher, 1994).

5.2.2 Tutorial Support

The exact specification of the word “Tutor” is not very clear. In the context of medieval Oxford or Cambridge a student would have a tutor who would “keep an eye on him” and encourage his intellectual development. In the “English country house” it was usual to have a private tutor, who had a clear role in cultivating personal as well as academic achievement. In current usage “tutor” refers to a member of teaching staff who takes personal interest in students. At the University of Hull, for example, there is a role of “Senior Tutor” (who used to be called a Sub-Dean), whose job entails pastoral care. It is normal in the British context for members of teaching staff in higher education to help and support students (Earwaker, 1992). Although, now of course, the word “tutor” may be used to identify the person giving a tutorial which may be academically based and have no pastoral components.

In higher education in the U.K., there is now usually a pastoral care system in place, running in conjunction with teaching supervision. Thus it is usual for a ‘personal tutor’ to be appointed who remains the same throughout students time in University and who may or may not be involved in teaching the students. Often such tutors deliberately try to create a relaxed environment for their tutees through social events, so that students do feel able to approach them on more personal matters. In addition there are now following recent development in teaching quality audits which require more structure in
place to ensure that individual students do not get lost in the system. Here such roles as ‘Modular Manager’, ‘Year Tutor’ and ‘Placement Tutor’ have emerged. There is thus more emphasis on checking on the work and progress of individual students.

Despite an extensive literature on student counselling, and pastoral care there is little written about ‘tutoring’ (Bramley, 1977; Lewis, 1984; McMahon, 1985; Lublin, 1987; Jacques, 1988; Earwaker, 1992). These authors show that tutorial support is important and necessary to promote not only academic achievement, but also the maturity and success of students.

The task of being a tutor is often seen as a basic and routine one that can be carried out by any teacher with a good academic knowledge of the subject. But current reflection show this to be naive. Any tutor has considerable power over a student, though often tutors are unaware of the attitude, and often the fear, that students have towards them. An effective tutor who is able to impart knowledge while fostering a spirit of interest in students requires a number of sophisticated personal skills. Or at least they need to be aware of their limitations so that they can work within them.

Some tutors develop their success and effectiveness by fostering real friendships with their students and go out to their way to establish individual/personal contacts. But this is perhaps getting less frequent of late with the increased pressure that University staff have found themselves under. However, whether the contact with students is purely academic, rather than social and academic, the tutor with a good range of personal communication skills (i.e. counselling) is likely to be more effective. For the task is not
merely to pass information but to give the student a set of skills for management that will transfer to their degree course in general. In this sense tutorial work with an individual needs to be just as structured as, for example, a formal lecture course. Counsellors would perhaps recognise the task as “management of process” where they have an awareness of the personal needs of the students and of the power differential of the relationship. It is within this framework that the paradox of helping can easily be produced. For example the task is to help students, but not to the point where they become helpless; to be friendly and personable but not to the point where the student seems to exploit this relationship; and to be alert to personal problems but not to the point where such matters are manipulated by the student to seek extension of work deadlines. Tutorial style/support should be “a way of managing the learning process such that students are both challenged and sustained”(Earwarker, 1992).

Tutorial teaching used to be something that teachers (who were primarily researchers and applied to their teaching post on this basis) just did. Now there are formal courses in teaching available within Universities that many cases are becoming understood. For example the University of Hull has a formal certificated training scheme for University teachers, and its Staff Development Office provides courses in pastoral care and the use of basic counselling skills, run by the staff of the Counselling service.

The theme of this dissertation is that the ‘whole’ student needs to be the focus of education, not just the academic side of completed essays and practical assignments. To this end an institution needs an educational philosophy which provides a coherent system
of teacher training and support and which sees that individual contact with a tutor is an opportunity to do more than simply impart technical knowledge.

5.3 Counselling: Aims and Structure

5.3.1 Definition of Counselling

In the Concise Oxford Dictionary counselling is presented as a form of advice-giving. The British Association for Counselling (BAC) considers counselling as more than a spontaneous event; it is considered as an activity where “people become engaged in counselling when a person, occupying regularly or temporarily the role of counsellor, offers or agrees explicitly to offer time attention and respect to another person or persons temporarily in the role of client” (BAC, 1985, p.1). This implies at the outset a contracted activity, and moreover an activity governed by ethical principles and standards.

General consensus is that counselling is concerned with personal development issues, relationships, and helping clients solve problems, make decisions, and work through life crises. The counsellor’s role is to focus on facilitating a clients’ work, always respecting the clients’ values and working with the clients’ resources. The aims of counselling could be summarised in three statements: first, supplying support and understanding; second, creating a trusting relationship with a positive climate in order to permit clients to express their feelings; Third, working with a client to clarify feelings and situations:
"The task of counselling is to give the 'client' an opportunity to explore, discover, and clarify ways of living more satisfyingly and resourcefully" (B.A.C. Code of Ethics 1985).

Everyone's life has periods when help and support are necessary. Transition processes, life events, crises, specific or traumatic situations or problems with personal development are part and parcel of life.

5.3.2 Counselling Based On Personal Growth or On Solving Problems: A Dilemma

In any helping process there needs to be clarity of purpose. Goals need to be clear. In this context it has to be recognised that different counsellors may have different objectives. Using Williams' (1994, p.3) words, "We must address the difference in emphasis between counsellors who perceive counselling in terms of personal growth and clients who are looking for immediate help and guidance."

While counsellors may be concerned primarily with personal development, clients normally come to counsellors asking for help to solve their problems. This dilemma between counselling based on personal development/growth and counselling based on solving problems poses a fundamental question.

On the one hand, the aims of counselling are generally agreed to be concerned with personal growth, with the focus on the human potential for development and change. From this point of view a counsellor would be a "personal growth promoter" rather than a "crisis expert" (Williams, 1994). On the other hand, the aims of the practice of
counselling as defined by the BAC Code of Ethics, focus on work with individuals in a developmental process, offering crisis support and problem solving or therapeutic guidance. This view is reinforced by the way that counselling is normally advertised, more in terms of solving problems or crises, than prevention of crises.

This dilemma could be resolved, since these two ways of perceiving counselling are not incompatible. Reality shows that clients need practical help and guidance when they are in crisis or with problems. It is possible to have a philosophical perspective of personal development, and still offer problem-based counselling within that perspective. Essentially the personal development approach seeks to marshal resources in such a way that not only are any immediate problems dealt with, but a framework is put in place as a preparation for future life events.

5.4 Counselling: Classification of Terms

Differences identified here are largely based on the “Differentiation Project” of the Lead Body in Advice Guidance and Counselling (Russell, Dexter & Bond, 1992).

5.4.1 Counselling Skills

Counselling skills are competencies, communications skills concordant with the aims, values and communication model of counselling. They are competencies that could facilitate performance of different occupational roles such as advising or counselling, and in other ‘helping’ situations such as befriending as part of a professional helping role such as nursing. Their principal function is to “establish and maintain appropriate
relationships" in order to increase clients' capacity to understand themselves and their situations.

5.4.2 Advice

Advice involves a brief consultation in order to give someone accurate and adequate information, and to give suggestions about the implications of that information. This may involve the use of counselling skills. Advice may utilise information technology and other forms of accessing data.

5.4.3 Guidance

Guidance is defined as a series of consultations given to clients to increase their options in order to facilitate their decisions. Again counselling skills may be used. In contrast to counselling the Guidance worker is usually seen as an 'Expert' who works from their own knowledge base and frame of reference.

5.4.4 Befriending

Befriending is when helpers provide friendship and social contact/support to someone who is isolated and without emotional and practical support. Principal functions are to offer practical help, to listen and to promote values, and work according to the aims and goals of the befriending organisation. Befriending can be distinguished from other forms of helping by its informality and non professionalisation. Befrienders have the freedom to be very flexible in their context with clients. They try to share problems or concerns, rather than solve them; they try to be altruistic. Yet even here there are ethical principles
and boundaries to consider (Russel et al., 1992). The Samartians who offer emotional support, especially for cases of suicide, are one of the most well known services operating a befriending system, essentially providing a listening service. And internationally they are known as 'Befrienders'.

5.5 Counselling: Conceptual Framework

In Counselling as in psychotherapy there are many different theoretical approaches. In relation to student counselling three particular approaches are normally identified.

The psychodynamic orientation is represented by Freud, Jung, Klein, and Winnicott amongst others. It emphasises thoughts, dreams and feelings to explain experiences and solve problems and conflicts. Despite an apparent antithesis to such an approach by adopting an enabling and non-diagnostic frame, many counsellors base their implicit thinking with a psychodynamic framework. This is even the case in ostensibly specific problem solving areas like career counselling (Nelson-Jones, 1982).

Behavioural (and Cognitive Behavioural). These theoretical approaches and resulting methodologies have been greatly influenced by Bandura, Lazarus, Meichenbaum, Mahoney, and Guidano e Liotti (Dobson & Block 1988; Trower et al. 1988; Scott & Dryden 1996). Their models are based on behavioural principles extended to consider the importance of cognitive aspects. These have proved to be some of the most useful models used in counselling. Specifically the aim of cognitive-behavioural therapy is to relieve emotional disturbance by helping people change their maladaptive beliefs and behaviours. Cognitive-behavioural methods are directly concerned with thoughts and
feelings. Perhaps the most popular model used in counselling is Rational Emotive Therapy, developed by A. Ellis (Dryden, W. 1989; Dryden et. al. 1992).

*Humanistic theories* have been considered as the "third force" and as an alternative to the other two approaches. A set of four principles define this theory. First, the principal interest is in the experiences of the person, with an emphasis on their own subjective perceptions of self, views of worth and their feelings. "Who am I?", is one of the crucial existence meaning question. Second, growth, self-actualisation, human choice and creativity are the principal options in this perspective. Third, from a research perspective, research is not value-free; meaningfulness is considered objectively in the selection of research problems. Fourth, people are principally good, therefore it is very important to emphasise the dignity of the person.

A group of psychologists founded the Association of Humanistic Psychology in 1962. Although these psychologists came from diverse theoretical backgrounds, they shared some of the same values. However it was the contributions from Carl Rogers Abraham Maslow, and George Kelly that became the most well-known.

Rogers (1971, 1980) become known for his person-centred therapy and his concept of self. Maslow (1968) become known for his hierarchy of needs and the concept of self-actualisation. These concern personality and motivational theories respectively, and have in common the concepts of self-actualisation and self-fulfilment. Rogers’ basic presupposition is that people are good (Rogers, 1987; Mearns & Thorne, 1989). Kelly’s (1955) work gave rise to his personal construct theory; for him the aim of counselling is
to help people to construct more effective theories or interpretations of this world. The humanistic model has been used as a reference point in counselling because it focuses primarily on personal growth.

These theories are all constructed from the phenomenological perspective that focuses on individual perceptions and interpretations of events, and emphasises the influence of private experience. The foundations of this perspective are attributed to the German philosopher Edmund Husserl, who considered that knowledge comes from experience and that our reality arises solely from this, (Shotter, 1975; Moustakas, 1994, Spinelli, 1995). “To know something is to know what it means”. The individuals world is a created one, and everyone gives different meanings to this world. Is this context the interest is in the study of the ‘person’, the ‘self’ and its development. In contrast traditional psychological sciences emphasise observations and explanations from the view point of an external observer. Spinelli (1995) focuses on the internal and interpreted world, and argues that what is important is the capacity to construct meanings, because the perception of objects is conceived through meanings that are given to them. Intentionality and self-concept are central concepts of phenomenology (Giorgi, 1995). The concept of self is thus a central concept in counselling and in person-centred psychology. Criticisms could be made of the phenomenological perspective such as the quality of evidence for self-actualisation; and the hierarchy of needs and the exaggerated focus on self.

The phenomenological perspective gives rise to its own research paradigm, often called New Paradigm Research (Reason and Rowan 1981), where the emphasis is on working
within the frame of reference of those who are the focus of interest. It is research with and for people not research on people. Although seen as dramatically opposite to traditional (logical positivist) empirical scientific research, it is compatible with it, thus traditional science can be incorporated easily into the new paradigm, although the new paradigm can not be incorporated into traditional methods/viewpoints. That is, traditional science can be seen as a subset of human knowing.

5.5.1 Eclecticism and Integrationism

The general theory/ways of working in counselling differ between practitioners, who each may work with a specific model, say Gestalt or TA (Transactional Analysis) and others who combine a number of different approaches in a tool-bag type approach. This raises a debate between the eclectics who use separate 'tools' at the same time but independently of each other, and integrationists who attempt to incorporate different 'tools' within a common theoretical framework. Phenomenology is seen to provide an overall theoretical model within which both eclectics and integrationists work, (Norcross et al., 1995).

Authors such as Eysenck (1970) are anti-eclectic and consider that it is not possible to use various different perspectives together, arguing that oil and water do not mix! On the other hand authors such as Lazarus, (1989) consider eclecticism as a solution for problem solving models, giving them a broader range of solutions with specific treatments for specific problems. They suggest that different techniques could be complementary, not contradictory. Maslow said "if you only have a hammer you treated
everything like a nail.” Eclectic counsellors consider that for different clients with different needs it is necessary to choose the appropriate techniques.

Integrationists such as Beitmann (1985), Norcross and Grencevage (1985) argue that theories could be integrated because they have a lot of factors in common and it is necessary to recognise convergence and common points. But of course this is only possible to the extent that the basic assumptions of different models are compatible. It is difficult for example to reconcile the “bad core” view of psychoanalysis with the ‘our core good’ view of person centered counselling.

As a student of this controversy, Nelson-Jones (1989) presented an integration of eclecticism, arguing that it is possible to keep theories separate and intact, yet still be consistent when changing from one theoretical approach and practice to another. He coined the term ‘supermarket eclectic’. Egan (1990) provides the most fully developed schema of eclectic practice within an integrated framework.

5.6 Supervision

Supervision and training are frequently associated in counselling and are considered as fundamental for the helping process (Kadushin, 1985; Hawkins & Shohet, 1989; Dryden & Thorne, 1991; Williams, 1992; Page & Wosket, 1994; Feltham, 1996). Characteristics of the individual involved in the supervision process, the conceptual theoretical framework and practice are variables that will go to determine which type of model to follow in supervision. However, supervision seems to be a parallel process in both
directions, acting by supervisor in contact with the supervisee, and as consequence be re-
active in contact with client and by the supervisor (Page & Wosket, 1994).

There are no perfect or unique models of supervision. Each supervision process should
consider the needs of supervisee and should follow the ethics codes prescribed by the

5.6.1 Supervision as Way to Prevent Burn-out in Counselling

"Burn-out derived from the fact that once a rocket has burned-up its fuel it
is then useless, but continues to float in space until it crashes" (Murgatroyd

Burnout as a psychological process is associated with work stress, particularly workload,
and suffering as consequence emotional exhaustion (Maslach, et al., 1982). When the
helper, counsellor or other professional feels tired, drained, and without enthusiasm
during a sustained period of time, it is possible that he/she is suffering burnout. With this
syndrome the person becomes increasingly ineffective and disillusioned with work. If
he/she does not seek help his/her worsens and becomes more isolated every day.
Working in counselling contexts is stressful, not only because of the content of work,
such as others’ problems, but also for the sense of responsibility to do the best thing, and
because counsellors are also people with their own needs.
Corey (1982) puts emphasis on the prevention of this syndrome as well as on understanding the causes of it. This author enhanced the person through encouraging them to take personal responsibility for their own well-being.

Training opportunities are one of the best ways for helpers to take action against burnout. Preventative strategies, like cultivation of pleasurable hobbies and different interests outside the workplace, maintenance of physical health and good sleep, exercise, and diet are fundamental. The counsellor should balance his/her life experiences. Some strategies, such as to share the experiences with others, can be fruitful. More positive thoughts could help, such as “I’m doing my best” or “It is normal in this type of work to be anxious”.

Another way of helping to avoid burnout is through networks, like family, relatives, friends and work-mates, which provide a basis for the person to feel and to be attached with others (Murgatroyd, 1990). Most of the networks used are informal because they involve friendships. There are also more formal networks that are

“Specifically created to provide a basis for people to make contact with each other, to share ideas and experiences and to give support to one another.” (Murgatroyd, 1990:15).

5.7 Professional and Practical Consideration: Confidentiality

Codes of practice of professional psychological associations across the world universally make reference to confidentiality with respect to client issues. The reasons are both ethical and practical. Ethically, psychologists should exhibit respect for their autonomy
and their privacy. If personal information is divulged by a client, then the psychologist has a duty to protect the client and use the material—only in the client’s interests; facts passed on to third parties always carry the possibility of putting the client at risk. But reasons for maintaining confidentiality may be very practical. It is essential in certain areas of work to establish trust so that the client will reveal personal/private information that may be a pre-requisite to help/treatment. No client will freely give a counsellor sensitive information if he/she believes that this is going to then be made known to others who may have power/control over his/her life. Only by preserving any confidentiality contract made with a client is psychological practice with an individual or group possible.

Because confidentiality is such a crucial concept, many counsellors have claimed that it must be absolute. And moreover, many clients believe confidentiality to be absolute; in one study in the USA 69% of clients believed that their counsellors offered absolute confidentiality (Corey & Corey, 1993). But although absolute confidentiality may be an ideal, it cannot be! The psychologist or counsellors legal and ethical responsibilities may extend beyond concern for the individual client to others, to the profession and ultimately to society. Confidentiality inevitably has its boundaries. The reasons lie in four main areas: ethical, practical, legal and professional.

**Ethical** problems arise when one moral principle, for example the sanctity of life, is held to over-ride another moral principle such as confidentiality, (Bond 1993).

There are many **practical** reasons why confidentiality can not be absolute. For example, sponsors, providers and managers will want to evaluate the delivery of psychological
services, and ethically it is desirable that such independent evaluation takes place. But any attempt to look at details of the process will necessarily threaten confidentiality as assessors seek access to work with individual clients or individuals within an organisation. Another aspect of continuing professional development is supervision.

There are also legal constraints on confidentiality. In certain situations, the law will demand breaking of confidentiality and for the police to be permitted access to records. There is as yet little in the way legal precedent for these dilemmas but there is little doubt that future case law will place further limits on confidentiality.

Research also poses problems. Relate in the UK, for example, have a blanket exclusion on the use of data from clients being used for research by outside organisations or in the training of its staff by outside (usually academic) agencies. No matter how well done research always compromises confidentiality (Issues of confidentiality and access to records already affect the way in which the current project was structured).

If there is no research done on work with clients, then future clients and the science of psychology cannot benefit from lessons derived from the current service offered. Thus confidentiality can never be absolute. Ethical, practical legal and professional contacts with clients, these limits on confidentiality must be made clear to them. This reality gives rise to the concept of bounded confidentiality (Pereira, Williams, & Irving 1996). That is helpers/researchers and those that they work with need to be very sensitive to issues of confidentiality and personal risk, and to be aware of appropriate boundaries. Awareness of these boundaries should make the process safer without preventing research.
5.8 Counselling and the Life-cycle

The life-cycle development or life-span perspective (Sugarman, 1986), is a major perspective in counselling which considers development through all the different stages of life. The process of ageing begins when we are born, and sooner or later we all die (Baltes et al. 1980; Woolfe & Sugarman 1989). Some authors suggest an analogy of the course of life and the course of river, as both have occasional turbulent periods and at other times are calm (Woolfe & Sugarman 1989).

The notion of the unfolding of development and growth was emphasised by Rogers using the analogy of a potato stem reaching towards the light, and of flowering of a tulip growing from the potential in a bulb (Rogers, 1980).

As well as psychological development, the counsellor needs to be cognisant of physiological changes (Chickering & Havighurst, 1981). Nowhere is this more obvious than in the teenage years and the period of adolescence and past adolescence, where a person will usually be handling a series of transitions, psychological and social, all at the same time. Such times can precipitate crises but can also be perceived as opportunities for personal growth (Murgatroyd & Woolfe, 1982). It is interesting to note that the Chinese term for crisis is represented by two symbols individually meaning danger and opportunity. This expresses neatly how a challenge can leave a person better able to meet the next problem if it is conceived as an opportunity to learn.
5.9 Counselling Roles in Educational Contexts

Through the work of pioneering psychologists like Burt (1993), guidance has long been a part of the education system in the UK, and the role of the teacher as ‘in loco parentis’ has probably always been the case. But in the 1960’s, possibly the higher influence of psychologists like Daws (1976) and counsellor like Hoxter (Hans Hoxter, Chair, International Round Table for Counselling) brought the ideas of Rogers, and others concerned with the personal development movement, from the USA. The counselling approach blossomed, and the pastoral role in education began to be taken more seriously with particular training for teachers involved in this work. Such innovations represented a considerable extension of the responsibilities and working methods of the teacher, taking them well beyond the traditional teacher role. Education was not seen as a priority role in the promotion and development of personal and social well being (Hughes, 1989; Bell, 1996).

Schools in the UK have been slow in identifying particular individuals to perform the counselling role, whereas in higher education the University Counsellor is a role that has been firmly in place for many years. This may have arisen in part because higher education is a less extensive process where students work independently, so some regular class supervision over and above general tutor involvement was identified as a need. The work of counsellor in higher education may be classified as a “three-fold division” (Rating, 1989) into remedial, preventative and developmental roles.

Remedial Role A large percentage of students using counselling services do so because they need specific help for a particular problem. Here the function of the counsellor is to
help the client to cope with that specific difficulty. There are many problems that arise, though the principal areas are concerned with learning difficulties, anxiety, stress, separation and loss, social and interpersonal relationships, substance abuse, and eating disorders (Rating, 1989).

In a preventative role, the counsellor relates the information gathered in consultations to the wider issues of institutional decision-making and concern and so participate in the institution's academic and administrative staff training and developmental programs (Rating, 1989). The counselling service can exercise this preventative role through the organisation of courses, workshops and groups that will have the function of preparing students to cope with new difficult situations that may arise in the future.

Developmental role Not only the students but academic staff have personal development needs. To help them, counselling services could provide workshops, such as on personal-effectiveness, that involve areas such as time management, assertiveness training, career development and so on.

5.9.1 Student Counselling: Process of Helping

Counselling is a powerful educational force that has the potential to produce life changes. It is not inevitably positive (Williams & Irving, 1996). If counselling can produce change, then it is a force that may be used for good or evil. Certainly the inept helper may do more harm than good. In any counselling provision - from peer counselling/support to full therapeutic counselling - effective training programs and adequate supervision are essential.
BAC, in its accreditation procedure for counsellor training, insist that any accredited course has to have at its centre a core model of helping (BAC, 1985). The utility of this is perhaps obvious; it ensures a consistency and coherence to the training programme and a framework or touchstone that trainers can refer to if they get "lost" in work with clients. In the context of student counselling all perspectives are represented. In the present work a framework is consignment which embodies a developmental perspective to encompass the notion of transition and growth, that is probable more oriented. Egan's (1985, 1990) model provides an ideal vehicle in which these objectives are met and which can provide a straightforward framework both for the learning of management process and for identifying specific necessary skills. Its structure enables components of the counselling base to be identified and trained separately while not losing segments of the totality of the process or the need to value each stage of that process. Egan is reported as saying that "if you are going to teach my model teach all of it", but nevertheless it is easily subdivided into its constituent parts.

The Egan module consists of three phases. In what is commonly referred to as the 'snail' diagram these are distinct although the text makes it clear that the process is iterative and reflexive. The latest formulation (Egan, 1994) represents the same schema in a design that makes the interdependence of the three phases clear and provides a better route through the process.

Egan Stage I: "The present scenario" aims to help clients to identify, search and clarify their concerns and problems. There are three specific steps: help clients tell the story,
help them to identify and challenge blind spots, and lastly to help clients to “search for leverage.”

Stage II: “The preferred scenario” aims to support clients in developing agendas, based on understanding the meanings of the client's problem or concerns. Sub-tasks of this phase help clients search for a variety of solutions in order to improve life; creating viable agendas and finally “choice and commitment” related to types of incentives, and motives to execute agendas.

Stage III: “Getting there” or “formulating strategies and plans” has the objective of helping clients towards action, helping clients select strategies that fit best and “turning strategies into a plans”.

This brief summary gives some ideas of the dynamic nature of the model, its practical nature and its emphasis on action. It is a sound base for any training as it offers a framework for working in areas as diverse as Gestalt, TA and NLP which can be incorporated within the model without distorting the process.

The training of counsellors requires precise methodological practices and techniques of counselling, that are pragmatic and allow for eclecticism (Rating, 1989). It is important that trainee counsellors have knowledge of theoretical perspectives and are prepared to deal with a range of different types of problems (Earwaker, 1992; Fisher, 1994; Bell, 1996). Training should be adequate for its purpose and build in the idea of supervision as an essential prerequisite of practice (Murgatroyd et al., 1985; Brown & Bourne,
Ethical codes should also be considered as training issues, in particular confidentiality in student counselling/support. For example, student counsellors in higher education have a variety of contacts such as with careers advisors, chaplains, student-union, welfare staff and need to be aware of the nature and boundaries of these contacts.

5.9.2 Group Counselling in Higher Education

Individual one to one counselling is expensive and may not be the most appropriate technique for some problems. In certain cases, group work may be more effective both in a developmental and remedial role (Rating, 1989). Groups offer clients the opportunity to learn from each other, to see that others share similar problems and experience different ways of coping and to explore these in a safe environment. The group has been conceived as a learning laboratory (Egan, 1976.)

There are a variety of different types and structures of groups to serve different functions - from T groups, which may offer a challenging environment for the exploration of personal issues, to self-help groups that aim to offer mutual support. Groups may have a therapeutic structure or may simply offer an opportunity to share experiences. The prime example of a self help group where people gather in mutual support is “Alcoholics Anonymous,” but it should be noted that here there is a structure to this process and a set of guiding principles (Twerski, 1991).

A wide range of self-help groups exists covering various life and medical conditions. For example, the self-help directories produced by Hull Council for Voluntary Service (Information on self-help groups Directory of Voluntary and Community organisations
1996) includes around 200 types of support groups. This is in a relatively small city of around 220,000 inhabitants. This shows the importance of problems that people have as well the importance of self-groups.

In Universities in the UK self-help groups are less evident although they do exist, and some (dealing with matters such as bereavement) are often run directly by counselling services (as at University of Hull). However, there is plenty of evidence of groups of students helping other students, through welfare provision, child minding and peer counselling (Carr, 1987; 1988).

5.9.3 Other Helping Groups at University

5.9.3.1 Training Groups

Training groups are considered as a priority. They may be provided by the Student Union and include various skills such as assertiveness, time management and basic counselling training. Some examples such as stress management and training in study skills are the courses most commonly provided.

5.9.3.2 Stress Management

Stress management involves training in interpersonal skills, in relaxation skills, assertiveness and time management normally through behavioural and cognitive group interventions (Cox, 1978; Newton, 1995).
5.9.3.3 Workshops in Study Skills

Workshops in Study skills are normally organised by student counselling or by specific departments. Some workshops are developed in order to learn specific skills like efficient study techniques (Kutashi et al., 1981; Race, 1992), or are centred on different areas such as research students, exam phobias, or anxiety (Wilson, 1980).

5.9.3.4 Clinical Groups

Clinical Groups are centred on short-term therapies and followed by cognitive-behavioural approaches. Some focus on specific groups such as eating disorders or serious problems in assertiveness skills or examination skills. However, problems (Cox, 1983) such as student turnover, and the disruptive academic holidays, should be considered.

5.9.3.5 Orientation and Vocational Group

This type of orientation is important, in particular for Freshers, and for overseas students, who may have difficulties with the transitional process of entering University (Zwingmann & Gunn, 1983). Some vocational counselling utilises methods from careers-guidance like groups for life-planning and decision-making (Rating, 1989).

5.10 Counselling by Telephone, Letter and Computer

Helplines have been in existence for several decades. One of the best known telephone services, the Samaritans, is now around 50 years old. And the numbers of telephone
helplines have increased. The UK Directory of Helplines, organised by the Telephones Helplines Association, contains around 800 national, regional and local services. All of them utilise counselling skills to agreed standards and only a few explicitly claim to be “counselling” in the full meaning of the term (Rosenfield, 1997).

Counselling by telephone is a service in which a person trained as a “counsellor” works with clients on the telephone, in order to help clients to explore and to understand their problems and situations, especially in crisis situations. Principal considerations for counselling on the telephone are: befriending, offering support, giving information and advice and maybe offering advocacy (Rosenfield, 1997).

The essence of counselling on the telephone is a form of befriending, as it is emotional support offered unconditionally through the use of active listening skills.

“The silences may be long, but there is no pressure of time on the caller. Gently, the befriender will explore with the caller whatever the situation might be. The befriender goes at the pace of the befriended, using empathy to support the caller and giving the caller permission to be as they are, acknowledging the feelings they have.” (Rosenfield, 1997, p.13).

Due to advances in technology other media methods are increasingly being used to promote new ways of helping clients. Technology is moving fast, for example some computer assisted therapy programs have already arrived on the market with wide acceptance. Equally, counselling by letter is offered, for example by CRUSE bereavement care (Wallbank, 1994), and there is the promise in the next decade of
Counselling by radio, television or videophone. The efficacy, types of training and ethical problems of these techniques need to be considered.

Another development that is very fashionable is *Counselling by E-mail*. Especially in academic contexts, where computer facilities have been improved, using the Internet could be in the future one way of supporting and helping students. First experiences have derived from a pilot scheme by the Samaritans (Cheltenham branch) for Suicide Counselling (on 14 July 1994). This successful experience was followed by other branches (Rosenfield, 1997). Again, some ethical issues arise concerning the security of confidential messages, and the confidentiality of the counsellor, as communications are not censurable by Internet networks safety. Another question that needs to be addressed is the time between the client sending an E-mail asking for help and the counsellor responding to it.

### 5.10.1 Advantages and Disadvantages of Telephone Counselling

People use telephone counselling rather than going to see a counsellor face to face for many reasons. For instance, it may be more convenient for the client to talk, especially when he/she will not to be seen and so can be anonymous.

*"The telephone affords a more comfortable halfway house for these people" (Sanders, 1993, p. 7).*

Minimum location and environment, less accommodation, and no appointment system could be strengths for preferring this type of support. From the counsellors' perspective, there are also advantages such as better personal safety, anonymity and also the
possibility of taking notes as a memory aid. And the lack of non-verbal counselling skills, reduces training time and results in economies in training. Also telephone helping tends to be much shorter (sometimes only a single call), than, for example, face-to-face which typically uses a number of sessions, although of course, some callers talk on a regular (contracted) basis.

But there are some disadvantages. Not all clients have a telephone, despite increased popular use (for example in UK in 1992, 89% of the population had a telephone at home - Rosenfield, 1997). In student populations, there are special limitations such as money difficulties to pay for the calls, privacy (shared houses or flats normally with only one telephone) and sometimes having to queue for telephone boxes. Other aspects of counselling face-to-face are lost such as eye contact, and other non-verbal clues, that facilitate the relationship between counsellor and client. And there may be more distractions and interruptions. A client can terminate a conversation when the counsellor believes there is still much work to do, and so the counsellor may be distressed by knowing that someone needs help which they have been prevented from giving.

5.10.2 Counselling by Telephone: Summary

Counselling on the telephone is a wide term to express a system of helping and supporting using telephones. The most people who using telephone as helping and supporting. Normally only counselling skills are used on the telephone, but helpers follow same principles conceptual models, and ethics rules as used by counsellors. Despite its limitations, it seems clear that using the telephone is a useful way to help and support people.
5.11 Peer Counselling/Support in Education

5.11.1 Introduction

In the research of literature, peer support work is often referred to as “peer counselling”, although it may not involve ‘counselling’ as such. Students for example who work in peer education, normally do not use “formal counselling”. It is preferable to use the term “peer support”, because of the wide range of meanings that are attached to counselling (Cowie, 1996). However, in this thesis, the common term of peer counselling will be used. Various institutions use different terms for describing the person who works with peers such as peer helpers, peer counsellors, peers support workers, peer ambassadors, peer tutors, peers aides, student counsellors, student para-professional helpers.

One definition widely accepted is provided by Carr (1984). He considered a peer counsellor as a person who is trained and supervised to provide practical assistance and personal support to persons of similar age or experience. Practical assistance, according to Carr (1984), can include problem-solving, decision-making, listening, mutual sharing, action planning and other types of social support activities.

The principal roles of students volunteering as peer counsellors are to listen to others and encourage them to solve their own problems, be informed and provide practical assistance. They might work in a one-to-one situation, in groups or be involved in peer orientation programs, (e.g. course selection process) or make classroom presentations and workshops on different subjects such stress, loneliness, relationship problems and so
on. Other roles could be classified as peer academic assistants or roles in special groups such as in supporting gifted students (Carr, 1988).

The use of students as peer counsellors' has been described as an innovative service (Carr, 1981), a quiet revolution (Carrol & King, 1985), and an emerging strategy. Peer counselling/support has an important role in any educational system, which emphasises personal development. Using Hamblin, (1974, p.324) words:

"It is a tool by which pupils can serve their fellows and the school, gaining a sense of worth as they do it and accelerating their own rate of personal development. The very fact of helping creates a sense of autonomy and worthwhileness, which in turn is spread amongst other pupils, for those who are helped usually developed the desire to help."

The use of peer helpers in educational institutions has been in place for about twenty-five years (Lawson, 1989). Several empirical studies provide evidence of the importance of peer counselling and/or group counselling in educational contexts and in specific areas such as bereavement (Cruse, 1989; Gray, 1988; Quarmby, 1993), crisis (Stevenson, 1994), with loneliness (Abu-Rasain, 1996), and bullying (LaFontaine, 1991; Rigby, 1991; Pepleer, 1996).

Peer counselling/support has a fundamental role in a student's life. For about twenty years, schools have been involved in peer support programs, not only in combatting drug abuse or violence but also in assisting students in different dimensions of development. Peer support is support given by student facilitators, using helping concepts and skills to
assist other students. The helpers or student facilitators are not advice-givers or problem-solvers, but “sensitive listeners who are able to give appropriate feedback-and encouragement to others” (Funk et al. 1994, p.8). Peer counselling has been developed and increased in number in diverse countries. For example in Canada, developed initially by Carr, peer helping programs numbered around a dozen in 1978, and grew to just over 2000 in 1987 (Carr, 1987, 1988). In the UK peer counselling has been developed by the Roehampton Institute London, where it is considered as being, “a way for students to learn how to care about others and put their caring into practice” (Cowie & Sharp, 1995, p.2). Peer counselling in addition to with bully-line services in schools have been one successful way to control bullying at schools.

Due the success acceptance and efficacy of this type of support,, more research must be done in this field. A particular focus in some studies id the effects of peer helping on increases in self-esteem, self-concept and feelings of worth, and increases in the better choices made by students in areas of personal health, such as smoking, pregnancy and so on (Foster-Harrison, 1994).

5.11.2 Training of Peer Counsellors

One of the most important issues is the training of peer counsellors, because the and success and quality of support offered depends essentially on this. For example, in secondary schools, students and parents need to be informed about the participation of their children as peer counsellors; specifically they need to know about the types of training that they will be undergo. Time spent in peer counselling may bring troubles into the family.
The programs offered for training peer counsellors normally have some variations. However, on average they involve a basic training, using for instance two sessions (few hours of training) or a course (three/four complete days). For most peer helping programs, the training has intensive basic courses, or workshops, followed by weekly meetings (Lawson, 1989).

There are various training models for peer counsellors. However, the basics of communication and counselling skills are always included. In addition, information about study skills and other academic issues, including typical student problems, is usually covered. Additional training in more specific areas such as birth control, sexuality, abortion, depression, suicide or sexually transmitted disease can be offered through invited experts. Training manuals have been published on some of these courses (Lawson, 1989; Sanders, 1993, 1994; Rosenfield, 1997).

Training counsellors in general focuses on skills, theory and personal development. When training peer counsellors in telephone counselling, some emphasis has been placed on counselling skills, a little on theory and not a lot on personal development (connected with training). One deficiency of such training is the lack of time available, which often leads to some components of personal training being inadequately dealt with. In this case it is necessary to consider support groups, or a form of ongoing support in order to help the helpers. In practice, student helpers can be supported by counsellors or supervised by them. But this is expensive. However support through a supervision system should be considered by peer counsellors.
5.11.3 Recruitment

Selection before and after training are critical issues. Recruiting is usually accomplished through advertising in schools or on campus through posters, announcements, bookmarks, etc. Individual and personal interviews and application forms are used by some institutions. The major, and often unspecified, components include the personal characteristics of applicants with particular respect to maturity, flexibility and willingness to take responsibility; in general an altruistic disposition.

5.11.4 Advantages of Peer Counselling

Studies show that students prefer to talk to each other on an informal basis, (Lawson, 1989). Most students primarily seek help from friends when they are having difficulties or making decisions (Carr, 1984). Some studies indicate that peers are more accepted than professionals by student “clients”, particularly in the initial phases of developing relationships (Ender et al., 1979; Tinsley et al., 1984). Peers can bridge the generation gap and help other professionals to have better understanding and better insight about students’ needs and problems. Peers are less intimidating and give information in a more informal way (Endler, and Winston 1984). The value for the institution of peer counselling programs is for the increase of services and handling with work load (Lawson, 1989), as well as the implications of this type of support on student life: helping students to cope with a variety of personal issues or to cope with stress or anxiety, can promote more balance in emotional, personal and academic life.
5.11.5 Evaluation of Peer Counselling

Evaluation of any peer counselling is essential. Evaluation systems might involve formal (recording statistics, questionnaires completed by tutors, peers helpers, users of the service, assessment of peers) or informal methods (feedback from tutors, peers and users of the service). Whitaker (1985) describe both the value and the difficulties of evaluating group work such as peer counselling, which necessarily demands both objective and subjective measurements.

There are risks in any limited form of training, and as well as skills work it must also allow for the exploration of mutual and personal issues, with good support and adequate supervision. In addition steps must be taken to avoid overload and burnout in helpers, (Corey, 1982, Maslach et al. 1982). In peer telephone counselling, formal follow-up is very difficult due to the anonymity of interactions. Certainly any evaluation would need to be formally built into the service. Only in cases of peer tutoring might it be possible to access programs by looking all changes in makes gained.

Frequently peer counsellors lack adequate secretarial/administrative support. They spend a lot of time on routine administrative matters reducing their overall effectiveness (Nelson-Jones, 1993).

5.12 Peer Counselling/Support by Telephone

Nowadays using telephone in counselling contexts is on the increase (LaFontaine, 1991; Yule & Gold, 1993; Sanders, 1993; Rosenfield, 1997). One of the more efficient forms
of peer counselling/support has been helplines, not only used in schools but also in University contexts. (Nightline is a helping service run by students to students).

In UK universities, Nightlines have been in use for the last fifty years. In Canada, where development of peer counselling has been a success, some institutions, such as Carleton and Queen’s Universities have used highly trained peers to provide telephone counselling for many years. Similarly, Canadore College successfully initiated a phone line project in 1986 (Lawson, 1989). However there are so far few studies related to the use of peer counselling on the telephone (Thompson & Thompson; 1974; LaFontaine, 1991; Rigby, 1991; Pepleer, 1996; Lawson, 1989).

5.13 Support Needs of Students: How Best to Help

It is evident that student needs are complex and varied. Some can be met by information, advice and guidance. Others will need professional support, be it through University, medical or counselling services. But these often fail to meet the personal needs of students who may need help and support ‘now,’ even if the problem objectively is of no great magnitude. The needs may be more for befriending than counselling. And students may be happier to seek this from a fellow student than an established professional.

Peer counselling - on the telephone - offers perhaps the most practical way of helping in these instances. It requires minimum human training resources and yet promises to be effective. In addition it provides a personal development program for the helper as well as for those they seek to help. In order for this type of support to be successful, peer
counsellors need to be trained. There is no perfect model for training peer counsellors; each model needs to be considered in relation to the specific aims and needs of those that are expected to be helped.

5.14 A Scheme for Portugal

The specific context and culture have to be consistent in relation to specific types of helping and supporting students. Portuguese Universities have common problems that are similar to those of English Universities, although problems such as safety on campus, theft, rape and sexual assault, burglaries and violence are not significant problems in Portugal; the numbers of cases are small and even absent in some universities. Problems in Portuguese Universities, tend to be those resulting from the developmental and transitional process, and from scholastic failure. The failure rate in a year comprises 60% of students - a "national scandal" (Jornal Público, Educação 30.5.96).

The Social Services (Serviços de Acção Social Escolar) in Portugal provides a lot of student support: grants, accommodation, medical services and some Universities also offer psychiatric and counselling services.

Union support (Associação Académica) provides essential social and cultural activities, in order to develop relationships and friendships. The normal groups and activities develop there: theatre, dancing, music, cinema, humanity groups (ecological, Timor, question, human rights, animal rights, etc.) choral groups, philately groups and sports groups (football, basketball, tennis, Judo, karate, gymnastic, etc.).
However, in Portugal, counselling services in higher education, are not as advanced as they are in UK. In July 1996 at the University of Evora, the first national meeting on “Counselling in Higher Education” was organised, promoted by the APPORT (Associação de Psicólogos Portugueses, organisation representative from the Psychologist, similar to the BPS). The aims of this meeting were to discuss, reflect on and plan counselling structures in order to meet students' needs. Also in February 1997 there took place in Lisbon, “First National Meeting for Counselling to Students”

Within this context various interventions have been suggested such as introduction of comprehensive tutorial system and reducing staff contact time (from 18 to 12 hour per week) to give teachers more time for student support (Jornal Público, Educação 30.5.96).

Other initiatives were developed recently in Portugal (Jornal Público, 27/9/96) in collaboration with European Council for Student Affairs 96. The Euro Student 96 questionnaire tried to find out more about the social condition of European Students. It showed that Portuguese Students expressed a great need for psychological support during transitional processes, not only when they enter university but also when they had finished the course and began work.

The situation in Portuguese Universities is crying out for some additional personal support for students. Peer counselling - by telephone during the night would seem to be
an obvious method of meeting this need. Aware of these reasons, the first Nightline in
Portugal was implemented in 1994, named by LUA (Linha da Universidade de Aveiro)
as volunteer service run by students for students during the night. It is presented as a
friendly service listening to students with problems.
6.1 Summary

This project involved establishing a Nightline service (LUA- Linha da Universidade de Aveiro), training its student staff and monitoring the effectiveness of this training, student helpers' performance on duty and their coping strategies over an academic year, as well as recording the nature of the issues they had to deal with. This posed a number of methodological questions.

6.2 New Paradigm Research

Historically psychology has adopted the natural science model with an emphasis on empirical measurement and on the reliability and validity of these measures; these data are essentially quantitative.

"The combination of a particular epistemological approach (empiricism) with a tendency to privilege the collection and statistical analysis of numerical data, has led to the convention of describing this model of scientific practice as the 'quantitative paradigm'." (Henwood & Nicolson, 1995: 109).

More recently, however it has had to be acknowledged that the perception of what constituted usable data restricts the range of situations to which traditional methods can be applied. Thus a more flexible attitude has been developed to admit such material as
verbal reports as data. A qualitative element has been introduced into the analysis, albeit often as 'second class' data that is collapsed into quantitative form to enable statistical analysis (The Occupational Psychologist, (Special Issue), 1991).

Against this background there have been many voices critical of the scientific stance adopted by academic psychology (e.g. Heather, 1972; Smith, 1995). These views in the main adopt a phenomenological perspective and have given rise to what has come to be termed 'New Paradigm Research'.

"We are drawing from a number of sources to put together a coherent statement about the principles and practices which lead towards more valid inquiry within the new research paradigm." (Reason & Reason, 1981, p.239).

This approach affords primary status to qualitative data and has given freedom to researchers to explore the full complexity of human behaviour in terms of "meanings" (Lincoln & Cuba, 1985; Henwood & Nicolson, 1995:109). The conventional distinction between quantitative and qualitative disappears in this paradigm. All data is seen as facilitating understanding and some of this will be expressed in value judgements whereas some is amenable to empirical measurement in the traditional fashion. There is no dilemma as to the validity of different sources of data, each is validated in terms of consistency and relevance to the understandings that emerge from the study. Thus research does not have to be either quantitative or qualitative - it can be a mixture of both (Sugarman, 1985).
"The epistemological version of the quantity-quality debate involves wider and more fundamental questions regarding the nature and practice of science, and the generation and legitimisation of knowledge" (Henwood & Pidgeon 1995, p.115).

In this thesis the conceptual base of the investigation is clearly in the phenomenological camp, such that both quantitative and qualitative methods are used together to enhance understanding. Thus traditional questionnaire techniques are used to generate empirical data, and methods such as focus groups are used to produce qualitative data. Results are combined, with data from all sources given equal priority in generating conclusions. The general approach may be characterised as using Grounded Theory.

6.3 Grounded Theory

Reason and Rowan (1981) argue convincingly that textbooks put forward a “scientific fairy tale” presenting an “image that does not correspond with the way in which science is actually carried out”. That is, a model is presented of theory construction and hypothesis testing such that the role of the experiment is to test a pre-determined hypothesis which derived from a theoretical analysis. In practice, this top-down approach is untrue and much (most) research is better characterised by a bottom-up procedure, in which the theory arises from the data, which Marx (1963, p.14) characterised as “functional theory”. This simple analysis has been glorified now by the term “grounded theory” (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1990; Charmaz, 1983; Henwood & Nicolson, 1995). Grounded Theory emphasises that the ideas needed to understand a particular phenomena arise from observation and analysis of the phenomena itself; thus theoretical concepts emerge from the data rather than being
imposed on it. This is a particularly valuable approach when entering a new research domain where little may be understood of the appropriate parameters. It is also particularly sensitive to context and allows for an understanding of meanings that pertain to a particular situation.

For example, this study began with no preconceptions as to the reactions of students to university life; however through observation and consideration of appropriate data sets it was possible to construct a taxonomy of students needs. This then formed the basis for the later research. But this is not a simple iterative process, for findings later in the work require reconsideration of initial assumptions. The general framework was one of co-operative inquiry (e.g. Reason and Rowan, 1981; Reason, 1988,1994; Smith et al., 1995): that is research “with and for people” rather than “on people”. The principle researcher and the students involved in the project can be seen as co-researchers, each contributing both data and ideas to the final analysis.

However, this methodology should only be adopted with caution, for it is acknowledged that no observations are value or context free. That is, although ideas may be thought of as emerging from data, initial ideas will necessarily have structured perceptions such that in certain ways the data that have emerged are a function of the primary set of the researcher. In a simple example, knowing that there are animals called “cows” enables the observer to see cows; without such prior knowledge difficulty may be encountered distinguishing cows from trees.
But these reservations notwithstanding, it is concluded that in areas such as that investigated in this research, a relatively open mind is necessary at the outset to avoid pre-structuring outcomes. However the methodology is not without its problems. Not the least of these are issues of reliability and validity.

6.4 Validity and Reliability

Within new paradigm research the terms reliability and validity take on somewhat different operationally defined meanings from more traditional methods, although in essence the ideas remain very much the same.

For example, in traditional science reliability is frequently associated with replicability, i.e. that the same procedure should produce the same outcomes on a second, third or fourth occasion. The essence of the concept of reliability is, however, whether we can “believe in” or “rely on” our measurement. In this respect replication offers only one kind of evidence, and moreover evidence which is susceptible to error in that if procedures are exactly replicated then a spurious outcome in one instance will be maintained in another. A more robust view of reliability is provided within new paradigm research, which depends on similar outcomes being generated in different contexts. This carries the notion of replication, but argues that the same outcome generated in different contexts gives more faith in the reliability of results than if it was replicated within a simple situation. So new paradigm research emphasises intellectual vigour in the same way as traditional methods, as was emphasised by Reason & Rowan.
"We need to make the first and most open-ended part of research subject to a rigour and stringency that should apply to the whole project. This is a rigour of softness, of discovery, of turning things over. Instead of 'unstructured' approach, which simply leaves the way open for all the cultural expectations to get in the way of finding anything out, there needs to be an approach which deliberately opens up the area, and gives explicit permission to explore usually unacknowledged realities." Reason & Rowan 1981, p. 248).

There is always an overlap between notions of reliability and validity. Thus the reliability in new paradigm research is a product of convergent analysis; that is information from different sources is pulled together to give understanding and enhance the reliability of conclusions. So validity is treated in a similar way. Validity is concerned with being sure that measures/ideas/theories properly represent the materials that they purport to explain. In New Paradigm research ideas which are confirmed by a variety of methods are deemed to construct validity. This is the process of triangulation (see Denzin, 1970; Silverman, 1994). Thus an outcome for one method/context is held against another and checked against a third in a “convergent multiple method approach” (Webb, 1970 in Lessard-Hebart et al. 1990, p76). In the present study ideas emerging from participant observation are compared with those from systematic observation and interview data.

It has to be remembered that the aims of new paradigm research are somewhat different from those of traditional science, in that it is not the intention to control and predict but rather to understand. Moreover this understanding is in terms of the players’ view not those of an independent “external” observer. So to a great extent the validity of
conclusion has to be tested against the acceptance of those they purport to be about (Smith et al., 1995).

6.5 Context of the Study

6.5.1 The Universities and Towns

A university has been described as an educational institution whose function is to provide instruction and facilities for research for advanced knowledge and learning, as well as to define and confer degrees. This definition from the Oxford Reference Dictionary (1987) is a broad one. However some specific functions need to be emphasised. Universities as educational institutions also promote the personal development of all members (students and staff); hence they provide an education, not merely a training.

Data for this study was collected at the University of Aveiro (Portugal) and at the University of Hull and Humberside- the joint Nightline- (United Kingdom).

The University of Aveiro

Aveiro town is situated in litoral Rota da Luz, Costa da Prata de Portugal and is known as Portuguesa Veneza, due to its similarity with the Italian city to the Rias and their branches. The University of Aveiro is situated about one and half miles from the city centre. It is a pleasant campus with new buildings built of brick; all facilities, not only for academic life, but also for recreation and leisure are to be found on campus.
It is a young university, only twenty years old. It was created in 1973 (decreto-lei n
402/73 de 11 de Agosto de 1973), and in the academic year 1974/1975 received its first
students; the implementation of the LUA project coincided with the celebration of the
University's 20th anniversary. The University of Aveiro offers twenty-five courses for
around 5600 students (Campus de Santiago. Vinte Anos na Construção da
Universidade de Aveiro. 1996. Aveiro, Universidade de Aveiro).

The University of Hull and Humberside

Hull began to develop as Britain's premier East-Coast port in the 18th century.
However today not only the sea, but also the services and the motorway systems have
contributed to the development of the city.

The University of Hull was founded in 1927 in the historic city of Kingston-upon-Hull
which was granted it's Royal Charter in 1299 by Edward I. It is situated around two and
half miles from the city centre. It has a pleasant tree-lined campus where everything can
be found for academic, cultural and recreational pursuits. In 1992/93 the number of full-
time students was 7239 (Students Statistics, 1994/1995, The University of Hull).
In 1994/1995 the University of Hull registered 5189 male and 5109 female, (part and full
time) students coming from every part of the world. Perhaps due not only to its
geographical position but also to the long tradition of education, University of Hull has
many overseas students. For example last year 1992/1993 over 1074 students came
from abroad from 85 different countries (The University of Hull. Prospectus 1994.
Hull, University of Hull).
The University of Humberside has facilities spread over three sites, all within three miles of the centre of Hull. Although more recently, Lincon campus has also been established.

6.5.2 Subjects

Participants in this study were drawn from the student populations of the Universities of Aveiro, Hull and Humberside during 1994/1995, and comprised Student Helpers on Nightline service and Students clients. The Portuguese sample of Student Helpers were 38 students from the University of Aveiro. The English sample of Student Helpers were 27 students from the Universities of Hull and Humberside. Student Clients of the Nightlines were presumed to come from the appropriate students body.

6.6 Methods and Techniques Used in the Study

6.6.1 Sources of Data

As discussed above, procedures for data collection and analysis were, both qualitative and quantitative data, with particular reliance on qualitative methods (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996). Methods used included, open ended questionnaires, structured questionnaires, focus groups, interviews, analyses of diaries and mail survey questionnaires.
6.6.1.1 Questionnaires

Questionnaires have particular disadvantages in that they tend to structure knowledge from the experts' points of view. However they are an invaluable method of obtaining large quantities of data quickly.

6.6.1.2 Focus Group

The Focus Group is a research method advocated by a large number of authors in the social sciences (Millward, 1994) and is particularly useful when researchers seek to discover participant's meanings and ways of understanding (Morgan, 1988; Morgan, 1993; Krueger, S. et al. 1988; Steward & Shamdasani, 1990; Millward 1994, Lunt, 1995). Krueger (1988: p.18) defined a Focus Group as:

"A carefully planned discussion designed to obtain perceptions on a defined area of interest in a permissive, non-threatening environment. It is conducted with 7-10 people by a skilled interviewer. The discussion is relaxed, comfortable, and often enjoyable for participants as they share their ideas and perceptions. Group members influence each other by responding to ideas and comments in the discussion."

6.6.1.3 Interviews

Interviews provide an interactive method of elementary data collection (Morgan, 1988; Silverman, 1994). In this study structured interviews (during the training), unstructured interviews (during the training and planning plans), semi-structured interviews (Rectory, Community members and President of Students Union); and group interviews (weekly
evaluation) were used, on either an individual face-to-face; telephone or group face-to-face.

6.6.1.4 Diary methods

Diary methods, where the participants record their activities and perceptions in log books were used. Diaries provide a rich source of data, with high ecological validity because they are completed in the natural environment where the participants are working (Lessard-Hebert et al. 1990).

6.6.1.5 Mail-survey methods

Mail-survey methods were used to collect data on University of Hull and Humberside Nightline. This type of survey is efficient and was particularly pertinent here where it would have been difficult to contact Nightliners in any other way. However response rates can be low.

6.6.2 Data Analysis

6.6.2.1 Content Analysis

Content analysis is an increasingly popular narrative technique that is applied to people's descriptions of their experiences. It has been used in psychology, social sciences and counselling contexts (Sanders & Liptrop, 1993). As a method it is laborious but does allow formal analysis of personal meanings in a way which few other techniques offer. It
provides an explanatory method to analyse unstructured material that is context-sensitive and is able to deal with large amounts of data (Krippendorff, 1980).

The aim of content analysis is the quantitative classification of content, through transferring the data into a system of categories relating to specific hypotheses connected with that content. It is a theoretically neutral method in that categories are determined by the data itself. However, problems with content analysis concern internal-reliability. The determination of categories is subject to experimenter differences, biases, and error. In this study an effort was made to maintain the reliability of content analysis by examining the concordance between two independent psychologists.

Some software programs, such as askSAM, ETHNO, InfoSelecto, QUALPRO, Kwalitan, Martin, HyperQual2, and ATLAS/ti (Coffey & Atkinson 1996) are available to code and retrieve qualitative data. This type of software was not used in this research, due to its recent appearance on the market. However the Ethnograph and NUD.IST are the most widely used and probably the best known programs (Weitzman & Miles, 1995; Coffey & Atkinson 1996). With such software content analysis is focused only an analysis of language and qualitative using surface structure. However it cannot analyse deep structure.

6.6.2.2 Statistical Analysis

Statistical analyses were completed using the SPSS package (1988). Generally, non parametric techniques were used (Mann-Whitney U Test; Friedman test; Wilcoxon Test; and Spearman's Correlation) because the data were either nominal or ordinal. However,
in one instance the underlying structure of a questionnaire was examined using an exploratory factor analysis (chapter 8). These techniques are described more fully in the appropriate chapters.

6.7 Telephones in Research

Nowadays, with the advance of new technology the use of telephone contact is widespread in social science research (Schegloff & Sacks, 1974; Dunkel-Schetter & Lobel, 1990; Silvermann, 1994; Frey & Oishi, 1995), but more particularly in the counselling contexts (Thompson & Thomspson 1974; LaFontaine, 1991; Yule & Gold, 1993; Sanders, 1993, Rosenfield, 1997).

There are good reasons for the use of telephones in research, for example Dunkel-Schetter and Lobel described the use of Computer-Assisted Telephone Interviewing.

"The interview is conducted at a computer terminal, where the interviewer's question appears on the monitor, and respondents' answers are entered immediately via the keyboard. The data are then automatically coded and can easily be compiled to obtain rapid results when the survey has been completed." Dunkel-Schetter & Lobel (1990:21).

Telephones are practical and quick. For example the studies of Schegloff and Sacks (1974) were based on data drawn from the first five seconds of around 500 telephone calls to and from an American police station. Telephone calls offer interesting data in this regard because non-verbal forms of communication - apart from the telephone bell -
are absent (Silvermann, 1994). In this study, telephones were used to collect information from the student clients.

6.8 Longitudinal Study

In this study longitudinal methods were essential, as the aim was to track the behaviour and emotions of both counsellor and clients over an academic year, which is characterised not only by the time but by periods of specific activities such as examinations. In accord with previous studies it was found that factors such as tiredness and emotional distress resulted in some data, (particularly that from diaries), not always being available. However, other sources of data (e.g. records of calls) allowed the continuity of the study to be maintained.

Longitudinal studies are essential to investigate changes over time, particularly where the interest is in the process of change or in identifying a period of particular significance which cannot be detected in advance. However they are not without problems. It is inevitable that the demand placed upon people in such studies' results in a reduction in sample size (Miller, 1991) and repetitive sampling of information may lead respondents to aim for consistency as matter become routine (Shaughness & Zechmeister, 1990; Miller, 1991).

6.9 Ethical Issues

Much of this project investigates the practical process of counselling and is concerned with issues presented by clients and how they cope, together with issues engendered in
helpers and how they cope. All the information obtained is very personal. The individuals' needs and wishes need be protected in any research of this nature. The basic issues are respect for the individuals wishes and confidentiality.

6.9.1 Confidentiality

The basic premise is that research psychologists and counsellors should exhibit respect for the autonomy and privacy of the individuals. If then, in the course of research, personal information is divulged, those involved in the research have a duty to protect the identity of the clients and not use material in any way which could damage the clients' interests. Any fact passed to a third party, if only through a research report, carries with it the risk that an individual or group of individuals may reliably be identified, and this could have negative consequences. The utmost care needs to be taken in the protection and security of data and how it is reported.

However, as discussed in the previous chapter, confidentiality is a difficult problem for the research psychologist. The matter is resolved in this research by setting up a service dedicated to the research project. In the true spirit of co-operative inquiry those involved saw themselves as co-researchers, not as counsellors who were having information prised out of them by a researcher. The service offered to clients clearly was no less confidential as a result, but helpers were aware when they volunteered for the project that they would be expected to share their personal experiences with the researcher. In return the researcher contracted to respect their autonomy and not use any data that any individual did not wish to be recorded or used.
6.9.2 Personal Risk to Co-Researchers

There is an inevitable risk to co-researchers, especially if disclosure to their fellow helpers reflects badly on their integrity and effectiveness. The project acknowledged this and built in supervision and support on both a formal and informal basis. Safety procedures are outlined at the appropriate point in the project report. There is evidence to suppose that the research met the ideal of both co-operative inquiry and co-operative support.

6.10 Conclusion

This research does not follow the neat format of hypothesis, test, data analysis and discussion. The grounded theory approach incorporated co-operative inquiry resulting in the project unfolding over time as the needs relating to clients, helpers, training and service provision intertwined. This chapter had set out some of the methodological considerations in an effort to make the reports that follow more easily understood. But necessarily, particular methodological problems will be discussed in context as they arise.
7. Linha da Universidade de Aveiro

7.1 Summary

This chapter describes a pioneering project in Portugal. A Nightline service called L.U.A (Linha da Universidade de Aveiro) was developed to meet student needs, and give them support.

7.2 Introduction

As has been shown, students starting university face a variety of problems as young adults and as university students. These transitions could be easier if some support were available. As universities have grown and changed their character, the number and type of students have changed and their support needs have changed. For example at the University of Hull, the University and the Students Union together offer various services (i.e. Counselling, Nightline, Chaplaincy and Education & Welfare) that provide a lot of support and there are various support groups such as Lesbian/Gay groups, HUSSO, etc.

If we compare this to a Portuguese university, for example Aveiro, the type and quantity of support is much less. In Aveiro University, as basic needs were not being met, a counselling service was suggested. The Union (Associação Académica de Aveiro) in the past gave priory to basic cultural and sporting activities, but nowadays is more aware of other students’ needs. The Rectory, Social Services, and Union, as well as the Senate and the Pedagoge Committee, have made efforts in order to create capable services to meet the needs of students and offer support.
7.3 LUA: Linha da Universidade de Aveiro

In the above context, and in order to try to meet the university and student needs in a Portuguese university (Aveiro), a service was created in 1994/1995, called LUA. It was an experimental project. Its aim was to give support and help students with their problems. LUA is an acronym for Linha da Universidade de Aveiro. It is also the Portuguese word for moon which seems appropriate for a service that operates at night. This pioneering service offers listening and emotional support; given to students by their colleagues every night during Semesters from 8.00 p.m. until 8.00 a.m. LUA, as a telephone helpline, provides a service to students as well as being a vehicle for research. It was established by the author as part of this research.

The helpline was staffed by specially trained students. These student helpers on Nightline are called “Lune” or a “lunatic person” “because they stay on “another planet” when on duty they “switch off from their own lives”. A reporter from the newspaper of the Education Ministry magazine wrote (see Appendix D: Posters and Newspaper cuttings):

To translate:

“The most recent satellite of Aveiro University. For the first time in this journal’s history, a NE team went to the MOON on 18th and 19th of January 1995, observed and took notes. They brought items of luggage from the “moons” - being the fabulous new satellite of University of Aveiro that lives behind the telephone number. Because of confidentiality and anonymity they are hidden from indiscreet eyes so and not to invade their own nocturnal world, it was not possible to see them.”

Through publicity and the success of the project, the media became aware of it, and LUA featured on Television, Radio and in Newspapers at both regional and national level (see newspapers cuttings in Appendix D: Posters and Newspaper cuttings).

The LUA telephone counselling service has exceeded all expectations. The attitude of the university students to the service and the motivation of all parties ensured its success; everyone has been very positive. Such has been the interest in the scheme that other Universities in Portugal are now seeking to set up similar counselling services. Regardless of the research aspects of the project, it can be said, and evidence provided, that through the publicity it has engendered and from the ensuing discussion in Portuguese Universities, they have come to consider the psychological needs and welfare of their students.
7.4 Principles

LUA as a university Nightline, follows the same general principles as the Samaritans and Befrienders and University Nightliners International. They may be summarised as:

- The calls are confidential and an anonymous service is provided;
- The callers have freedom to decide about their lives;
- The callers have freedom to end their lives;
- All points of view are respected and helpers are forbidden to impose their own convictions or to influence callers in political, or religious points of view;
- Actions or values are never condemned even if they different from the helpers point of view (The Samaritans. Always there. The Project Pack, 1996).

7.5 Steps Taking in Action for LUA Implementation

For a successful and useful helpline it is important to have a group of people, in this case student volunteers, who are committed to working together to provide a service for those students who need it.

Some terms used in this study need to be defined:

- Co-ordinator/Director - An experienced person, trusted to ensure the quality of the service provided, to offer support to helpers, and enable them to look at, assess and develop their work with callers. In LUA the Author was the Co-ordinator;
- Nightliner/Student Helper - Student volunteers who answer the telephone and who are trained in active listening skills;
• **Caller/Helped/Client** - Anyone who calls Nightline for help;

• **Management Committee** - Those involved in making policy decisions about the running of the helpline.

Because LUA was novel the Committee was large. University members included representatives of the Rectory, Social Services and the Students Union. The project has been supported at all levels within the university and also by two national sponsors: Institute of Educational Research (Instituto de Investigação Educatacional) and the Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation.

After the agreement of all relevant parties, the Rectory and the Students Union, some local organisations were contacted, such as the director of “Life Project” (Projecto Vida) which promotes help and support for young people, especially those with problems of drug addiction. Also the local representative of the Health Services (Centro de Saúde) was contacted in order to ask for help in the event that individual cases might that eventually be in need of medical services; an arrangement was made such that a named individual was available directly to LUA clients without the need to go through the normal formal channels to make an appointment.

After these preliminary contacts had been made the *publicity* for LUA was organised. An aesthetic and inviting poster (in black and white showing a young face and giving only basic information, see Appendix D: Posters and Newspaper cuttings) was first used as a challenge to find volunteer students to be enrolled on an intensive training course and so become future Nightliners. A second poster (see Appendix D: Posters and
Newspaper cuttings), in colour, as well as practical book mark (in the form of a telephone - see Appendix D: Posters and Newspaper cuttings) were displayed on campus and given out to students with the LUA telephone Nightline telephone number: (370763).

Accommodation for the service was offered by the Rectory in the University. It was small but adequate. At the outset the accommodation consisted of two small rooms with WC. There were only the basic necessities such as: two telephones - one for LUA and one private line; a few chairs, a table, and a bunk (for relaxation while the students were waiting for the calls). When the service began, some small accessories were introduced, such as a coffee machine and cups etc., in order to provide the students with drinks and food on duty, and also some entertaining games. In the second semester, two computers were borrowed from the Department of Electronic and Telecommunications and Minerva project respectively, in order to facilitate dealing with information and correspondence and for student helpers in their private study when they were waiting for calls. The service started with limited accommodation, it also had the promise that in future it would have better quality space.

7.6 Structure/Functioning of LUA

LUA as a Nightline service is run by students for students and provides student support. The service is available everyday including Saturday and Sunday from 8 p.m. to 8 a.m. Each night there is a team of four students; two in permanent attendance and two more available to give support. To be a student helper is a demanding task because of the sensitive nature of some of the problems; the time on shift must thus be balanced. The
helpers are on shift for a minimum of 16 hours a month, or two complete nights. For comparison Samaritan volunteers are on shift an average of 12 1/2 hours a month, 150 hours a year.

To ensure the efficiency of the service key posts were identified:

The Co-ordinator, (the author) the public face of LUA, whose function is to direct, co-ordinate and make external communications with other services. In future the Co-ordinator will be elected by all members

Two Adjunct Co-ordinators, whose role was to organise basic training for new members and also the continuing training

General Secretary, responsible for the mail, and writing reports of meetings

Rota Secretary, to co-ordinate the rota for work during the night as well as to organise the lists of shift members, lists of support groups, and names of those who may be contacted in an emergency;

Social Secretary, to organise and promote social events for the group;

Publicity Secretary, to develop publicity about LUA and announce dates for new courses;

Accounts Officer to deal with finance;

Developmental Officer, to collect money and apply for grants to improve the project;

Key Holder, responsible for opening and closing the doors;

Material Officer, to organise material needs: e.g. food, furniture;

Information and Research Officer, to obtain information about different types of helping/caring services available in the city.
The system worked well with students satisfactorily carrying out these roles - although the practical problems of coffee etc. proved more difficult than using their counselling skills!

The finances of LUA were directly dependent on the Rectory through a monthly account, with occasional support given by the Students Union (A.A.U.A) and by Social Services. There have been financial and practical difficulties with the scheme, but this has not affected the enthusiasm of the volunteers who are very keen to proceed with the work.

7.7 What Type of Service is Offered by LUA?

We can consider it a Befriending service because it gives emotional support, however it does not have follow up contacts like the Samaritans. LUA is an anonymous service; the Samaritans is not necessarily anonymous. In Nightline the volunteers only listen, “Befriending” someone who feels desperate, and offering time, space and support while that person searches for hope or a way through the crisis. The Samaritans, created in 1953, offers confidential support to anyone young or old, passing through a crisis, with special concern for those who are feeling suicidal. Befrienders International is a worldwide association with branches operating a similar service in 30 countries (The Samaritans. Always there. The Project Pack, 1996).

In Nightline, with telephone counselling skills, the emphasis is on listening rather than on the counselling process. However, when they are on the phone listeners do provide an opportunity for the caller to explore their issues, hopefully gain understanding, and work towards solutions.
Helplines such as the Samaritans, AIDS line, Rapeline, Bullying line, and so on (see Telephone Helplines, 1995) are very well known and increase in number each day. To enumerate all types of groups support that use the telephone would be to produce a very long list. Nevertheless, in an educational context the telephone has proved to be a good way to help students, especially on sensitive topics. For example, the bullying phenomenon in schools prompted professors and others professionals in education to create a helpline for children (Rolands, 1989; Tattum & Herbert, 1990; La Fontaine, 1991; Elliot 1991). In particular in Universities, nightlines are very popular and very useful. They are an organisation run by and for students that offer a confidential service by telephone. Some also operate a “drop in” centre. They are essentially a friendly listening ear, when family or friends are not around.

LUA offers a confidential service in the treatment of information disclosed by student clients. Confidentiality and privacy are respected. The identities of both participants helpers and clients, are anonymous. Information was given to helpers about the principles contained within the BAC (1985) Codes of Ethics and Practice, as well as information on boundaries and confidentiality. Particular care/attention was given to the needs of the helpers, especially in relation to counsellor anonymity and respect for their privacy.

7.8 Research Methodology with LUA

The author of this research set up the LUA service, at the University of Aveiro, to provide a useful service to students, and also as a vehicle for research. The main focus
of the study is on the student helper, or “counsellor” and how he or she copes with stress, rather than on the clients.

7.8.1 The Participants

The work involved a group of students who, being the subject of research, have also been members of the research team as co-researchers (Reason & Rowan 1981, Reason 1988, 1993, 1994). The participation of students in this process has been extremely fruitful, not only because they found a place to facilitate the process of growing up, but also because it served as confirmation of the importance of the involvement of students in academic life. LUA is a support service created to help the students as well as a vehicle to help the student to understand their needs, their growing up process and nurture the ability to cope more efficiently with stressful situations.

7.8.2 The Background of Co-ordinator of Training

The Co-ordinator of Training is a Psychology lecturer at the University of Aveiro, who had been previously trained in telephone counselling skills, and had developed contacts with Portuguese and British helplines. She also had contacts with Counselling Services and Welfare Education Services at Hull and Humberside Universities. In addition she successfully undertook the intensive training offered by Hull and Humberside Nightliners. The skills acquired from this training, as well as time spent working with Hull and Humberside Nightline facilitated the training of the LUA volunteers. This experience also provided her with insight into the types of problems faced by students and the demand placed on student helplines.
7.8.3 Selection

Advertisements were placed for student volunteers and selection undertaken. Recruitment was from both public university (A.A.U.A.V.) and from private and public institutions, (I.S.C.A. & I.S.C.I.A.).

7.9 The Intensive Training Courses

Once recruited volunteers attended a three day training course. In addition volunteer student counsellors took part in an intensive (thirty hour) training course to prepare them for work with LUA. There was some concern beforehand that it might not be possible to give them sufficient preparation in the time available to be able to cope with potentially stressful situations. These fears proved unfounded.

Two intensive training courses were available in order to provide basic information for the new volunteers (see chapter 8).

Table 7.1: Intensive Training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Semester</th>
<th>Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>28th, 29th, 30th October 1994</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10th, 11th, 12th March 1995</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Courses I and II were run by the author with the support of three experts: one from the University of Coimbra, Dra Margarida Pedroso de Lima, one from the University of
7.9.1 Components of the Intensive Training

The training was organised in order to offer to trainees information about theories of the process of helping, practice in counselling skills and personal development work. Good training should integrate these three aspects.

The training was person centred (Rogers, 1961, 1979, 1980, 1987) with an emphasis on the core conditions (Nelson-Jones 1982, 1983, Murgatroyd, 1985) and the Egan model (1990; 1994) providing the structural framework. The overarching theory could best be described as cognitive-behavioural. Basic Counselling skills by telephone (Sanders, 1993) and personal work were the principal components of this intensive training.

7.10 Ongoing Training

7.10.1 Weekly Meetings

A feedback session with student counsellors was held each week to deal with problems and check on progress. This meeting normally took place at lunch time. The format was based on that of a Focus Group rather than group supervision.
7.10.2 Monthly and Each Semester

Further training meetings were held with volunteers every month. The goal was to offer all participants extra and complementary information in order to help them to cope more efficiently, and to develop their skills. Normally these meetings had invited speakers who offered specific workshops:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Trainers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12th December 1994</td>
<td>Cognition and Stress</td>
<td>J. Alvoeiro</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30th January 1995</td>
<td>Group Cohesion</td>
<td>Dra M.J. Pinheiro</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30th March 1995</td>
<td>Counselling Skills on Telephone</td>
<td>D. Williams &amp; J. Irving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24th May</td>
<td>Rape</td>
<td>Director of Police</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In each Semester, two outdoor social activity meetings were organised in order to promote group cohesion and better understanding between members. Also, a general evaluation session took place.

7.10.3 Updating

The LUA office was provided with books, leaflets, books, newspaper and other material related to the counselling by the Information Officer.

7.11 On Duty

All students, who completed the training course worked during the night from 8 p.m. until 8 a.m. as peer counsellors, providing a befriending service, listening and supporting callers.
For every duty period there were always two volunteers; where possible one female and one male. However, due to the large number of female volunteers this ideal situation could not always be achieved. On each duty period, there were another two members of LUA on the rota to function as "support". They were required to support their colleagues that were on duty, especially at times such as after calls, when the helpers on duty might needed to talk. Members of the support group could stay in the office or just be available on the phone.

The functioning of LUA over a period of one academic year demonstrated the importance of the support group, in providing back up resources and giving the helpers the perception that they were not alone. Helping the helper has been one of the priorities of this project. In addition to the support group, for the first nights of duty following training, the Co-ordinator also stayed with the students to help them and to enable them to develop self-confidence.

A checklist of types of calls is answered everyday by members on duty. A logbook was used to report things that they considered important.

7.12 Supervision

Training and Supervision are two fundamental aspects for an effective process of counselling in action (Dryden & Thorne, 1991; Williams, 1992). Supervision is crucial in the helping professions, especially in counselling (Hawkins & Shohet, 1989; Page & Wosket, 1994); supervision may be seen as educational, supportive and managerial.
(Kadushin, 1976). However the principal objectives of the supervision process are well summarised by Sanders (1993, p.116).


The Co-ordinator supervised the LUA project and supervised students helpers ("counsellors"), followed a cyclical model of supervision, similar to that of Page and Wosket (1994), and conformed to the ethics codes of the British Association of Counselling (BAC, 1988, Bond, 1990).

Due to the limitations of having only one supervisor at LUA, a complementary type of supervision was also developed. Group supervision (Corey & Corey, 1977; Rogers, 1979; Murgatroyd et al., 1985) was used on a regular weekly basis for all members of LUA.

The LUA members were also encouraged to get different types of support from friends, colleagues, family support and to establish their own support networks. A balanced life may help to avoid burnout in counsellors, and they were encouraged to achieve this.

Supervision, was also given on the telephone. Particularly in emergency cases, such as during night duties, supervision on the telephone was found to be effective and for new
trainees essential. There were two reasons for this type of support firstly, helpers could obtain supervision immediately, when they felt the need and wanted someone to speak to at that moment; secondly, this gave the opportunity for "Counsellors" to understand better the client better, in that they were also placed in the position of seeking support using the telephone. It is acknowledged that in future, it would be possible to use networks to facilitate supervision. One example could be the use of teleconferencing facilities, for supervision groups (Rosenfield, 1997).

Helping others face to face or on the telephone always involves risk, not only because it is a continuous and long process but because there is no “right way” to help people. Supervision, (independent of style or modality) is crucial for personal and professional support.

### 7.13 Evaluation

Evaluation of any service is essential. Without evaluation changes would be difficult to detect and there would be no evidence that objectives were being met. The evaluation of LUA followed a number of different directions: the evaluation of the efficiency and efficacy of service and the evaluation of the needs of the student helpers. Quantitative and qualitative assessments were made by all members and staff on a weekly basis (see chapters on students helpers and methodology). In addition to weekly feedback sessions a major review was conducted each Semester involving all members of the team (in December 1994, May, July and September 1995).
Although the evaluation of the telephone counselling process and outcomes has been identified as a prerequisite (Telephones Helplines Association reports of 1995), such evaluations are rare.

Given the anonymous nature of Nightline, collection of data is difficult. However using discussions with callers as evidence, it is possible to gain some information relating to the impact of the service on the caller. The evaluation of LUA focused on the needs and performance of student helpers rather than on the clients' perceptions of the service. However, an important area for further research would be an examination of service effectiveness from the perspective of the client.

7.14 The Service

7.14.1 The Future

LUA finished its experimental research year as a 'friendly Nightline'. However, the project continues and is now recognised as an official student support service of the University of Aveiro. It is hoped that further research will still be possible while maintaining the original and principle aim of helping students with their problems.

7.14.2 Practical Limitations

Although the project was judged by all concerned to have been a success, it was not without its practical problems. There were difficulties over accommodation, which was too small and too noisy. It is very important to have plenty of space and good
ventilation. Also the site needs to be quiet and discreet. Additional facilities such as refrigerator, computer, study table, and a variety of games, would help the student helpers during the period off duty.

In order to operate an efficient service, correspondence, accounts, daily shopping (such as milk, etc.) and so on, is probably best done by a full time employee - perhaps a secretary. Others difficulties were noticed such as finding student helpers willing to do shifts during critical potential crisis periods: examination times or weekends. Because of these problems, some students had to work one shift a week rather than the planed two a month. To combat these problems more student recruits are needed (Nightline Co-ordinator, 1995, Teamworking, University of Hull, June, Issue 7, p.4-5) perhaps a group of at least fifty volunteers, in order to operate effectively with each volunteer working only two nights each month.

It is a big challenge and rewarding one to work in a university context, where students are constantly changing and there is a seasonal movement. In the beginning students are eager; they want to learn and to know things. Then just as they get competent and established it is time to leave and a new cycle is initiated. This mobility could hinder and threaten the continuation of the work; it is essential that helpers are recruited from new students to maintain continuity.
7.14.3 Short and Long Term Plan Suggestions

Based on this experimental year some suggestions are made in order not only to improve the service but also to help other universities in the future should they want to set up a similar service.

Short term plan: First improve initial training by simulation of calls (with a real phone). When the telephone first rings, tension and apprehension are the first reaction, because the call content is not known. It is important to train helpers to cope initially with this problem. Second, encourage activities that facilitate group cohesion. Third, have permanent team support for the student helpers when they need someone to talk to. Fourth, recognise that because of the academic work pressure, some student helpers can not commit themselves for long periods, but nevertheless they could bring valuable experience and support to the service. Fifth, create a management team to help advise the organisation on financial matters and others issues in order to give more free time to the helpers. Sixth, improve connections with others helplines active in Portugal and also to interact with English Nightliners. Seventh, install an answer phone to give basic information during the day.

Long term plan: Two priorities are highlighted. First, a face to face peer counselling service could be provided, although for some clients, issues like training and safety of student helpers would need to be considered. Second, some interaction with other student groups in the Union could be instigated, with the aim of creating a university radio station functioning day and night, where LUA could make some contribution particularly during the night. Thirdly and based many of request from other universities,
standard programmes to facilitate the development of Nightline Services in others (Portuguese) universities could be developed. Fourth, it would be an advantage to create, in connection with a national/telecommunications company, a free line, which would encourage students to phone more frequently perhaps even from other higher education institutions. Finally it would be advisable to become a member of 'Befrienders International'.

7.15 Implications

LUA proved to be a useful and respected service, not only with the quantity and quality of problems received by telephone, but by the positive reactions received from the whole academic community, both staff and students, from the members of the public in Aveiro, and also from the national impact that the service had.

There is evidence that LUA had a direct effect on helpers own lives through their experience of working with other students. They learned to cope with other people's difficult situations and consequently coped better with their own. Because of the support given to the colleagues and their contribution to university life, their social self-awareness was increased. As a peer counsellor in LUA, the students believe their work contributed to their own development.

From the student callers or clients point of view, they know they have a friend, someone to talk to, LUA was there as a listening, friendly service.
8. Understanding the Needs of Helpers: Training

8.1 Introduction

8.1.1 Importance of Training

Clearly peer counsellors need specific training in order to operate a student helpline. However, time is obviously limited, and it is not possible to submit them to a full counsellor training course. Yet the training must be adequate for the "safety" of the helpers and the "safety" of the service offered to callers. This depends on the helpers' competence. It has to be remembered that this is a listening service, not a counselling service! Thus training can be concentrated on a fairly specific range of skills. Training has to deal with some aspects: active listening skills specifically related to the needs of the service; training in those personal skills needed to cope with being a Nightliner. Good training should emphasise theory, basic skills and personal work; LUA training was focused on all three dimensions.

There are a number of separate research questions addressed:

- What are the basic training components required in order to support student counselling?

- What are the principle types of counselling skills (according to Egan's model) obtained on this course?

- Are the instruments of evaluation used in this study adequate for their purpose?

- Were the training course and trainers successful (as evaluated by the trainees)?
• Were there any differences between trainers and trainees concerning the evaluation of the performance of trainees?

• Was there any developmental progress in the Student Helpers as a result of their participation in the provision of a Nightline?

8.1.2 Training Approach

Training jargon was avoided. At all times simple straightforward language was used. Student helpers and clients need to speak the same type of language, being peers this aim is not difficult.

An eclectic approach was adopted in formulating the training programme (Patrick, 1992). The basic framework was Rogers "person-centred approach for support and helping people" (Rogers, 1979; 1980; 1987) with an emphasis on the core conditions and the adoption of a non directive stance. Structure was provided by Egan’s model (1985; 1990, 1994), and specific ideas introduced where appropriate from the work of Ellis (1962), Mahoney (1980, 1984), Beck (1976), and Meichenbaum (1972, 1985). Specific training methods and exercises were gleaned from Nelson & Nelson-Jones (1989, 1993) and Sanders (1993; 1994).

Work specific to counselling on the telephone was supported by the work of Sanders (1993). At all times throughout training, the "Code of Ethics and Practice for Trainers in Counselling Skills" (B.A.C., Code of Ethics 1995) was adhered to.
8.1.3 Preliminary Explanation of Training

Following initial publicity an ‘open session’ was held for any interested students, at which the general aims of the project were described. From this students were recruited for a basic training course, designed to impart the necessary counselling skills for them to provide peer counselling. At the end of this course, the performance of trainees was assessed, and, if satisfactory, they began working as LUA volunteers. A program of ongoing training was provided from this point in the form of weekly, monthly and Semesterly sessions.

This sequence of events was repeated twice (see Figure 8.1). The first basic training course was on 28th, 29th, 30th October 1994. The second training course was on 10th, 11th, 12th March 1995. Once completed, the trainees joined in the ongoing training programme.

8.2 Recruitment

In order to find students to work for LUA a publicity campaign was launched on the University campus. Large numbers of posters were distributed to departments and placed at significant points on campus. The first poster asked for volunteers to participate in an intensive training course on the campus and the second announced the LUA telephone number (see posters in Appendix D: Poster and Newspaper cuttings). In addition 3000 high quality bookmarks with the same design and message of the “LUA” poster were distributed. An open-day was held which offered information describing the aims of the project and the nature of the training.
## Figure 8.1: Schedule of Recruitment and Training

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>October</td>
<td>November</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training I</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 recruited</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27 selected</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28/9/30 Oct.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ongoing training</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Session</td>
<td>Training II</td>
<td>Ongoing training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 selected</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10/11/12 March</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
All volunteer students who attended the information sessions about the aims of LUA and the type of training that would be offered were given a confidential "Nightline Questionnaire Linha da Universidade de Aveiro" (see Appendix A: Training – Nightline Questionnaire). They answered this at home and brought it to the first day of training together with a passport photo. The aims of this initial questionnaire were: first, to characterise the group in terms of factors such as age and gender; second, to gain information about their self-concept and their personal motives, values and attitudes; third, to see how they perceived the role of LUA, and how they found out about LUA. The questionnaire was part of the recruitment procedure, and had any answers given concern about the students motivation or mental state they would have been excluded from that group. Some components of this questionnaire were not relevant to the present study and were not analysed further.

8.2.1 Initial Coping Strategies of Volunteer

The "Nightline Questionnaire Linha da Universidade de Aveiro" provided data on the composition of the group in terms of age, gender, subjects personal reading etc., and one question (number 7) which asked "In what ways do you cope with stressful and demanding situations in your own life?" was analysed and used as a baseline for measures later in the study.

After reading and rereading the data, a content analysis was developed (Krippendorf, 1980) which showed that the following categories covered all responses. Thus the most frequent strategies were to "seek more positive thoughts" (32%) and "try to control rationally in order to face the problems" (32%), followed by "talk with friends" (13%)
“shouting / crying / laughing” (8%) and the three equal lowest categories (5%): “physical exercise (swimming, cycling etc.)”; “relaxing”; and lastly, “prayer”. Cognitive internal strategies were more frequent than external strategies. These cognitive strategies were more favoured than “action” behavioural strategies. This is consistent with the work of Lazarus and Folkman (1984), Lazarus (1986) and Meichenbaum (1972, 1985) who emphasised the importance of causal attributions.

8.3 Training

8.3.1 Methodology

The study was conducted during the basic training. Data are both quantitative and qualitative but because of the nature of the material the principle emphasis was on qualitative methods. Various data collection methods were employed e.g. questionnaires; checklists; interviews (structured/ semi-structured /group) and focus-group.

8.3.2 Characterisation of Sample

The students (peer counsellors) volunteers are here termed students helpers. There were 50 participants (15 male and 35 female volunteers), who received initial intensive training over three days. They were aged between 18 and 27 years (mean=21.4 years; SD=2.15).

The academic achievement of students volunteers, at University was considered as the average of marks obtained by students in previous years. They were marked between 11
and 16 on a 20 point scale (m=11.72; SD=3.74). They came from: Education; Sciences; Electronic and Telecommunications; Economics; Environmental Science; and Engineering. Traditionally Portuguese students attended their 'home University', but there an increasing number now who move away from the parental home to study. This could be considered a stress risk factor. The proportion of helpers living away from home was the same as that for the University as a whole.

38 participants enrolled for the first basic training course, of which 27 successfully completed it. 12 participants enrolled for the second basic training course, of which 11 successfully completed it.

8.3.2.1 Drop out rate

Of the students who did not complete the training, drop outs were due to either personal problems or competing commitments. An analysis of differences between those who dropped out and those who went on to work with LUA showed no significant differences with respect to age, gender or academic achievement.

8.3.3 General Procedures

Participants were previously informed (in a public session) about the demanding timetable to follow, as well as the type of training. They were advised to come to the training in comfortable clothes in order to do practical exercises. Sitting in the training room, it was also suggested that they should bring one pillow, not only so that they
would feel more comfortable, but also to use for some exercises (e.g. relaxation techniques) on the floor.

### 8.3.4 Initial Training: Contents

As was already pointed out, the training approach was focused on Theory, Counselling Skills, and Personal Work.

The aims of the course were:

- to improve the knowledge of each member of the project in order to promote their own personal development;
- to inform the participants about different types of common student problems;
- to prepare students to use counselling skills on the telephone;
- to prepare students to deal with specific types of call on the phone;
- to inform students about stress reactions and stress management

The contents of the course were focused specifically on five areas:

- Basic counselling skills especially centred on telephone counselling skills as referred to above.
- Students problems and needs, especially focusing on academic problems such as exam failure, examination stress, and so on.
- Other problems such as loneliness; homesickness, suicide, drugs, abortion, AIDS and so on.
• Principal problem calls such as threatening calls, hoax calls, silent calls, masturbator
calls.

• Stress management programs, assertiveness training and relaxation techniques.

An outline of the training is prescribed in more detail in Appendix A: Training – Outline
of basic training and Timetable of Basic Training.

8.3.4.1 Schedule and Duration of Training

An open session for all people interested in participating in the project was conducted,
on the Wednesday afternoon, two hours and half before the training courses began. The
objective of this session was to explain to possible participants, the aims of the project.
Both courses followed the same timetable, and had the same contents. Particular
attention was placed on the second course, not only because of the collaboration of ‘old’
LUA members on training, but also due the size of the group.

Training is never enough, but the number of hours of LUA training was considered
“good enough” when compared with other similar training programmes. There seems to
be no consensus about the necessary number of training session to produce Nightliners.
Typically services offer a system weekend sessions or operate this course over ten week
evening sessions (Sanders, 1993).

The LUA basic training lasted for 30½ hours as follows: Friday from 8:30 pm until 11:00
pm; Saturday and Sunday from 9:00 am until 11:00 pm (with breaks for meals). The
trainer-trainee ratio was 1:10. However, in LUA training the trainees frequently worked
in small groups of three, often supervised by trainers.
8.3.4.2 Trainers

The co-ordinating trainer (the author) had the principal role during the whole of the training process and was present throughout all the training. She had been trained previously in counselling, and specifically trained in telephone counselling skills. The other trainers on the team (two psychologists and one medical doctor) were involved in the development of specific areas of training, such as relaxation techniques, stress management, and group cohesion.

8.3.4.3 Course Dynamics and Methods

Few theoretical concepts were presented by trainers, and, the training courses were essentially focused on practice, role-play, and scenarios. Exercises in the form of simulation were utilised regularly. In order to avoid fatigue and exhaustion of trainees, the group brainstormed problems, and using this method meant they were able to work with sensitive topics such as suicide, and the breakdown of relationships. The tasks were particularly demanding, and frequent short break were used with fun games to relax trainees.

Support training material was used, such as handouts, overheads; especially in relation to relaxation techniques.
8.4 Ongoing Training

8.4.1 Introduction

It was always apparent that the initial training would be insufficient to serve all the needs of the student helpers, and so other provisions were made through the year. Personal support and individual supervision was given by the co-ordinator when required by students. To compliment the training, books, leaflets and others material were collected and placed in the LUA office to be available to helpers when required.

8.4.2 Methodology

This research conducted during the academic year 1994/1995, was a longitudinal study, using qualitative and quantitative methods. In particular data was gathered from focus groups, and co-operative inquiry.

8.4.2.1 Participants

All LUA student helpers worked night shifts. In general all participants were involved in all activities. However, when individuals were overloaded with academic work or where there were other timetabling difficulties some absence was inevitable.

8.4.3 Weekly Training Sessions

A fifty minute session was arranged at lunch time (between 1 and 2 p.m.). In the early sessions most of the discussion was concerned with practical (house keeping) issues and
discussion of how specific calls had been handled. As helpers became more experienced, the need for more specific information content during training become apparent, and there were requests for more activities to foster interpersonal relationships and team spirit with the group.

8.4.4 Monthly Training Sessions

Each month (except months when training took place) an outside speaker was invited to address LUA members on relevant topics, such as “Cognition and Stress”, “Group Cohesion”, “Counselling skills on the Telephone” and “Rape”.

8.4.5 Semesterly Activities

Two walks were organised in each semester. The first took place in December 1994 at “Pateira de Fermentelos” near Aveiro, and the second took place in May 1995 at Luso/Buçaco near Coimbra. Both of these walks were in a pleasant tourist environment and had the objectives of enabling trainees to get to know one another, fostering group cohesion, and allowing trainees to relax and enjoy a day away from the university. They were successful and happy days. Some suggestions were made that this type of activity should be further developed (opinion expressed by the group - see Focus Group on Second Semester).
8.4.6 Focus Groups

Frequent difficulties were reported relating to the effects of the conditions of the project accommodation. For example, during the summer there was no fridge to keep food and drinks cool, and during the winter the lack of central heating meant that the building was cold.

8.4.7 Lessons Learned for Future Provision of LUA: Material

The diversity of material offered in the form of books leaflets or others needs to be improved. In particular material should be provided that covers the following areas in term of book videos, leaflets and newspapers:

- The help process, specifically telephone counselling skills
- Personal development, especially questions related to self-knowledge.
- Stress & coping in general, but also with specific regard to an academic context.
- General problems of young people such as: loneliness, emotional disorders, drugs, aids and so on.
- Students university problems, such as examination stress, study methods, and so on.

8.5 Evaluation of Initial Training

8.5.1 Measures

All trainees on both LUA initial training courses I and II completed the following evaluation instruments: Checklist of Counselling Skills (CCS); Training Evaluation
Questionnaire. In addition participants on Course II answered the Course Requisites Questionnaire. Further to this a General Assessment of training was made by the group of trainees on a scale 0/20.

8.5.2 Specific Procedures

Trainees Courses (I and II) completed all instruments of evaluation after finishing the training and before leaving the room. One questionnaire was added for Course II.

Based on the experience of the first training course, two changes were introduced for the second course. First, the numbers of trainers was increased. These included some of the volunteer LUA members who had done the first course and worked one Semester on duty. Second, an evaluation process was introduced through a new questionnaire (Course Requisite) concerning the qualities and abilities of trainees considered necessary for working with LUA. The questionnaire was created by the co-ordinator in collaboration with members of LUA who had participated in the first training course. This type of collaboration provides an example of co-operative work where the students are themselves co-researchers in this process.

The questionnaire (see Appendix A: Training – Course Requisites), consisted of 9 items. Questions 1 to 8 (responses were on a Likert Scale ranging from 1 to 5, bad to very good). The contents of questions were: punctuality; sociability; active participation, empathic understanding, technical competence, knowledge and acceptance of diversity, self control and personal progress/growth. Question 9 was an open ended question.
entitled, “others”, where the trainee could add other qualities or abilities that were not mentioned, in the previous questions.

The peer members (n=12) were volunteer helpers who had themselves been trained on the first course (November, 1994) who had been collaborated on the second training course as trainers, under the supervision of the Co-ordinator/Trainer. After the trainees had left the room, the same questionnaire was answered also by the peers’ “old” LUA members. This task permitted the comparison of the self-assessment (made by trainees) with the evaluation (made by the peers trainers).

Various focus group sessions were organised during training in order to obtain information about student’s knowledge and thoughts about the sensitive topics developed during the training. The last focus group session was related to training evaluation.

8.5.3 Evaluation of Counselling Skills Questionnaire

The objective of this questionnaire (see Appendix A: Training – Checklist of Counselling Skills) was to evaluate the competence of trainees in counselling. It was constructed with three sections. The first consisted of two questions relating to general progress and positives changes (classified “None=0”, “Some =1”, and “Much =2”). The second section consisted of eleven questions relating to specific counselling skills: Basic Skills (BS) questions 2A, 2C, 2D, 2E, 2G, Challenging Skills (CS) questions 2B, 2H, 2K, and the Counselling Process (CP) questions 2F, 2I, 2J. This classification corresponds to Stage One of the Egan Model (Egan, 1985, 1990). Responses were made on a three
point Likert scale (no skill =0, some skill=1 and very skilled=2). Mean responses were calculated for each set of skills. In the third section, one open ended question asked what skills the trainees through they needed to develop most.

8.5.4 ‘Training Evaluation’ Questionnaire

This questionnaire (see Appendix A: Training – Training Evaluation Questionnaire), was aimed at evaluating the quality and efficiency of training in general. The questionnaire consisted of 17 items divided into three sections. The first section dealt with the general evaluation of the training, the contents of course materials used and practical work (questions 1-15). The second section asked about the effectiveness of the trainers (questions 16.1-16.4). The last section (questions 17.1-17.2) asked for suggestions as to future courses and criticisms about the trainers and the organisation of the course in general. Question 1-16 used a five-point Likert Scale and Question 17 was open ended.

8.5.5 General Assessment: Basic Training and Trainees

General Assessment of training was made by each group of trainees on a scale of 0/20; trainees also expressed general opinions on the positive and negative aspects of training (using focus groups). Trainees were assessed on a scale of 0/20. One mark was given by the Co-ordinator trainer and another one as self-assessment.
8.6 Results

8.6.1 ‘Evaluation of Counselling Skills’ Questionnaire

As can be seen from Table 8.1, mean responses for the first section suggest that student helpers considered they had successfully developed their counselling skills.

Table 8.1: Counselling Skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>STD Dev</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Progress made</td>
<td>CCS1A</td>
<td>1.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observable positive changes</td>
<td>CCS1B</td>
<td>1.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic Skills</td>
<td>CCS2A</td>
<td>1.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenging Skills</td>
<td>CCS2B</td>
<td>1.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic Skills</td>
<td>CCS2C</td>
<td>1.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic Skills</td>
<td>CCS2D</td>
<td>1.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic Skills</td>
<td>CCS2E</td>
<td>1.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counselling Process</td>
<td>CCS2F</td>
<td>1.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic Skill</td>
<td>CCS2G</td>
<td>1.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenging Skills</td>
<td>CCS2H</td>
<td>1.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counselling Process</td>
<td>CCS2I</td>
<td>1.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counselling Process</td>
<td>CCS2J</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenging Skills</td>
<td>CCS2K</td>
<td>1.58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n=38

A Friedman Test was used in order to examine differences between the three groups of skills BS, CP, CS. The results show a highly significant difference between skills (χ = 18.64, df=2, p <.0001 – See Table 8.3) with BS being rated highest (m=1.90), followed by CS (m=1.53) and CP (m=1.40).

Spearman correlation coefficients were used to examine the associations between the three components of the second section (Basic Skills- BS; Challenging Skills- CS and Counselling Process-CP). As can be seen from Table 8.2 none of these correlations were significant, suggesting that all variables were relatively independent of one another.
Table 8.2: Correlation matrix for 3 group Skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Basic Skills</th>
<th>Challenging Skills</th>
<th>Counselling Process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-.13</td>
<td>.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p = 0.42</td>
<td>p = 0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counselling Process</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p = 0.56</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8.3: Group of Skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>STD Dev</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BS (Basic Skills)</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS (Challenging Skills)</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CP (Counselling Process)</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>.66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From a content analysis of the open ended question (Section 3 of CCS) four categories were obtained: ‘Basic Skills’, ‘Challenging Skills’ (both rated with 7.9%) ‘Process Counselling’ and ‘Issues related with selves’ (such as self-control, self-confidence, self-knowledgment etc.). The latter two categories were rated highest (both with 42%).

8.6.2 ‘Training Evaluation’ Questionnaire

The means and standard deviations for each item in Section 1 are shown in Table 8.4. Role-play was rated particularly highly (Q7) and the timetable was the lowest (Q13). To describe the main points, “Course Structure”, “Course Dynamic” and “Usefulness of Exercises” were also highly considered.

The means and Standard Deviations for Section 2 (Questions Q16.1-16.5) are shown in Table 8.5. All items were rated highly, and no areas were rated “bad”, “mediocre” or “sufficient”
Questions Q17.1.1 to Q17.1.7 (open ended) were related to the performance of the co-ordinator of Training (see in Appendix A: Training – Tables of training, Table A.). Content analysis indicated the principal ideas expressed were: friendliness, empathy, efficiency, hard working, creative, communicator, motivator/dynamic and practical. Responses in all these areas were positive and supported the feeling that the co-ordinator of training had performed her duties successfully.

Table 8.5: Evaluation of Trainers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>STD Dev</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal Style</td>
<td>Q16.1</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship</td>
<td>Q16.2</td>
<td>4.77</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Skills</td>
<td>Q16.3</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work of Trainer A</td>
<td>Q16.4</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work of Trainer B</td>
<td>Q16.5</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Questions Q17.2.1. to Q17.2.6 related to the organisation of the course. Content analysis indicated responses principally concerned with high efficiency; very practical with lots of exercises; good performance; positive course; useful and very intensive.

Questions Q17.3.1. to Q17.3.6. asked for alterations and suggestions. Content analysis indicated that the principal concerns expressed were the needs for longer training, 'real' phones during training; more group spirit; more comfortable rooms; and more music.

8.6.3 Factor Analysis of the Evaluation of Training Questionnaire

A principal components factor analysis with Varimax Rotation was performed on items 1-15 of the Evaluation of Training Questionnaire in order to examine whether there was more than one distinct component that was important when evaluating the characteristics of the training. Four factors had a Eigen value greater than one, (see Table 8.6), and therefore two, three, and four factor solutions were examined.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Eigen value</th>
<th>Pct of Var</th>
<th>Cum Pct</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.90506</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>32.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.77822</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>44.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.45730</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>54.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.15879</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>62.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A two factor solution was selected as the best fit for the data on the basis of the scree plot (see Figure 8.2) and the interpretability of the factor solution (see Table 8.7).
Figure 8.2: Factor Scree Plot

Table 8.7: Item loading for Two factors (Rotated Factor Matrix)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q1</td>
<td>.23722</td>
<td>.50641</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2</td>
<td>.43404</td>
<td>.17441</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3</td>
<td>.05002</td>
<td>.72275</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4</td>
<td>.44603</td>
<td>.55076</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5</td>
<td>.12519</td>
<td>.64361</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q6</td>
<td>.51285</td>
<td>.24029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q7</td>
<td>.62033</td>
<td>-.00314</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q8</td>
<td>.63371</td>
<td>.13993</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q9</td>
<td>.76825</td>
<td>.19788</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q10</td>
<td>.73266</td>
<td>.27722</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q11</td>
<td>.73416</td>
<td>.14710</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q12</td>
<td>.58438</td>
<td>.36695</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q13</td>
<td>.41218</td>
<td>-.14918</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q14</td>
<td>-.02003</td>
<td>.69045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q15</td>
<td>.19026</td>
<td>.76334</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n = 38

Items 2, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, tended to load on factor I where as items 1, 3, 5, 14, 15 tend to load on Factor II. It would appear that Factor I is concerned with group dynamics and practical skills and Factor II to practical course structure (including materials, contents etc.).
8.6.4 Course Requisites Questionnaire: Self-Assessment (II Training Only)

The evaluation of Course Requisites was made throughout by self-assessment and also by peer assessment (peer counsellors who had already been working on LUA). A series of Mann Whitney U tests were used to examine differences between self-assessment and peer-assessment (see Table 8.8). Although there was a tendency for the self assessment means to be lower than the peer assessments, these differences were not significant, with the exception of question 5 (U=28.5, p<.05). The response alternatives were “very good”, “good”, “sufficient”, “mediocre”, or “bad”. No areas were rated “bad”. The item rated highest in self-assessment was concerned with “individual progress/growth” (Qr.8). The question related with “punctuality” (Qr.1) was rated highest in peer-assessment.

Spearman Correlation coefficients between self and peer-assessment for course requisites were all non significant, in the range r=-.22 to r=0.60 (see Appendix A: Training – Tables of training, Table B).

Table 8.8: Course Requisites

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Self assessment</th>
<th>Peer assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>STD Dev</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punctuality</td>
<td>Qr1</td>
<td>3.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociability</td>
<td>Qr2</td>
<td>3.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active Participation</td>
<td>Qr3</td>
<td>3.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathetic understanding</td>
<td>Qr4</td>
<td>4.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical competence</td>
<td>Qr5</td>
<td>3.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledge/accept diversity</td>
<td>Qr6</td>
<td>4.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-control</td>
<td>Qr7</td>
<td>3.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual progress/growth</td>
<td>Qr8</td>
<td>4.36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n = 11  n = 12 (peers)
8.6.5 Final Assessment of Trainees

During the last session of the Focus Group for each course, trainees (as a group) rated course effectiveness on a 20 point scale. The group mark was 19 out of 20 for both courses.

The trainee's overall assessment of their competence at the end of the training course was examined in relation to the trainer's assessment (each on a scale 0-20). A Mann Whitney U test was used to examine differences. There was a highly significant difference between the students self-assessment and the assessment of the trainer (U=246.5, p<.0001) with the trainer rating students more highly (mean=15.63, S.D.=1.62) than the trainees rated themselves (mean=13.53, S.D.=1.69). Effects of gender were also examined, but no significant differences were apparent. There was a significant, although relatively modest, correlation between trainee and trainer ratings (Spearman, r = 0.37, p <0.05).

Additional information was expressed by trainees using the focus group as a method. The main aspects cited were: "The training was very useful"; "The knowledge about the Self was very important", "The exercises made were very useful, especially the roleplays"; and "The games were very important to help to relax". The main suggestions pointed out for the future were: "A very successful course" and "Personal growth was very well explored". However it could be improved with a "longer course with less timetable per day" and if it were "not so demanding".
8.7 Discussion and Implications

8.7.1 ‘Counselling Skills’ Questionnaire

It appears from student ratings that positive change occurred as a result of learning Counselling Skills during the training course.

The items relating to Basic Skills (BS) were rated higher than the items relating to the Counselling Process (CP). This data suggested that the training course was more effective in developing Basic Skills, according Egan’s model (1990, 1985, 1994), than the Counselling Process. This is further supported by the results of the open ended question (section 3), where trainees expressed a need to further develop issues related to the Counselling Process.

The correlation matrix for the three group variables (specific skills) indicated that all variables were fairly independent of one another. This suggested that this subdivision of items was appropriate. Therefore, this subdivision could be useful in the future to identify weaknesses and strengths of different facets of Counselling Skills.

From responses to the final question of this questionnaire (about more skills that trainees would like to developed more), it would appear that more emphasis could be placed on the Counselling Process and especially training of listening skills (e.g. training to listen with "silences"). Sander (1993, 1994) and Rosenfield, (1997) emphasise that it is a difficult task to cope with "silences" in process of helping. Issues related to "self" also need more attention. The process of helping has also been shown to be very difficult.
8.7.2 Training Evaluation

This questionnaire was anonymous, and therefore the responses of trainees might be expected to be more “honest”. This was considered to be particularly important for the Portuguese sample where, for cultural reasons, assessment of “professors” is not usual (in fact most unusual!).

The “timetable” item received the lowest rating. This result is very “Portuguese”, where, in academic contexts, it is normal to have at least fifteen minutes delay at the start of classes or meetings. Also, the timetable was very demanding, with some training day, beginning at 9.00 am and not ending until 11.00 p.m.

With respect to suggestions for improvements of the course, environmental conditions (e.g. “more music”, the use of “real” phones) were considered important. Respondents also felt that it would be beneficial if more consideration was given to the cohesion of the group. Murgatroyd (1985), and Nelson-Jones (1982, 1993) suggest that it is fundamental to have an adequate and motivating environment.

Trainers also rated the course highly and indicated that, in general, throughout the course the structure was very good. The results of a factor analysis indicated that trainees evaluated the course in terms of two factors. The first related to group dynamic and practical skills and the second to practical structure. This model of the training course may be useful for future assessment of training efficiency within this context. It was suggested that because the course was very demanding it would be beneficial if was less intensive and conducted over a longer time period.
8.7.3 Basic Skill (Course Requisites Questionnaire): Self Assessment

It is interesting to note that whereas there was a correlation between self and trainer assessment in the second Training course, there was no correlation found between self and peer assessment. The fact that peer ratings were higher than self ratings, may be due to a social desirability effect. It seems generally accepted that peer ratings are higher than either self or themselves ratings (D.I. Williams personal communication on meeting Heads of Master Course in Counselling, Cambridge, 1997).

Due the size of the sample, some caution must be exercised in interpreting these data. However, the questionnaire appears to be a good instrument with which to evaluate course characteristics.

8.7.4 Final Assessment of Trainees

Although the group rated the training as very effective, it is interesting that they consistently rated themselves lower than the trainer rated them. This result provided some support for the hypothesis that trainees and trainer were rating the same skills. This may indicate, at this early stage, trainees lack confidence in their abilities. These findings are consistent with the suggestions of Egan (1985, 1994), Nelson Jones (1982, 1993) Murgatroyd (1985) that a very important component of training concerns personal development work. Training has been attributed to equity students as helpers.

Assessment is always difficult and dependent on the perceptions of individuals. Both trainer and trainees (individual and peers) found this assessment process a difficult area.
8.8 Conclusion

Training of students providing peer support is fundamental, both in order to be able to deliver a safe service but also as an “insurance against stress” with respect to the conceptual framework used to guide training. Basic counselling skills and personal work were found to be indispensable components. This training course was rated as being effective by trainees. The methodology and contents used in basic training were successful in preparing students to be peer counsellors/support and could be used for future similar situations. The questionnaires used to evaluated counselling skills, course requirements and the course requisites in general would appear to be valid and useful and could be employed in future assessments of training.
9. Student Helpers on Duty

"I slept and I dreamed that life is pleasure;
I woke and I saw that life is duty;
I worked and I noticed that duty is pleasure"

Friedrich Nietzsche

9.1 Introduction

The helping process is a complex and demanding one. Helping others face to face (Murgatroyd, et al. 1985) or by telephone always involves a risk to the helper (Sanders, 1994, Rosenfield, 1997). Thus consideration must be given not only to the needs of those who ask for help, but also to the needs of the helper (Egan, 1990; Hawkins & Shohet, 1989). Particular attention should be given to Students Helpers (SH), especially when they offer peer counselling/support (Cowie & Sharp, 1995; Carr, 1987, 1988; Lawson, 1989).

A literature research was conducted but no studies were found relating to night shifts made by students.

Data were collected on the needs of the helper by Students Helpers. The study took place over one academic year, during which periodic evaluations were carried out.
There are a number of separate research questions addressed:

- Are there any differences in emotions, activities, and coping strategies while waiting for, during, or after a call?
- Are there any gender differences in emotion, activities, and coping strategies on duty?
- Are there any differences between Portuguese and English Nightliners with respect to emotions, activities, and coping strategies on duty?
- What is the impact on the Student Helpers' development/ personal growth?
- Was LUA successful in helping students with problems?
- After the experimental year, should LUA continue?

9.2 Methodology

The students helpers in LUA are co-researchers. Their observations help structure the data and determine in part how data it was collected. The focus is on the "counsellor" and how he or she copes with stress rather than on the clients.

Serial or multi-stage focus groups were used to obtain information about performance on duty and problems as part of the ongoing training program. Focus groups were also used in order to provide a point of comparison with other survey techniques used (e.g. questionnaires).

The project is firmly located within a "new paradigm" approach using quantitative and quantitative methods. Content analysis was used. This is an increasingly popular
narrative technique when used on people’s descriptions of their experiences. It has been used especially in psychology, social sciences and counselling contexts (Sanders & Liptrop, 1993).

9.2.1 Participants

Thirty-eight Portuguese students’ helpers, (12 male and 26 female, with a mean age =21.24 years and SD=2.27; range 18-25 years) were selected after completing the basic training. All of them had worked night shifts on LUA in the academic year 1994/1995.

The English students helpers were twenty-seven students (7 male and 20 female, mean=20.6 years; range 18-25 years), who worked night shifts on the joint Hull and Humberside Nightline during the academic year 1994/1995.

9.2.2 Instruments of Evaluation

There are no known instruments to evaluate helpers on duty. Thus, it was necessary initially to conduct a pilot study in order to determine the variables that would characterise how the Students Helpers cope on duty. Three questionnaires were designed: Duty Pilot Questionnaire, Duty Feedback Questionnaire and Overall Evaluation of LUA: Second Semester.

Duty: Pilot Questionnaire (see Appendix B: Duty – Pilot Questionnaire) was an open ended questionnaire, constructed to give baseline information on which a second quantitative questionnaire could be based. It comprised 13 questions. Question 1 to 4

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were related to emotions/feelings experienced by Nightliners during duty; questions 5 to 8 were concerned with activities students helpers usually engaged in on duty, and questions 9 to 13 were related to strategies used by students helpers to cope with stress. The questions about emotions, activities and coping strategies distinguished between three different times: before, during, and after the call.

**Duty: Feedback Questionnaire:** Based on a content analysis of the above pilot questionnaire, a second questionnaire was constructed (see Appendix B: Duty - Feedback Questionnaire). This covers the same areas with a number of items relating to each area. The items were derived from the answers from the pilot questionnaire. Two versions of this second questionnaire were developed: one for LUA and other for Hull-Humberside. There were minor differences between these versions on some of the sub-items. The response structure of the second questionnaire was different, being based on a Likert type scale, where the respondents rated each of the response alternatives: “Very strongly identify”; “Strongly identify”; “Moderately identify” or “Not identify at all”.

The questionnaire **Overall of LUA: Second Semester**, was aimed at making an overall evaluation of LUA (obvious only for Portuguese participants). This was an open ended questionnaire, constructed with 5 principal questions: Question S.1, was related to the evaluation made of shifts of duty; question S.2, dealt with types of calls; question S.3, was related to emotions/feelings on duty; question S.3, was about at activities on duty; question S.4, was associated with the LUA structure; and question S.5, was connected with the implications of LUA for personal develop/growth. To complement information
obtained from the questionnaires, further data was gathered through interviews and from the weekly focus group sessions.

9.2.3 Procedures

The pilot questionnaire (Duty: Pilot Questionnaire) was the same for both Portuguese and English Nightliners, and was distributed on duty during the first Semester. For the Portuguese sample, the questionnaires were made available at the LUA office. In both cases Student Helpers were asked to complete the questionnaire at the end of a night’s duty. For the English sample, questionnaires were distributed via mail, using self-addressed envelopes, so that they could be returned to the experimenter.

The second questionnaire Duty: Feedback Questionnaire was completed during the Second Semester. The third questionnaire, Overall Evaluation of LUA: Second Semester, was completed at the end of second Semester, at the last session of general assessment of LUA (see Figure 9.1).
9.3 Results

9.3.1 The Needs of Portuguese and English Nightliners: Pilot Study

Thirty-eight LUA members completed the Pilot questionnaire for LUA and Hull-Humberside. Fifty questionnaires were sent out to the Hull-Humberside Nightliners, of which twenty were returned.

The answers were content analysed. Responses were read independently by two psychologists, who constructed principal categories. There was a 90% correspondence between the judgements of the two psychologists.

The content analysis suggested that there was a great similarity of responses relating to general emotions/feelings, activities and coping strategies used by Portuguese and English students. In order to avoid repetition, the main results of this content analysis can be seen in Table 9.1, Table 9.2, Table 9.3, which presents the data obtained from the second questionnaire, and used categories based on the most frequent group answer from the pilot study.
To check the reliability of the content analysis, a second questionnaire was developed and the frequencies of high rating response, rated high are normally as rated as more frequent obtained through content analysis.

### 9.3.2 Focus Group

The Focus Group is a planned discussion group, comprising members with some homogeneous interest from which perceived information can be gathered (Krueger et al., 1988; Morgan, 1988, 1933; Lunt, 1995). Weekly meetings took place for the duration of this project, the aims of which were to check progress and to analyse the problems that appeared on duty and to find ways of coping with them.

Notes were taken during the focus groups that were content analysed. Problems will be summarised into the principal categories: emotions/feelings; activities; and coping strategies, obtained by the Focus Group on duty. The data was recorded from notes, and was analysed using content analysis. The principal information obtained was:

a) Emotions/feelings: when helpers arrive and are waiting for calls all “hope to have a great duty night”, are “anxious”, “nervous”, and “hope to have calls”. Emotions during the calls were expressed in terms of “intense concentration”. When the phone rang helpers were “anxious and tense”, and felt “intense concentration”. Emotions at the end of the call were “relieved, and “tired”.

b) Activities: When helpers were waiting before and after a call, activities reported were “Drink coffee/tea and eat”, “talk with partner”, “listen to music”, “study” (during exam
periods). During the call there was “intense concentration” and frequently they wrote or doodled.

c) Coping strategies: a variety of opinions were expressed from “talk with duty partner”, “try to relax, with deep breaths”, “drink or eat”, “try to change thoughts to be more positive”. The types of calls that they found difficult were considered by group consensus to be “manipulative calls”, “inconclusive calls”, and for the female helpers “masturbation calls”. Members also said that they were “afraid to answer suicide calls” and they would like to have more training/information on suicide. This wish was extended to masturbation calls. To answer the student’s requests an expert was invited to a training session on “rape”.

Focusing on the process of helping, the general opinion expressed by the statements was “difficult to deal with silences”.

9.4 Results- Duty : Feedback Questionnaire

From an initial sample of thirty eight questionnaires (Duty: Feedback Questionnaire), only twenty six (LUA) were analysed due to missing data. For the Hull and Humberside sample, out of fifty questionnaires sent out by mail, twenty-seven were returned.

Responses to this second questionnaire broadly support the content analysis of the pilot questionnaire, with the mostly highly rated items being the most frequently identified responses in the pilot study (See Table 9.1, Table 9.2, Table 9.3).
9.4.1 Portuguese and English SH on Duty (Emotions/Feelings)

The results of Portuguese and English Nightliners responses are presented in Table 9.1. Friedman Tests were used to examine whether there were differences in the strength with which participants identified with various response alternatives.

Table 9.1: Emotions/Feelings on duty

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Aveiro (Portugal)</th>
<th>Hull (UK)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Variable</td>
<td>Mean STD Dev</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initial</td>
<td>Nervous, anxious</td>
<td>Q1A 2.54 .81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Apprehensive/confident</td>
<td>Q1B 2.69 .68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Eager for calls</td>
<td>Q1C 2.65 .94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waiting for Call</td>
<td>Nervous, anxious</td>
<td>Q21A 2.27 .78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hope and confidence</td>
<td>Q21B 2.81 .75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bored</td>
<td>Q21C N/I*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>During the Call</td>
<td>Intense concentration</td>
<td>Q22A 3.00 .63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Anxious, tense</td>
<td>Q22B 3.08 .84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frustrated</td>
<td>Q22C N/I*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After the Call</td>
<td>Relief &amp; Satisfaction</td>
<td>Q23A 2.81 .69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Worried, disappointed</td>
<td>Q23B 1.85 .67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tired, Drained</td>
<td>Q23C N/I*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotions at the end of duty</td>
<td>Relieved, relaxed</td>
<td>Q3A 2.23 .76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tired</td>
<td>Q3B 2.42 1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Would like more calls</td>
<td>Q3C 3.35 .85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Accomplishment</td>
<td>Q3D N/I*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If Distressed by Call</td>
<td>Sadness</td>
<td>Q4A 2.42 .90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inadequacy</td>
<td>Q4B 2.46 .90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nervous, under pressure</td>
<td>Q4C 2.81 .85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* N/I = Not Included in this sample

For question Q1 (What type of emotions/feelings do you usually experience when you arrive at Nightline), there was no significant difference between the 3 response for Portuguese helpers or for English participants.
For question Q.2.1 (What type of emotions feelings do you experience while you are waiting for the call?), there was a significant difference between means for the two items \( \chi = 3.85, \text{df} = 1, p < .05 \) for the Portuguese sample with participants identifying stronger feelings of hope and confidence rather than “nervousness and anxiousness” when waiting for a call. For English students there was a significant difference between means for the three items \( \chi = 14.68, \text{df} = 2, p < .001 \), with participants giving the highest ratings to “nervous and anxious” and the lowest to “feeling of hope and confidence”.

For question 2.2 (What type of emotions feelings do you experience during the call?), there was no significant difference between the two items for Portuguese students. For English Students, there was a highly significant difference between means for the three items \( \chi = 28.07, \text{df} = 2, p < .0001 \). During the call participants experienced intense concentration rather than frustration.

For question 2.3 (What type of emotions feelings do you experience after the call?), there was a significant difference between responses means for the two items \( \chi = 9.85, \text{df} = 1, p < .01 \), for the Portuguese sample. Participants rated “relief and satisfaction” higher than “worried/ disappointed” after the call. For English participants there was a significant difference between means for the three items \( \chi = 14.13, \text{df} = 2, p < .001 \). After the call, participants indicated they were more relieved and satisfied than tired or drained.

For question 3 (Are your emotions different at the end of the duty? How would you describe them?), there was a significant difference between the three items \( \chi = 11.61, \text{df} = 2, p < .001 \).
df=2, \( p<.01 \) for the Portuguese sample. Participants reported feeling that they rated “would like to have more calls” rather than “relieved” or “tired” at the end of the duty. For English participants there was no significant difference between the items.

For question 4 (If you are distressed by a call what range of emotions/feelings do you experience?), there was no significant difference for 3 items for either sample.

### 9.4.2 Portuguese and English SH on Duty (Activities)

The results of Portuguese and English Nightliners are described on Table 9.2. Friedman Tests were used to examine whether differences were significant in the strength with which participants identified with various response alternatives.

For question 5.1 (What activities do you usually do when you are waiting for the call?), there was a highly significant difference between responses means for the five items \( (\chi^2=37.35, \text{df}=4, \ p<.0001) \) for the Portuguese sample, with participants giving highest ratings to “Drink coffee and tea” and lowest to “Smoke”. For English participants there was a no significant difference between the items.

Table 9.2: Activities on duty

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Aveiro (Portugal)</th>
<th>Hull (UK)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>STD Dev</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When waiting for the call</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drink coffee and tea</td>
<td>Q51A</td>
<td>3.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talk with partner</td>
<td>Q51B</td>
<td>3.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listen to music</td>
<td>Q51C</td>
<td>2.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smoke</td>
<td>Q51D</td>
<td>1.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study</td>
<td>Q51E</td>
<td>2.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watch T.V.</td>
<td>Q51F</td>
<td>N/I *</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
During the call

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Q52A</th>
<th>Q52B</th>
<th>Q53A</th>
<th>Q53B</th>
<th>Q53C</th>
<th>Q53D</th>
<th>Q53E</th>
<th>Q53F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intense concentration on call</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doodle or write</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After the call

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Q53A</th>
<th>Q53B</th>
<th>Q53C</th>
<th>Q53D</th>
<th>Q53E</th>
<th>Q53F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Talk with partner</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drink tea or coffee</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smoke</td>
<td>2.04</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watch T.V.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take deep breaths</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listen to music</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Facilities that would help

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Facility</th>
<th>Q6A</th>
<th>Q6B</th>
<th>Q6C</th>
<th>Q6D</th>
<th>Q6E</th>
<th>Q6F</th>
<th>Q6G</th>
<th>Q6H</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T.V. and video</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>N/I</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>N/I</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shower</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>N/I</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooking facilities</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td>N/I</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comfortable chairs</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>N/I</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Books</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>N/I</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nothing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N/I</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio, cards, dominoes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N/I</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

How could duties be less stressful

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Q7A</th>
<th>Q7B</th>
<th>Q7C</th>
<th>Q7D</th>
<th>Q7E</th>
<th>Q7F</th>
<th>Q7G</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>More short duties</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>N/I</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More calls</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>N/I</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduce extra activities</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>N/I</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourage other Nightliners to come &amp; talk</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking about stressful calls</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Know duty partner better</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duties aren’t stressful</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Activities that help to reduce stress

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Q8A</th>
<th>Q8B</th>
<th>Q8C</th>
<th>Q8D</th>
<th>Q8E</th>
<th>Q8F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Talking with partner or friends</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watching T.V.</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical exercise</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>N/I</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relaxation techniques</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>N/I</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening services</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>N/I</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having a shower</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>N/I</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* N/I = Not included in this sample

For question 5.2 (What activities do you usually do during the call?), there was no significant difference between the two items for Portuguese or English participants.

For question 5.3 (What activities do you usually do after the call?), there was highly significant difference between means for the five items ($\chi = 25.58, df = 4, p<0.001$) for the Portuguese sample. Participants gave highest ratings to “talk with partner” and lowest
to "smoke". For English students there was a significant difference between means for
the four items ($\chi^2=17.18$, df=3, $p<0.01$). As with the Portuguese sample, participants
gave highest rating to "talk to partner" and lowest to "smoke".

For question 6 (Would it help if facilities for different activities, e.g. games, provided in
the office?) there was a significant difference between response means for the six items
($\chi^2=15.63$, df=5, $p<0.01$) for the Portuguese sample. Participants gave the highest rating
to "comfortable chairs" and lowest to "TV or video". For English Participants there was
no significant difference between items.

For question 7 (How could your duties be made less stressful?), there was a significant
difference between means for the three items ($\chi^2=13$, df=2, $p<0.01$) for the Portuguese
sample. Participants gave highest rating to "more calls" and lowest to "reduce extra
activities". For English Participants there was a significant difference between means for
the four items, ($\chi^2=13.50$, df=3, $p<0.01$). Participants gave highest ratings to "talking
about stressful calls" and lowest to "duties aren't stressful".

For question 8 (Which activities help you reduce emotions/stress best?), there was a
significant difference between means for the six items ($\chi^2=11.64$, df=5, $p<0.05$) for
Portuguese sample. Participants gave highest ratings to "talking with partner or friends"
and lowest to "physical exercises". For English participants there was a significant
difference between means for the two items ($\chi^2=6.26$, df = 1, $p < 0.05$). Participants rated
"talking with partner or friends" higher than "watching T.V".
9.4.3 Portuguese and English SH on Duty (Stress and Coping Strategies)

The results of Portuguese and English Nightliners are presented in Table 9.3.

Table 9.3: Stress and Coping strategies on duty

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Aveiro (Portugal)</th>
<th>Hull (UK)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>STD Dev</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are all calls stressful?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Q9A</td>
<td>2.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Q9B</td>
<td>2.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>Q9C</td>
<td>N/I*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which types of calls are most stressful?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manipulative / Hoax</td>
<td>Q10A</td>
<td>2.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suicide</td>
<td>Q10B</td>
<td>3.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masturbation, rape</td>
<td>Q10C</td>
<td>N/I*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inconclusive calls</td>
<td>Q10D</td>
<td>3.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadaptation/trauma</td>
<td>Q10E</td>
<td>2.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How do you cope with stress?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relaxing, listening music, going to cinema</td>
<td>Q11A</td>
<td>3.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do physical exercise</td>
<td>Q11B</td>
<td>1.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sleep</td>
<td>Q11C</td>
<td>2.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Go out with friends; drinking, dancing</td>
<td>Q11D</td>
<td>N/I*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talk with partner or friends</td>
<td>Q11E</td>
<td>N/I*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specific coping strategies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talk with close friends</td>
<td>Q12A</td>
<td>3.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take deep breaths</td>
<td>Q12B</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Try to stay calm and relax</td>
<td>Q12C</td>
<td>N/I*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change to positive thoughts</td>
<td>Q12D</td>
<td>2.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do physical exercise</td>
<td>Q12E</td>
<td>1.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drink or eat</td>
<td>Q12F</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sing</td>
<td>Q12G</td>
<td>2.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What you do after put the phone down?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talk to partner</td>
<td>Q13A</td>
<td>3.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take a deep breath</td>
<td>Q13B</td>
<td>2.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drink/eat/smoke</td>
<td>Q13C</td>
<td>2.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stand up</td>
<td>Q13D</td>
<td>2.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hug or kiss partner</td>
<td>Q13E</td>
<td>2.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* N/I=Not included in this sample

Friedman Tests were used to examine whether there were significant differences in the strength with which participants identified with various responses alternatives.
9.4.4 Portuguese and English SH on Duty (Stress and Coping Strategies)

For question 9 (Are calls stressful?), there was no significant difference between the two items for Portuguese participants. For English participants there was a significant difference between means for the three items ($\chi^2 = 7.90$, df = 2, $p < .05$). Participants gave highest ratings to “fairly demanding”.

For question 10 (Which types of call do you find more stressful?), there was a significant difference between means for the four items ($\chi^2 = 13.96$, df = 3, $p < .01$) for Portuguese sample. Participants gave higher ratings to “suicide calls” and lowest for “Manipulative/hoax” and “Inadaptation/transition” calls. For English Participants there was no significant difference between items.

For question 11 (How in general do you cope with stress?), there was a significant difference between means for the three items ($\chi^2 = 12.71$, df = 2, $p < .01$) for the Portuguese sample. Participants gave highest ratings to “relaxing, listening to music”, “going to the cinema” and lowest to “do physical exercise”. For English participants there was a highly significant difference between means for the four items ($\chi^2 = 21.9$, df = 3, $p < .0001$). Participants gave highest ratings to “talking with partner or friends” and lowest to “do physical exercise”.

For question 12 (Do you adopt any particular behaviour or practical strategies for coping with stress?), there was a significant difference between means for the six items.
For question 13 (What do you usually do immediately after you put the phone down?), there was a significant difference between means for the five items ($\chi^2=20.52$, $df=4$, $p<0.001$) for the Portuguese sample. Participants gave highest ratings to “talk to duty partner” and lowest to “hug or kiss partner”. For English participants there was a significant difference between means for the three items ($\chi^2=7.72$, $df=2$, $p<0.05$). Participants gave highest ratings to “talk to partner” and lowest to “Drink, Eat, Smoke”.

### 9.4.5 Comparison Between Portuguese and English Answers on Duty

Mann-Whitney U-Tests were used to examine the differences between the responses of Portuguese and English Nightliners. The following differences were significant.

For question 2.1.B (emotions/feelings experienced while they are waiting for the call), there was a highly significant difference between the answers given by Portuguese and English nightliners ($U=85.0$, $p<0.0001$). As can be seen in Table 9.1, Portuguese Nightliners rated higher than English Nightliners on hope and confidence while they are waiting for the calls.

For question 2.2.A (emotions/feelings experienced during the call), there was a highly significant difference between the answers given by Portuguese and English nightliners
(U=183.0, p<.001). English Nightliners rated more highly "intense concentration during the call" than Portuguese Nightliners.

For question 2.2.B (emotions/feelings experienced during the call), there was a significant difference between the answers given by Portuguese and English nightliners (U=191.5, p<.01). Portuguese participants rated "anxious tense during the call" more highly than the English participants.

For question 2.3.B (emotions/feelings experienced after the call), there was a highly significant difference between the answers given by Portuguese and English nightliners (U=169.0, p<.001). English Nightliners rated "worried/disappointed after the call" higher than Portuguese Nightliners.

For question 3.A (emotions at the end of the duty), there was a significant difference between the answers given by Portuguese and English nightliners (U=210.5, p<.01). English Nightliners rated "relieved, relaxed" more highly than Portuguese Nightliners.

For question 5.2. (activities made during the call), there was a significant difference between the answers given by Portuguese and English Nightliners (U=198.5, p<.01). As can be seen from Table 9.2, English Nightliners rated "not doing activities during the call" higher than Portuguese Nightliners.

For question 5.3.B. (activities made after the call), there was a significant difference between the answers given by Portuguese and English Nightliners (U=201.0, p<.01).
English Nightliners rated “drinking tea or coffee after the call” higher than Portuguese Nightliners.

For question 13.A (Talk with partner), there was a significant difference between the answers given by Portuguese and English Nightliners (U=252.5, p<.05). English Nightliners rated “talk to duty partner” higher than Portuguese Nightliners.

For question 13.C (Have a drink and/or a cigarette after put the phone down), there was a significant difference between answers given by Portuguese and English Nightliners (U=236.5, p<.05). English Nightliners rated having a drink and/or a cigarette immediately after putting the phone down higher than Portuguese Nightliners.

9.4.6 Comparison Between Nightliners on Duty by Gender

Mann Whitney U Tests were used to examine gender differences in responses to each questionnaire item.

For question 2.2. (anxious, tense as emotions/feelings experienced during the call) there was a significant difference, U=177.5, p<.05, with the ratings of males (mean= 3.13, SD=.64) higher than those of females (mean=2.55, SD=.89).

For question 3.A (feeling relieved, relaxed at the end of duty), there was a significant difference, U=191.0, p<.05, with the ratings of females (mean=2.71 SD=.93) higher than those of males (mean=2.20 SD=.77).
For question 5.2.B (sometimes doodle or write, as activity made during the call), there was a significant difference, $U=181.5, p<.05$, with the ratings of males (mean=2.60 SD=.91), higher than those of females (mean=2.03 SD=.79).

For question 5.3.C (smoking, as activity after the call), there was a significant difference, $U=187.5, p<.05$, with the ratings of females (mean=2.39 SD=.1.33), higher than those of males (mean=1.60 SD=.91).

For question 13.B (take a deep breath after having put the phone down), there was a significant difference, $U=134.5, p<.01$, with the ratings of females (mean=3.21 SD=.83), higher than those of males (mean=2.33 SD=.52).

There were no significant gender differences to any other item.

9.5 Results- An Overall Evaluation of LUA: Second Semester

9.5.1 Introduction

Without assessment it is difficult to know about the efficacy of results (Witkin & Altschuld, 1995), and this consequently makes it more difficult to implement positive changes. The third questionnaire was developed in order to obtain general feedback about the LUA service, and dealt with all aspects, including: number and qualities of shifts made, general evaluation of emotions/feelings, activities, and coping strategies on duty. Particular emphasis was placed on the structure, functioning and “housekeeping” of LUA, and also on information related to the importance of being a peer helper and subsequent implications for personal development.
9.5.2 Overall Evaluation of LUA

Out of 38 questionnaires 16 were missing as helpers forgot to return them. A content analysis (Krippendorf, 1980; Edwards & Potter, 1992; Silverman, 1993) was carried out on responses to items. On the basis of this analysis, responses were allocated to one of a number of categories. The results of the content analysis were treated in the same way as for the previous questionnaires. Chi-Square tests were used to examine whether there were significant differences in responses to categories.

During the course of the project, the mean number of shifts worked was 8.09 (SD= 4.71), the mean number of group support duties was 10.14 (SD= 8.53), and the mean number of calls received was 3.14 (SD= 2.36).

For question S.1.2 (Was your duty partner good company?) all participants answered "yes".

Table 9.4: Type of calls (more difficult)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of calls (more difficult)</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not difficult</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hoax</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inconclusive</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For question S.2.1 (more difficult call types), there was no significant difference between responses to this item ($\chi^2=2, p=.058$). However there was some indication that the most frequent response category tended to be "not difficult" (see Table 9.4).
Table 9.5: After the phone is put down

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>After the phone is put down</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Talk</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deep breath</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drink / eat</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Think and analyse</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For question S.2.2 there was a significant difference between the four response categories in this item ($\chi^2=11.33$, df=3, $p<.01$). As can be seen from Table 9.5, the greatest number of people selected category (talk to duty partner), slightly fewer selected category 4 (think and analyse the call/do not sleep) and the lowest selected were category 2 and 3 (take a deep breath and drink/eat /and have a cigarette).

For questions S.3.1 and S.3.2 there was no significant difference between the number of people selecting the two response alternatives: “Anxious” and “Confident” (2 people did not respond to S.3.1 and 1 to S.3.2).

For question S.3.4.A (Activities on duty: Eat / Drink), there was a significant difference between those answering “yes” and “no” ($\chi^2=6.54$, df=1, $p<.01$). Out of the 22 participants, eleven responded “no” while only five responded “yes” for drinking and eating on duty.

For question S.3.4.B (Activities on duty: Talk), there was a highly significant difference between those answering “yes” and “no” ($\chi^2=18.18$, df=1, $p<.0001$). Out of the 22 participants, twenty one responded “yes” while only one responded “no”.

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For question S.3.4.C (Activities on duty: Music + TV), there was a significant difference between those answering "yes" and "no" ($\chi^2 = 6.54$, df = 1, $p < .01$). Out of 22 participants, seventeen responded "yes" while only five responded "no".

For questions S.3.4.D (Activities on duty: Play games), S.3.4.E (Study), S.3.5.A (Drink and Eat), and S.3.5.B (Talk), there was no significant difference between the categories "yes" and "no". The number of non-respondents to these items was 0, 0, 1, and 1 respectively.

For question S.3.5.C, there was a significant difference between those answering "yes" and "no" ($\chi^2 = 10.71$, df = 1, $p < .01$). Out of the 22 participants, eighteen answered "no" while only three answered "yes" for "study on duty".

For question S.3.6 (Do you consider duties stressful?), there was no significant difference between the number of people responding "yes" and "no". Out of 22 participants, 8 responded "yes" and 10 responded "no".

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 9.6: Factors making duty difficult</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factors making duty difficult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noise (from outside)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not have calls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Office bad condition (heating...)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For question 3.7 (Factors making duty difficult), there was no significant difference in the response frequency with which alternatives were selected (see Table 9.6).
For question 3.8 (Activities on duty: Study), there was no significant difference between the number of people responding “yes” and “no”.

For question S.4.1, 20 participants answered “yes”, they “considered that LUA should continue. There were 2 non respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Changes</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More relation</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Publicity</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>18</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For question S.4.2, there was a significant difference between three categories for this item ($\chi^2=9.00$, df=2, $p<.05$), the greatest number people selected “Accommodation” (see Table 9.7).

For question S.4.3 (“do you agree that LUA must close if new accommodation is not forthcoming?”), there was a significant difference between whose answered “yes” and those who answered “no” ($\chi^2=9.80$, df=1, $p<.01$). Out of 20 subjects seventeen answered “no” while only three answered “yes”.

For question S.5.1 (“Did LUA contribute for your own development growth as person?”), 21 of the 22 participants answered “yes”.

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Table 9.8: Positive aspects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive aspects</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Better capacity of listening</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociability</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-knowledgement</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerance</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For question S.5.2 (Positive aspects), there was no significant difference between categories of this item (see Table 9.8).

For question S.5.3 ("Did the LUA experience help you to understand and to cope better with your feelings?"), there was a highly significant difference between those answering "yes" and "no" ($\chi^2=14.73$, df=1, $p<0.0001$). Out of 22 participants, twenty answered "yes" while only two answered "no".

For question S.5.4, there was a highly significant difference between those answering "yes" and "no" $\chi^2=14.73$, df=1, $p<0.0001$, out of 22 subjects twenty answered "yes" while only two answered "no" for the question "Did the LUA experience help you to understand and to cope with the difficult and stressful situation".

9.5.3 ‘Duty: Feedback’ Questionnaire and the ‘Overall Evaluation of LUA’

Questionnaire

A comparison was made between common points expressed by students on the Duty: Feedback Questionnaire (LUA) and the Overall Evaluation of LUA Questionnaire. The results of the qualitative analysis are presented below:
From the *Duty: Feedback Questionnaire*, for question Q.1.A. (What type of emotions/feelings do you usually experience when you arrive at Nightline?), they rated as highest ‘Apprehensive/confident’ (m=2.69), followed by nervous/anxious (m=2.54). For the *Overall Evaluation of LUA questionnaire* (S.3.1), anxiousness and confidence were rated very similarly (frequency of response was 60% for anxious, and 40% for confidence).

For question Q 2.1.A and B (What type of emotions/feelings do you experience while you are waiting for the call), of the *Duty: Feedback questionnaire*, participants gave highest ratings to on “expectant and hopeful” (m= 2.81), followed by “nervous/anxious” (m=2.27). For the *Overall Evaluation of LUA questionnaire*, they rated “confident” (53%) more highly than “anxious” (47%).

For question Q.3.B (types of emotions experienced at the end of the duty) on the *Duty: Feedback Questionnaire*, participants rated “tired” as highest (m= 2.42) followed by “relaxed” (m= 2.23). For *Overall Evaluation of LUA questionnaire* (S.3.3), 64% of the participants reported feeling “relieved” and 23% reported feeling “empty”.

For question Q 5.1 A (what activities do you do usually do when you are waiting for the calls?) on the *Duty: Feedback questionnaire*, participants rated “drink coffee and tea” as highest (m=3.50). For the *Overall Evaluation of LUA questionnaire* (S.3.4.), 77% of participants reported “drinking and eating”, suggesting that drinking coffee or tea and eating is very usual before calls.
For question Q.8. (which activities help you to reduce emotions/stress best?) on the Duty: Feedback questionnaire, participants rated "to talk with the partner or friends" as highest (mean = 3.35). For the Overall Evaluation of LUA questionnaire (S.3.5 B.), 45% of trainees answered "Yes" to "talk with partner or friends".

For the question Q.9 (Are calls stressful?) on the Duty: Feedback questionnaire, participant rated them as "fairly demanding" (m = 2.85). For the Overall Evaluation of LUA questionnaire (S.2.1.), 50% of trainees responded "not difficult".

For the question Q.10. (Which type of calls did you find more stressful?) on the Duty: Feedback questionnaire, participants rated "suicide problems" as highest (m = 3.46) followed by "hoax calls" (m = 2.77). For the Overall Evaluation of LUA questionnaire (S.2.1.), 18% of trainees said "hoax calls" were most difficult, 18% said inconclusive calls were most difficult, and 14% said that calls concerning sexual issues were most difficult. It is probable that individual nightliners find it easier to cope with certain calls.

For the question Q.13.A (What do you usually do immediately after you put the phone down?) on the Duty: Feedback questionnaire, the answer highest "Talk with partner" rated was (m = 3.27). Similarly the same answer, was the most frequent response (41%) for the Overall Evaluation of LUA (S.2.2). It would seem that talking with partner continues to be important for people.

Results: summary. Even when using different questionnaires the results are broadly similar.
9.6 Portuguese Nightline on Duty: Focus Group (Second Semester)

During the Second Semester, similar structures of support were put in place as for the first semester. The result of the focus groups, concerning emotions/feelings, activities, and stress and coping on duty, were very similar to the first semester. In addition, the opinion expressed by student helpers was that they would like “to have more calls”. The data are concordant with that obtained (Q.3 C.) for Portuguese nightliners when they rated “would like to have more calls” higher than be relieved and more relaxed at the end of their duty ($\chi^2 = 11.61$, df=2, $p<.01$).

The group also expressed the opinion that some complementary activities, such as the weekly meetings and other tasks e.g. buying “food provisions”, or taking care of the financial accounts” contributed to their “extremely busy schedule”, and was a possible motive for LUA becoming stressful work. However, they also felt that they would like “more trips out” and “social activities” to facilitate them getting to know all another group and cohesion.

The group suggested that more administrative and professional support could help the student helpers to have less responsibility and, consequently, less stress.

9.7 Discussion

The pilot study was conducted because of the notable lack of previous studies in this area. One advantage of a questionnaire with open questions is that it is possible to
collected large quantities of wide ranging information (Krippendorf; 1980; Silverman, 1993).

Examining the concordance between the content analysis of different researchers was one way to demonstrate reliability in this instance. However, for future situations, the possibility of using software support should be considered (Weitzman & Miles, 1995; Coffey & Atkinson, 1996).

The distribution of questionnaires to the English sample was via mail, and as a consequence the response rate was lower. English participants returned fewer questionnaires than the Portuguese participants.

9.7.1 On Duty

In general the results provided an indication that the emotions, activities and coping strategies on duty were similar for both Portuguese and English Nightliners. However, there were some differences.

Concerning emotions/feelings, the Portuguese sample “hope and confidence”, while waiting for the calls, rated higher than English helpers. This was also supported by comparative studies with other instruments (Overall Evaluation of LUA Questionnaire), and sentiment expressed by the Portuguese focus group that they would like to have received more calls during the second semester. Intense concentration and anxiousness (Strongman, 1987) during calls were noted for both Portuguese and English students. This suggests that to help others (as a befriending service) is a demanding and stressful
situation (Murgatroyd, 1985; Sanders, 1993, 1994; Rosenfield, 1997). Also, the Portuguese sample rated “anxiousness/nervousness” during calls higher than the English sample. This result could be related to the lack of experience of the Portuguese helpers as well as the ‘pressure ‘and responsibility perceived by them, due to being involved in a pioneer project. The Hawthorne effect (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939) could be involved such as helper were being observed and evaluated and this could have some bearing on the results. Both samples, expressed relief and relaxation at the end of their duty. The Portuguese sample, however, rated “wanting more calls” higher than they had “been relieved”.

Concerning the gender of Nightliners, males rated “anxiousness” during calls higher than females. Consequently, females rated “feeling more relieved and relaxed at the end of duty” higher than males.

With respect to activities on duty, while helpers were waiting for, and after the call, “talk with partner” was rated highest by both Portuguese and English nightliners. This result supports Murgatroyd (1995) hypothesis that relationships, or social support has a buffer effect to protect against stress, and this could indicate the necessity of knowing the duty partner well. This second assumption was confirmed by other items (Q7 and Q8) where participants gave “to know partner and friends” high ratings in relation to recover stress. A small detail, referred to by Portuguese students was that a comfortable chair would be one facility that could help the service. The provisional nature of conditions in the office, can explain this factor.
On duty, the English sample rated “drinking tea or coffee” higher than Portuguese. An explanation of this result could be offered by the cultural stereotype of “the famous English tea”. However it is also possible that this is influenced by the climatic conditions (more cold weather), that might create the necessity to have more hot drinks.

With respect to gender differences in activities, males rated “doodling or writing during calls” higher than females. One explanation could relate to males rating themselves more anxious and nervous during calls than females. “Doodling or writing” could help them to reduce anxiety and stress. Authors such as Lazarus & Folkman (1984) suggest that activities such as exercises could be a good coping strategy in stressful situations.

However, in order to cope with stress, both Portuguese and English students rated “talking with their partner” as the most frequent strategy after putting the phone down. Also, “speak with partner or friends” was rated higher than doing physical exercise, as a way of coping in general. The results of this study, therefore, suggest that physical exercise is not a perfect strategy. The Portuguese results specifically show that they even preferred listening to music or going to the cinema.

There was no significant difference in the reported level of difficulty of manipulative, suicide and masturbation call for the English sample. However, as there were no reported suicide calls by clients, these results should be interpreted with some caution and students were clearly worried about the possibility of such calls. The Portuguese helpers considered the prospect of suicide calls to be the most difficult, followed by manipulative calls. This is supported by information obtained from the focus groups who
considered manipulative calls as one of the most difficult along with the fear of having suicide calls. For trainees, learning how to cope with suicide calls was the most difficult part of training.

Regarding coping strategies, females rated “take a deep breath” after putting the phone down higher than males. As males were more nervous on the phone as mentioned above, “take a deep breath” could be suggested as a good strategy for coping with stress on duty.

9.7.2 Overall Evaluation of LUA Questionnaire

The number of calls received by each participant (m=3.24) was relatively low, as also indicated by the wish of students expressed on the previous questionnaire for more calls.

The results relating to emotions/feelings, activities and coping strategies were similar to those from the two previous questionnaires. Particular interest was expressed by a few Portuguese helpers in studying while on duty. The failure of students at University in Portugal has been characterised as a “national scandal”, and has led to an ‘overdose’ of academic work by students. This situation has created the need to study more even during night shifts.

It was amazing to see that all participants considered that even with limited/provisional accommodation the service should continue. They did, however, suggest changes in respect to accommodation, in order to improve the quality of service.
Concerning focus group results, as stated above, the group suggested that more administrative and professional support may reduce stress. The “lack of adequate support” has been referred to as a factor that may “undermine morale, increase caseloads and involve helpers in routine secretarial and administrative chores” (Nelson-Jones, 1993, p.92).

All Student Helpers considered that LUA contributed to their own personal development growth. 20 (out of 22) students said that LUA had contributed to their understanding and coping better with their own feelings and difficult situations.

9.8 Limitations

As a result of the open-ended pilot-study, it was possible to develop a very high structure for the second questionnaire. This proved useful in that it gave a wide range of information. However, as a consequence of the large amount of data, some found complex statistical analysis.

Fatigue of participants (due to working all night), the Hawthorne effect, and not having a control group were factors that could suggest reading these results with certain precautions.

9.9 Research Directions

This study is still at an early stage of development. Future research needs to be undertaken. Further exploration of the ideas and results obtained in terms of the three
areas developed above (emotions/feelings; activities; and coping strategies on duty) would be useful, and instruments for evaluation of behaviours on duty could be refined.

Further research into the needs of students helpers should consider additional ways of evaluating which types of calls are perceived as more stressful. One way of evaluating such stress might be to give students a diary or a minicomputer where they could collect all information about the incidents encountered. Some advantages of this process can be found in similar studies developed by Perrez & Reicherts (1992).

9.10 Conclusion

An open-ended questionnaire (Duty: Pilot Questionnaire) provided one way of obtaining a large quantity of information on emotions/feelings, activities and coping strategies during Nightliners' duties. Emotions/feelings experienced by Students Helpers, as well as activities and coping strategies were similar in both Portuguese and English Nightliners.

The focus in this chapter was to study the needs of helpers on duty. For Portuguese Nightliners, helping their peers seemed to be a positive vehicle for their personal development and growth. This is an important point, and one that should not be forgotten.
10. The Needs of Student Clients

10.1 Introduction

Material presented thus far indicates that the transitions to University a difficult period for most students and their personal problems are exacerbated by the demands of their courses, financial problems and the lack of pastoral support. The situation has become more acute in recent years with the rapid expansion of student number without compensatory increases in resources which have served to further depersonalise the students place within the education system.

This study aims to provide more detailed analysis on the types of problems encountered by students, using the Portuguese Nightline-LUA.

The principal research questions are:

- What are the principal types of problems at University?
- Are there any significant differences between gender and type of problems?
- Which days and hours do students seek more help?
- Are there any significant differences between the amount of calls between Semesters I and II?
10.2 Method

10.2.1 Procedure

Data was concerned with the nature of calls received from Students' Clients between November 1994 and July 1995. (Students’ Helpers are on duty every night, between 8 p.m. until 8 a.m. during the academic time, including weekends).

10.2.2 Measures

Students helpers made a record using a log book and a checklist (see Appendix C: Students’ Clients) of the type of calls, received during the night. On the checklist of different categories of problems the student helpers noted the principal characteristics of each call: gender; time of call; call duration; week, day, month, semester and call type. They could also add in the ‘Observations’ column a summary of the most relevant points of the call. The type of call was classified on one of two different classifications: one, based on the type of call, and another based on taxonomy of students needs.

Data was analysed using a Chi Square Test.

10.2.3 Participants

The student clients involved in this study were students from the University of Aveiro and others in Higher Education at Aveiro town, who could phone LUA and asked for help.
10.3 Results

A total of 158 calls were received. For 39 calls, there was doubt as to the sex of the caller (including silent calls) and the gender was as recorded as “unknown”. Of the remainder, 65 calls were made by males, and 54 by females. So approximately equal number of males and females used the service.

There was no significant difference between the frequencies of calls for Semester I (85) and Semester II (73), $\chi^2 = .91$, df= 1, n.s.

With respect to month there is a significant effect of month on call frequency $\chi^2 = 49.34$, df=8, p<.001. This appeared to be because the frequency of calls in November, December and March (37, 27 and 26 respectively) was greater than expected (17.5 cases).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Month</th>
<th>Cases observed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>November</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>December</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>January</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>February</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There was a significant effect of weekday, $\chi^2 = 17.97$, df=6, p<.01. Most calls are on Tuesday (38 cases observed in comparison with 22.5 expected) and few on Thursday and on Sunday (16 and 13 respectively).
Table 10.2: Calls by Weekday

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Weekday</th>
<th>Cases observed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Monday</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuesday</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wednesday</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thursday</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friday</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturday</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sunday</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Frequency of call, was categorised into three time periods: the first period included calls received between 8 p.m. until mid-night; the second, included calls received from midnight until 4 a.m.; the third included calls received from 4 a.m. until the duty finished 8 a.m. (although sometimes calls extended beyond this time). There was a highly significant difference between these periods ($\chi^2 = 35.59$, df=2, p<.0001), with most calls occurring between midnight and four in the morning (76) and between 8 p.m. and midnight (64). During the last period on duty, fewer cases occurred (18). The expected frequencies for these three periods of time are 52.6.

Duration of call was categorised into four lengths: first, between 1 and 5 minutes, second between 6 and 10 minutes; third between 11 and 30 minutes and fourth, more than 30 minutes. There was a highly significant difference between durations categories ($\chi^2 = 158.51$, df=3, p<.0001), with most calls being less than 5 minutes.

Table 10.3: Calls by Duration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>Cases observed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1- 5 minutes</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 minutes</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-30 minutes</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 30 minutes</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
10.3.1 Categories of Calls Received

They are various motives for students to phone. When a student phoned, frequently they did not bring only one isolated case/problem; problems were embedded in others. For example, if a student phoned because of loneliness, after some minutes of conversation it was possible to identify other problems, for example with a relationship break-down, or that s/he failed on their last examination, etc. Due to these multifaceted dimensions, it was very difficult to discriminate problems, and select and record the principal, central problem. This task however was helped through dialogue with their supervisor and the comparative judgement of another, independent, psychologist.

The difficulty in classifying the types of calls received was increased when a more discriminatory classification was utilised, such as the taxonomy of needs. However, the results showed that was worth the effort.

10.3.2 Type of Call (Basic Classification)

Based on the review of students’ problems (chapter 3) as a review of the literature, a basic structure for the classification of calls was constructed. For every call received, a dominant theme was extracted, and each call classified only once. Categories of calls were: Factual Enquiry; Academic Problem; Personal Problem; Sexual Problem; Loneliness; Hoax Call; Silent Call; or Other.

- Factual Enquiry included calls related to opening times, for University facilities and railway timetables, information such as frequency of service and aims of LUA etc.
- Academic Problems related to examinations, staff, lectures, failure and so on.
• Personal Problems including problems related to "self" and interaction with others, such as self-concept, shyness.

• Due to their particular characteristics Loneliness and Sexual Problems were separated from Personal Problems.

• Hoax calls were related to manipulative calls, false calls, such as "Are you from the moon? I am from Mars".

• Silent Calls included those calls where the telephone rings and nobody speaks.

The Others category included problems with familiar, grief, bereavement or specific problems not covered by earlier categories.

There was a highly significant difference between call categories \( \chi^2 = 26.00, \) \( df=7, \) \( p<.001 \), with most calls being concerned with "Personal Problems" and fewer relating to Loneliness, or being categorised as "Others" (see Figure 10.1). Included in the "Personal Problems" category are calls relating to, for example, self-esteem, self-concept, emotional problems and concerning relationships with the opposite sex.

There was also a significant interaction between type of call and gender, \( \chi^2 = 9.4, \) \( df=4, \) \( p<.05 \). This appeared to be due to males making more calls relating to sexual problems (16) than females (1). The expected frequencies are 7.2 and 5.8 respectively.
10.3.3 *Type of Call According to a New Taxonomy of Students Needs*

The present research identified some problems and hazards of student life. Likewise, students' needs were considered. As a consequence a taxonomy of needs was created (see chapter 4). However a taxonomy is only of interest if it is useful. One possibility for recognising the utility and validity of this taxonomy is to use it with the needs/problems of students that telephone the LUA service.

One problem in using the taxonomy was that each call could appear as more than one type. The reason, for this were based not only on the multifaceted aspects of problems, but also the dynamicity and different levels of action (short and long term plans). Detailed information about calls was obtained from “notes” described by students.
The taxonomy of students' needs is constituted in two sections which emphasise the “self” in (i) interindividual and (ii) intrapersonal sections. The first section is subdivided into individual and academic life dimensions. The second in personal and academic life dimensions. All these four dimensions were then considered either short or long term actions (varying according to the level of the need/problem).

The outcome of using the taxonomy of students needs (previously described in chapter 4) are presented below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inter-individual</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>individual life</td>
<td>short term plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>academic life</td>
<td>short term plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>long term plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>academic life</td>
<td>long term plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intra-personal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>personal life</td>
<td>short term plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>long term plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>academic life</td>
<td>short term plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>long term plan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hoax calls (11.4%) and silent calls (19%) were excluded from this analysis, leaving 110 calls (69.6% of the total).

A Friedman test was used to examine the frequency with which different call types were received. There was a significant effect of category ($\chi^2 = 87.26$, df=7, $p<.0001$) with the most frequent call type being “Intrapersonal, personal life, short term action plan” (see Figure 10.2), with 69 calls of this type being received, and the least frequent being “Intrapersonal, academic life, long term action plan”, with 0 calls (see Table 10.4).
A Wilcoxon test was used to examine the difference in the frequencies with which reported problems were focused on short term plans and long term plans were reported. There was a highly significant difference ($Z=-5.77$, $p<.0001$) with the number of problems reported requiring short term action plan, being more frequent (146 vs 68).

10.4 Discussion

The telephone is a public facility and anyone could phone the service, student or not, and also from different towns. It was not possible to have control over this.
The frequency and type of call are to be similar in frequency of calls to those received by English Nightlines (Nightline Coordinator, 1995. Teamworking Hull: University of Hull, June, Issue 7, 4-5).

The first semester is a difficult period for students, and especially for freshers who have not yet found a new effective support group. It is also one of the periods of most drop-outs (The Times Higher, January 27, 1995; Moore, 1995, Sheffield Hallam University Final Report, 1993; The Guardian Saturday, 20 August 1994; The TES, 19 August 1994; Welb & Roberts 1980 Rickinson & Rutherford, 1995, 1996). At the beginning of a new academic year, new life, new environment, new curriculum and so on, students are put under particular pressure. However, it is interesting that call frequency was similar for both Semesters, indicating the importance of this type of support facility throughout the academic year. Another explanation could be due to the “vogue Phenomenon”. The LUA service was opened in November and there had been nothing like it before so the project could have been a motive for curiosity.

Concerning months: Calls were more frequent in the months coinciding with the beginning of semester, a period within which the adaptation and change process happens. Problems such as homesickness and loneliness are more frequent in this period (Perlman & Perlau 1984; Fisher, 1989; 1994).

Concerning Weekdays: These results could be explained by the effect of the weekend. The average Portuguese student goes home at the weekend. They return normally Sunday night or Monday morning, which are days when they talk about their news of the
weekend with colleagues. Suddenly, after the euphoria of safety and relaxation, the work, the student life begin again. On Sunday and Monday, students are still high with news of the weekend. On Tuesday, they get down and maybe feel insecure. Similarly, it could be argued that Monday is a stressful day for students however, because it is the first day back and they are fresh they can cope. Some studies (Thompson et al. 1992) about Acute Myocardial infarction with day of week reported a big occurrence of heart attacks in West Germany and Western Europe on Mondays and Saturdays which are days that people adjust to a new stage such as leisure or work. A heart attack could be induced by the stress of returning to work (Thompson et al. 1992).

Concerning time of frequency of calls: The first peak could be explained by the circumstances when students arrive at home and face their own privacy. The second moment, the phenomenon of “break down” is typical of people who have insomnia. Circadian rhythms may be a factor (Empson, 1993). Another explanation could be at the time when students usually come back home after leaving a disc or a pub (Portuguese time!).

10.4.1 Discussion: Basic Classification of Calls

Although there were no significant statistical differences for categories of calls, findings are worthy of note.

The most frequent category of call was personal problems. This result is concordant with ideas developed by authors (Baltes et al., 1980; Arkoff & Jurik, 1993; Sugarman, 1986) that considered problems and topics from young adulthood as being related to
developmental growth. These processes are considered very important for a person to pass through to become ultimately a balanced adult. This findings also confirmed the ideas expressed in this present research about the necessity to help and support students in order to promote their own personal development/growth. Sexual problems, were very demanding of the helper because of the large number of masturbation calls. There were reports by female helpers (during duty) of their difficulties in coping with this type of problem.

Factual Enquiry- As an innovative activity at the University of Aveiro it is to be expected that students would be curious as to what type of support service was provided. Vogue and fashion phenomenon and news effects are clearly relevant. As LUA’s function was probably unclear to many, some treated it as an information service making factual enquiries with respect to timetables, and other university information.

Because of the percentage failure in academic exams/courses, more calls were expected on this topic. More attention was paid to other dimensions of academic life such as how study related to personal issues. Although loneliness has been emphasised by some authors (Fisher & Hood, 1988; Fisher, 1989, 1994), this was not one of the main problems for the Portuguese sample.

Hoax and manipulative calls were also reported by helpers on duty as difficult calls to cope with. Silent and hoax calls are usually very frequent in this type of service (Thompson & Thompson, 1974; Davies, 1983; Sanders, 1993).
Silent calls- There were a large number of “unknown” calls (39). One possible explanation could be that individuals ring only to check if the service works and to see, if there really are students there during the night. Others could be dialling the number by mistake. And for others could be a lack of courage. People making this type of call are possibly checking on the reliability and efficacy of the service, and trying to find out how students’ helpers react. Hoax and silent calls may have been made by students who really needed help- but who were too frightened to take the next step.

The results showed a significant interaction with gender. This may be explained by numbers of calls concerning masturbation made by males. The majority of callers required a female to take part to listen to sexually explicit language whilst the caller was masturbating. This type of problems has been referred to by Sanders (1993), and especially by females helpers (in the focus group) as one of the more difficult calls, sometimes with violent and abusive language.

10.4.2 Discussion: Calls by Taxonomy of Needs

Dilemmas were presented by the crossing-over of categories within individual calls. This issue was solved by conversations with supervisors and the judgement of other psychologists. The findings obtained from the second classification of types of problems (based on taxonomy of needs) were very similar to the first classification. The main problems concern personal and individual life, followed by academic life. Again, the results suggested more attention to the latter problems. Findings are that students’ problems were more focused on “short term” issues. Perhaps they are more
concerned with problem of the present because they are “young”. The future and tomorrow is as yet too far away.

10.5 Limitations

Efficiency of support offered was not studied here. This could be pointed out as a limitation. However, this is one problem that all services that offer help by telephone have in common, not only because of ethical issues like preserving confidentiality, but also the difficulty of working with sensitive topics. Only one study has been published by Gingerich et al. (1988), although all research in this field emphasise the need of this type of evaluation.

10.6 Practical Implications

This study confirms that students do need and appreciate personal support, counselling or peer counselling is necessary to help students.

Universities should perhaps give more attention to students’ personal and individual needs. Training courses on personal development agendas should be considered. The University could also consider developing “learning process focus”, not only on short term actions, but also in long term plans, as this may prevent many students’ problems in the future, to prepare them, and help facilitate their successes. One such course recently introduced in the Psychology Department at the University of Hull is Self Directed Learning.
10.7 Practical Research for the Future

A telephone is a useful research tool as well as a vehicle for helping people. Formal research questions could perhaps be included in the standard format of a call such that before the caller says "good bye" they could be asked if they are willing to answer a couple of simple questions such as:

- "What do you think are the most important student needs"?
- "What do you think the University could do or provide to help you"?

Data obtained in this way could not only be useful information to validate the taxonomy of needs, but could identify better ways of helping students cope and consequently lead happier and successful lives.

Other and useful research would be to evaluate the relative efficiency of support given by telephone compared to other methods of helping. Obviously this would involve difficulties in data collection because of the anonymous nature of Nightline.

10.8 Conclusion

On the basis of calls to LUA it was possible to identify some of the students problems at the University of Aveiro. It is not possible to conclude from these data whether they have more private than academic /personal problems, or are more willing to share more academic but are less willing to discuss more intimate problems with helpers.
11.1 Introduction

A University is a privileged environment with the opportunities it provides for both academic and social learning. But these lessons are learned at a price, in terms of hard work and often personal anguish. For most students University represents the transition between school and the world of work, where not only are academic skills and knowledge acquired but where the student “grows up”. It is often a geographical as well as personal transition, with many UK students coming from other countries to study and the majority of students living away from home for the first time. In Portugal it used to be the case that most students continued to live at home; now the situation is much more like in the UK with a large proportion of students leaving home to attend University.

The contribution of the research is noteworthy in three ways. First, it attempts to reflect the student life and to empirically assess student problems and needs. As a consequence, a taxonomy of needs was created to assist future study. Second, the support needs of students were explored, and the value of peer support by telephone evaluated. Third the parameters of need were placed in the context of “growing up”, with the resultant recognition that personal development should be an item on the University agenda and that structures should be developed to meet these needs.
11.2 The Principal Findings

1) This study showed the principal sources of student stress, based on a literature review and analysing of the content of calls to a student nightline. In order of importance they were: related to personal problems; related with private life; followed by academic problems, loneliness and issues related to gender and sex.

2) Main student needs in relation to self were, on the one hand, inter-individual needs based on knowledge, skills, and problem solving and, on the other interpersonal issues. Student needs are more concerned with immediate coping, than long term plans and actions which are more focused in future behaviour.

3) The taxonomy of needs created through this research could facilitate understanding of student needs. One example was the application of the taxonomy to student-client calls. However, further studies are needed to validate the taxonomy.

4) Students issues can be characterised by the meanings given to and understandings of events. In general, problems are exacerbated by a lack of adequate personal coping mechanisms.

5) One implication of the research is that personal development should be an agenda item in both the structure of University Education, and the University curriculum.
Practical help

6) Peer counselling/support, by telephone is shown to offer a useful and efficient service for personal support.

7) The type of training used to prepare Student Helpers was efficient and successful with respect to the structure of the course and its contents. Further, it would appear that the instruments of evaluation used were appropriate for their purpose.

8) The emotions experienced by Portuguese and English Students Helpers, as well as the activities and coping strategies, on duty were very similar.

9) Portuguese Universities are poorly equipped with student support systems. In this context, LUA was shown to act as an efficient support service that could provide a model for other Universities in Portugal to follow. It is evident that LUA responded to a very particular need.

10) In offering help to other students, volunteers gained enormously from the experience. They acquired not only counselling skills but also an increased awareness of the problems of others and an increased understanding of themselves.

11.3 Positive and Negative Aspects of the Study

The creation of a nightline service as a vehicle for research was successful. Once recruited and trained, not a single volunteer dropped out of the study. There were occasional problems with missing data, which is to be expected in conditions of anxiety,
stress and tiredness, but overall LUA members co-operated fully in the project. This was a new service and a new concept in Portugal, so the number of calls in total was perhaps disappointing, but this was understandable. Had there been more calls, more substantial conclusions would have been possible. However, the service will continue as part of a research programme and the number of callers in the future can be confidently expected to increase, becoming a valuable source of data.

Despite fears of problems with confidentiality and personal autonomy, the programme proceeded without problems. This is just a start, however, a demonstration that sound research on sensitive issues is possible and that meaningful conclusions can be drawn, through a process of co-operative inquiry. The method of content analysis would have been made easier if the software programme had been available on the market sooner, as much was done by hand.

11.4 Practical Applications of the Findings

Professional voices highlight the point that “It is necessary to help and support students” (Earwaker, 1992). In order to fulfil this aim, some suggestions are given below.

11.4.1 Universities in Portugal

This research, especially empirical work developed at Aveiro University, has particularly strong implications for the facilitation of personal development in higher education in Portugal.
Despite studies which have been developed in secondary schools on personal
development, more action seems to be necessary in a University context. In order to
promote the quality of student's life, it is necessary to facilitate personal development to
have success, not only in academic life but also ultimately for their professional life.
Success in life depends as much on maturity as on academic achievement.

Ideas about personal support, are more revolutionary in Portugal than in the U.K. Some
interventions should be made to create forums or to implement actions, to provide an
effective personal support system. This type of support could be a valuable contribution
both in helping students, and in increasing success at university. Tutorial support is non-
existent in Portugal, although the policy has been defended (fighting for reductions in
number of hours of teaching - Journal de Educação 30.5.96). However, one of the
priorities of the newly elected government is to highlight the reduction of the number of
lectures in order to give more space and opportunity for the teachers to give students
tutorial support. Tutorial Support, Personal Supervision and Welfare Schemes, could all
improve the Portuguese student's support structure.

It is obvious that personal development is implicit in all learning processes. However,
the reality is sometimes different (teachers have no time for students or even for
themselves). In this situation, an additional system of support could facilitate and
promote development.

A Counselling service is a priority. However, alternative models, such as workplace
welfare, support via the curriculum, and peer support (nightline, group support and
others) need also to be considered. Despite more recent social and cultural changes, Portugal has always been a society where traditional family values and roles are maintained. Any support service need to be congruent with these customer values.

11.5 Practical Suggestions to Parents and Staff

University staff need to pay attention to their own needs, especially with regard to finding a balance between research, teaching, and administration tasks. Some studies have shown it to be desirable for teachers to make more time for research and less for teaching administration (Fisher, 1994). The biggest cause of staff stress is evaluation and the demands of competition. It seems useful to re-evaluate all these processes.

It is important to inform staff about the importance of their own roles in connection with student, in using strategies to enhance student motivation, specifically aimed at student motivation to learn, to complete their courses, and to be an active student, making the most opportunities, both social and academic, on campus.

Parents play an important role in the educational process. To take “care” of the whole person has been an essential duty attributed to church and family. In English terms, this means use of “pastoral care”, with an emphasis on personal development, rather than the “intellectual side”. In the U.K., staff use the concept of “Pastoral Care“, which is supposed to take care of students. The reality, however, (due to the increase in number of students) is that this type of support is difficult and increasingly rare.
Practical suggestions could be made for parents such as producing a leaflet to tell them about the principal issues/problems that they should be aware of regarding their children entry to and tasks in higher education. Many parents have only the vaguest idea of what their children do at University!

11.6 Portuguese Students: Agenda for Personal Learning

For Portuguese students, it is important to have a counselling service, and to implement more peer support with a view to developing actions, training or information courses in order to promote personal growth and facilitate understanding of processes of change/transition and subsequent problems.

In order to help and support students some practical suggestions could be made such as: A Student Charter and courses such as an Induction Course at University; Courses on Learning Skills; Courses about Personal Growth; Courses in Life Skills and leaflets giving "students tips". These suggested courses are discussed in more detail below.

Some Universities already have a Student Charter which may improve the relationship between students, employees and the local community. Its aim is to provide information, services, help and support. The type of Charter chosen must be decided by Senate and Council of the University, and the University Student’s Union, and should refer to some of the responsibilities attributed to all of those involved at university. The content should be focused on different types of information that students need to know, such as registration, academic programming, assessment methods, student support services;
central administrative services, different types of help for different occasions, problems such as personal, financial or academic and information about how to complaint.

11.6.1 Courses

Three different types of courses could be considered. First, An Introductory Course at University during the first week organised by the Rector and Union. The focus would be on freshers (including students from abroad such PALOPs- Países Africanos de Lingua Oficial Portuguesa), and the aims would be to minimise the initial shock and to introduce students to academic life, such as getting to know the university campus, bureaucratic procedures, health services, scholarships, accommodation and academic fellowships. It should also include aspects, such as: study skills; how to take notes and to organise academic life. Also it should include information about the University history, and life in the local city (pubs!). It should provide information about security and psychological support for victims. Abuse by older students, especially during fresher’s week, should also be considered.

Courses on Learning Skills and Stress Management. Such courses would have as an objective to teach students how to study and to control the stress and anxiety caused by examinations in order to improve performance. Contents include what to study; planning, how to revise, testing yourself, lifestyle during examination period; and coping strategies during exams, might usefully be included.

Personal Development Course. Aims would be to emphasise three aspects: first, an introduction to the psychology of personhood (or personal growth) in order to help the
students understand the processes, problems, and pleasures of becoming a person; second, work with students so they are able to answer the following question: "Who Am I?" and the seldomly asked question "Who Am I Becoming?" questions related to "self" such as self-esteem, self image, self-academic concept should be considered; third, to inform students about permanent life changes, and that "we are all caught up in a process of changes" (Arkoff, 1985, 1993).

Specific Course Information everyone, students, and staff, could regarding the art of listening and helping in the university. The contents would essentially emphasise training in counselling skills. Courses on Team Work: in some Universities, peers work successfully in specialised support terms. For example, San Francisco State University introduced SART - Sexual Assault Response Team. (The team consists of experienced professionals in their fields who have also received sexual assault response training and who co-ordinate their expertise to assist victims in an attempt to prevent violent crimes on campus.)

11.6.2 Leaflets

Also leaflet information should be provided, with principal tips and points that students consider important without being a prescription. First, this should include information about how to understand their own development, the process of transition and the changes that they will go through. Second, leaflets should provide information about study skills and preparation for examinations (see an example leaflet in Appendix E: Conclusion). This type of suggestion is made by Race (1992).
11.7 Specific Implications of LUA

LUA (Linha da Universidade Aveiro) could also be translated as "Learning Under Adversity". This could be justified not only because of the types of difficulties and problems that students face (clients and helpers), but also because of the learning processes that students and helpers learn to cope with. The value of LUA as a Peer support/counselling service has been demonstrated in a positive way. LUA provided a support system during the night, at a time when these students do not have any other sort of support, and need someone to talk to. Who will listen to them, and who will understand their problems? Further models of intervention based on peer support could be organised, such as, peer group-therapy for more specific problems.

LUA, is one answer for some students. However, it is necessary to be conscious of the needs of others and the necessity of other types of support.

In addition LUA offers the University feedback about principal student problems.

11.7.1 Specific Implications for Students Helpers and Students Clients

Working as a volunteer, and helping other students brought advantages for student helpers development. Though working with sensitive issues, students gathered experience in coping with difficult situations. Also, their social self-concept and self-confidence increased as a result of being useful to someone. Being active in university life also increased their own motivation to study.
The students know that when they need a friend, LUA, as a listening friendly service, will be there to help and support them.

11.8 Specific Recommendations

The University is one of the environments where members undergo continuous changes. Every aspect is cyclic: new faces, new rhythms, new lives. When students finish their course they just leave, and a new cycle is initiated. Because of this, every activity, project, action or innovation must take into account the mobility of their staff.

Besides being extremely grateful to the staff members, it is very exhausting and "depressing" for organisers to repeat the same efforts and the same actions every year. Anybody who works with volunteer student services, must be aware of this and also to have some built in support and (counselling type) supervision. Thus support for the helper must be always considered essential.

It is also important to be aware about the motivation for working on Nightline services. When innovative things appear, they tend to have a lot of success. But steps need to be taken to ensure the continued motivation and enthusiasm of volunteers. Particular attention should be given to ongoing training.

11.9 Conclusion

Working with university students and involving them as co-researchers and participants, has been shown to be a positive challenge and a productive research strategy. This was
not only because of the quality and quantity of information obtained, but also due to the fact that it is possible to learn from and with students, and because of the "personal growth" of all members involved is this project.

As a result of the research it was possible to construct a taxonomy that could be used as the basis for identifying needs and formulating plans for helping students.

The fact that the service was used and that some clients made repeat calls is evidence of a need being fulfilled. The primary aim was to provide such a service for students, and to show that it could be instituted in an environment where such provision is novel was met.

With respect to how Student Helpers cope with the stresses of duty, the support of colleagues was particularly important, although it was felt that the retraining provided would 'inoculate against stress'

An outcome which was perhaps unexpected but nevertheless rewarding was that student volunteers on LUA gained at least as much as those they sought to help. The personal growth demonstrated over the year was tremendous and just reward for their efforts.

The overall conclusion is straightforward.

The needs of helpers and those they help are essentially the same! Both are persons learning to cope with the trials and tribulations of the world to seek their own personal success and happiness.


Association for Student Counselling. *The Role of the Counsellor*. Rugby: British Association for Counselling.


British Association for Counselling - BAC, (1993). *Code of Ethics and Practice for Trainers in Counselling and in Counselling Skills.* Rugby: BAC.


Dabney, J. (1994). Is it such an easy life?: The experiences of students that have led to feelings of either annoyance, frustration, upset or anger. In *Psychology Postgraduate Affairs Group -Annual Conference*. The University of Sheffield, 7-8 July.


Fletcher, E. (1994). Using telephone groups to train volunteer counsellors in a self-help setting. Dissertation for MSc in Counselling (Supervision and Training), University of Bristol.


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Vocational A Levels hit by dropouts (1996, 30 August). *The Times Higher Education Supplement*.


Appendix A: Training

A.1. Timetable of Basic Training

A.2. Outline of Basic Training

A.3. Tables of Training

A.4. Questionnaire – English Version

Nightline Questionnaire - Linha da Universidade de Aveiro (LUA)

Training Evaluation Questionnaire - LUA

Checklist of Counselling Skills

Course Requisites (Assessment Questionnaire)

A.5. Questionnaire – Portuguese Version

Questionário - Linha da Universidade de Aveiro (LUA) nocturna

Questionário de avaliação do curso de formação LUA

Lista de Aptidões de Aconselhamento

Requisitos para a selecção no curso (Questionário de Avaliação)
# Timetable of Basic Training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Wednesday</th>
<th>Thursday</th>
<th>Friday</th>
<th>Saturday</th>
<th>Sunday</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9 am</td>
<td>10 am</td>
<td>11 am</td>
<td>2 pm</td>
<td>3 pm</td>
<td>Break</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 am</td>
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<td></td>
<td>4 pm</td>
<td>5 pm</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>11 am</td>
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<td></td>
<td>6 pm</td>
<td>7 pm</td>
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<tr>
<td>12 noon</td>
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<td></td>
<td>8 pm</td>
<td>9 pm</td>
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<tr>
<td>1 pm</td>
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<td></td>
<td>10 pm</td>
<td>11 pm</td>
<td>Lunch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 pm</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>12 pm</td>
<td>1 am</td>
<td>Break</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 pm</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 pm</td>
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<tr>
<td>5 pm</td>
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<tr>
<td>6 pm</td>
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<td></td>
<td>4 pm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 pm</td>
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<td></td>
<td>5 pm</td>
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<tr>
<td>8 pm</td>
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<td>6 pm</td>
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<tr>
<td>9 pm</td>
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<td></td>
<td>7 pm</td>
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<tr>
<td>10 pm</td>
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<td>8 pm</td>
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<tr>
<td>11 pm</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>9 pm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 midnight</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10 pm</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Activities:**
- 9 am - 10:30 am
- 10:45 am - 1 pm
- 1 pm - 2:30 pm
- 2:30 pm - 4 pm
- 4:30 pm - 5:45 pm
- 6 pm - 7:30 pm
- 7:30 - 9 pm
- 9 pm - 11 pm

**Breaks:**
- 2 pm - 4:30 pm
- 10:45 am - 1 pm
- 1 pm - 2:30 pm
- 2:30 pm - 4 pm
- 3:30 pm - 4:30 pm
- 10:30 pm - 11 pm

**Introduction:**
- People and Training
  - 8:30 pm - 11 pm
OUTLINE OF BASIC TRAINING

**Wednesday**

2 pm - 4.30 pm
Open session: providing the public with information about the project, e.g. general aims and methods of operation.

**Friday**

8.30 pm - 11 pm
Introduction session: presentation of trainers and trainees; providing information about schedule, contents of training and objectives of the course; demonstration roleplay made by two invited students from Art and Communication Department; introduction to Basic Counselling Skills.

**Saturday**

9 am - 10.30 am
Counselling skills: Communication – Making and Maintaining Contact and Empathy; including the use of roleplays by trainees.

10.30 - 10.45 am
**Break**

10.45 am - 1 pm
Practical exercise: Personal works. Introducing the "Learning Journal"; discussing the importance of a Support Network for helping the helpers.

1 pm - 2.30 pm
**Lunch time**

2.30 pm - 4 pm
Telephone Counselling Skills: themes to work – Drugs and Alcohol.

4 pm - 4.30 pm
**Break**

4.30 - 5.45 pm
Telephone Counselling Skills: themes of work – Sexual Problems (rape, masturbation, abortion).

5.45 pm - 6 pm
**Break**

6 pm - 7.30 pm
Telephone Counselling Skills: themes of work – AIDS and Gay calls.

7.30 pm - 9 pm
**Dinner**

9 pm - 11 pm
Telephone Counselling Skills: Supporting colleagues. Personal work exercise. Evaluation of activities of day by Focus group.

11 pm
**End of activities**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9 am - 10.30 am</td>
<td>Personal work: Stress Management and Learning of relaxation techniques. Relaxation on Telephone.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.30 - 10.45 am</td>
<td>Break</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.45 am - 1 pm</td>
<td>Assertiveness and Cognitive Control Techniques. Training how to cope with “Silent Calls”, and hoax/manipulative calls.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 pm - 2.30 pm</td>
<td>Lunch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.30 pm - 4 pm</td>
<td>Roleplays about Loneliness and Relational Problems.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 pm - 4.30 pm</td>
<td>Break</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.30 - 5.45 pm</td>
<td>Telephone Counselling Skills: themes to work – Suicide calls.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.45 pm - 6 pm</td>
<td>Break</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 pm - 7 pm</td>
<td>How to cope before, during, and after calls.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 pm - 9 pm</td>
<td>Evaluation of course by focus group. Evaluation of training. Completion of questionnaires.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 pm - 11 pm</td>
<td>General Evaluation of trainees: individual feedback on passing of failing the course.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 pm</td>
<td>End of training</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table A: Overall Evaluation of Coordinator/Trainer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>STD Dev</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q17.1.1</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17.1.2</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17.1.3</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17.1.4</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17.1.5</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17.1.6</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17.1.7</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17.2.1</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17.2.2</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17.2.3</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17.2.4</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17.2.5</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17.2.6</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17.3.1</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17.3.2</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17.3.3</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17.3.4</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17.3.5</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17.3.6</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table B: Correlation Between Individuals on Peer Assessment for Requisites (n=11)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Punctuality</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociability</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active participation</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathetic understanding</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical competence</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledge/accept diversity</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-control</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual progress/growth</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>ns(0.53)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When completing the following questionnaire, please remember that there are no right or wrong answer nor is there any answer you might give which would automatically disqualify you from Nightline, LUA so please answer as honestly and thoroughly as possible.

**Name:**

**Sex:** M/F  
**Age**

**Address:**

**Tel:**

**Course:**

**University/polytechnic**

**Place of born:**

**Parents profession:**

**Did you move to Aveiro in order to study at university?** Yes/No

**Academic achievement last academic year(average grade)**

1. What sort of service (s) do you think Nightline provides?

2. What do you think the basic principles of an organisation like Nightline should be?

3. Why do you want to join Nightline?

4. What qualities do you think are necessary to be a Nightliner?

5. What do you have to offer Nightline?

6. What kind of calls do you think you would find either distressing or difficult to handle?
7. In what ways do you cope with stressful and demanding situations in your own life?

8. How might you react to talking a call from someone whose views radically differed from your own?

9. What do you think are your good qualities; what do you like about yourself?

10. What do you think are your bad qualities; what do you dislike about yourself?

11. Running Nightline, there is a great deal of back-up work involved. How easy would you find it to contribute to these areas?

12. How did you find out about LUA and about this training?

Please bring this questionnaire with you to the first training session, with two passport type photographs.

Adapted by Anabela Pereira (University of Aveiro, Portugal) from Nightline, Hull & Humberside
## TRAINING EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE-LUA

This is anonymous questionnaire. Classify the scale of 1 to 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Very Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Sufficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Mediocre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Bad</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Training course structure was
2. Course dynamics were
3. Amounts of material was
4. The way the course was taught was
5. Theoretical framework was
6. Role play/ exercises were
7. Usefulness of roleplay was
8. Usefulness of other exercise was
9. Cognitive involvement of participants was
10. Personal interaction within group was
11. My personal learning was
12. My personal growth was
13. The timetable/Schedule was
14. The working environment was
15. Training materials (handouts etc.) were

16. About trainers
   16.1 Personal style of the trainer was
   16.2 The relationship between trainers and trainees were
   16.3 The teaching skills of the trainer was
   16.4 The work of invited trainer one was
   16.5 The work of invited trainer two was

17. Notes/suggestions/Criticism
   17.1 About director/facilitator
   17.2 Organization of the course

---

Anabela Pereira - University of Aveiro, Portugal

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Trainning course (LUA): Checklist of Counselling Skills

Name__________________________________  Date___________

1- Course in general

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CCS_1.A. Progress made</th>
<th>Much</th>
<th>Some</th>
<th>None</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CCS_1.B. Observable positive change</td>
<td>______</td>
<td>______</td>
<td>______</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2- Specific skills

(C=client)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CCS_2.A. Did I put C at ease?</th>
<th>Very Skilled</th>
<th>Some Skilled</th>
<th>No Skilled</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CCS_2.B. How did I cope with anxiety or hostility</td>
<td>______</td>
<td>______</td>
<td>______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCS_2.C. Did I listen well (at 2 levels)?</td>
<td>______</td>
<td>______</td>
<td>______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCS_2.D. Did I begin to see problem from C's point of view?</td>
<td>______</td>
<td>______</td>
<td>______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCS_2.E. Did I clarify confused ideas?</td>
<td>______</td>
<td>______</td>
<td>______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCS_2.F. Did I try to understand C's silences?</td>
<td>______</td>
<td>______</td>
<td>______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCS_2.G. Did I go at C's own speed?</td>
<td>______</td>
<td>______</td>
<td>______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCS_2.H. Did I provide relevant factual information when required?</td>
<td>______</td>
<td>______</td>
<td>______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCS_2.I. Did I give the interview structure or framework?</td>
<td>______</td>
<td>______</td>
<td>______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCS_2.J. Did I discuss the “process” of the interview with C?</td>
<td>______</td>
<td>______</td>
<td>______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCS_2.K. Did I impose insights or foster them?</td>
<td>______</td>
<td>______</td>
<td>______</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3- Development of Skills

CCS_3. What skills do I need to develop most?

Adapted by Anabela Pereira -University of Aveiro -Portugal from Dr. D. Williams. -University of Hull -U.K.
Course Requisites (Assessment Questionnaire)

Name:______________________________________________________________

Date:________________________

Classify each item on a scale 1 to 5

5=Very Good  4=Good  3=Sufficient  2=Mediocre  1=Bad

CR_1. Punctuality

CR_2. Sociability

CR_3. Active Participation

CR_4. Empathic understanding

CR_5. Technical competence

CR_6. To acknowledge and accept diversity

CR_7. Self-control

CR_8. Individual progress/growth

CR_9. Others

Anabela Pereira & First L.U.A.s (6/3/ 95).- University of Aveiro
QUESTÃO - Linha da Universidade de Aveiro (LUA) nocturna

Ao completares o seguinte questionário, recorda que não existem respostas certas ou erradas e nenhuma das tuas respostas te poderá automaticamente desqualificar da LUA, por isso responde o mais honesto possível.

Nome: 		Sexo: M/F 	Idade:
Morada: 		Telef:
Curso: 		Universidade/Instituto:
Reside em Aveiro, por motivos do curso? 	Sim/Não
Naturalidade: 	Profissão de um dos pais:

Média das notas do ano passado:

1. Que tipo de serviço(s) pensas que esta linha nocturna vai providenciar?

2. Na tua opinião, quais seriam os princípios básicos de uma organização como a da Linha da Universidade de Aveiro nocturna?

3. Quais os motivos que te levam a participar na Linha da Universidade de Aveiro (LUA) nocturna?

4. Que qualidades pensas que se devem possuir para se poder ser um membro da Linha da Universidade de Aveiro (LUA) nocturna?

5. O que tens para oferecer à Linha da Universidade de Aveiro (LUA) nocturna?

6. Que tipo de chamadas telefónicas pensas que vais encontrar como mais “stressantes” ou difíceis de lidar?
7. Na tua vida, de que maneiras lidas com o stress e situações difíceis?

8. Como reagirias ao atenderes uma chamada de uma pessoa cujos pontos de vistas são radicalmente diferentes dos teus?

9. O que é que tu achas que são as tuas boas qualidades; o que é que gostas em ti próprio?

10. O que é que achas que são as tuas más qualidades; o que é que te desagrada mais em ti?

11. Participar na Linha da Universidade de Aveiro (LUA) nocturna, é um trabalho exigente, muito apoiada pelo trabalho que é desenvolvido. Como seria mais fácil para ti contribuir?

12. Como é que soubeste desta Linha da Universidade de Aveiro (LUA) nocturna e deste curso de formação?

Por favor, traz este questionário e uma fotografia tipo passaporte para o curso de formação.

Adaptado por Anabela Pereira (Universidade de Aveiro, Portugal) de Nightline da Universidade de Hull & Humberside (U.K.)
QUESTIONÁRIO DE AVALIAÇÃO DO CURSO DE FORMAÇÃO L.U.A.

Data

Este questionário é anônimo. Classifique os itens na escala de 1 a 5

5 = Muito Bom  4 = Bom  3 = Suficiente  2 = Medíocre  1 = Mau

1. O curso de formação de um modo geral foi
2- A dinâmica geral do curso foi
3- A quantidade dos temas foram
4- O modo como os assuntos foram abordados foi
5- Os conhecimentos teóricos foram
6- Os exercícios de dinâmica de grupo em geral foram
7- A utilidade das simulações das chamadas foi
8- A adequação dos exercícios para descontrair ou mudar de tarefas foi
9- A participação do grupo a nível cognitivo foi
10- A participação do grupo a nível afectivo foi
11- O meu processo de desenvolvimento foi
12- O meu crescimento pessoal foi
13- A pontualidade foi
14- As condições oferecidas para trabalhar foram
15- O material de apoio foi

16- Sobre os formadores
   16.1. A competência técnica da orientadora foi
   16.2. As relações entre a orientadora e participantes foram
   16.3. O modo como a orientadora transmitiu os conhecimentos foi
   16.4. O trabalho desenvolvido pela formadora convidada foi
   16.5. O trabalho desenvolvido pelo formador convidado foi

17. Observações/Sugestões/Criticas
   17.1 À orientadora

   17.2 Ao funcionamento do curso

Anabela Pereira - University of Aveiro, Portugal
Curso de Formação (LUA)

Lista de Aptidões de Aconselhamento

Nome___________________________________  Data_____________

1-Curso de formação em geral

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Muito</th>
<th>Algum</th>
<th>Nenhum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CCS_1.A) Progresso feito</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCS_1.B) Mudanças positivas observáveis</td>
<td>------</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

2-Aptidões específicas

(C= cliente que telefona)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Muitas</th>
<th>Poucas</th>
<th>Nenhum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CCS_2.A) Coloquei C á vontade?</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCS_2.B) Como lidei com a ansiedade ou hostilidade?</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCS_2.C) Ouví bem- a nível cognitivo e a nível de sentimentos?</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCS_2.D) Comecei a ver o problema sob o ponto de vista do cliente?</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCS_2.E) Clarifiquei ideias confusas?</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCS_2.F) Tentei compreender os silêncios do C?</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCS_2.G) Acompanhei o ritmo do cliente?</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCS_2.H) Forneci informação factual relevante quando requerida?</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCS_2.I) Dei ás chamadas telefônicas uma estrutura ?</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCS_2.J) Discuti o “processo” da conversa com C?</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCS_2.K) Impus pontos de vista ou tentei induzi-los?</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3- Desenvolvimento de aptidões

CCS_3. Quais as aptidões que preciso de desenvolver mais.

Anabela Pereira- Universidade de Aveiro- Portugal
Adaptado de Dr. D. Williams- Universidade de Hull- U.K.
REQUISITOS PARA A SELEÇÃO NO CURSO
(QUESTIONÁRIO DE AVALIAÇÃO)

Nome__________________________________________________________

Data______________________________

Classifique os itens na escala de 1 a 5

5= Muito Bom  4= Bom  3=Suficiente  2=Mediocre  1=Mau

CR_1. Pontualidade

CR_2. Sociabilidade

CR_3. Participação activa

CR_4. Sensibilidade ao outro (empatia)

CR_5. Competência técnica

CR_6. Capacidade para aceitar as diferenças

CR_7. Auto-controlo

CR_8. Progressão/crescimento do indivíduo

CR_9. Outros

-------------------------------------------------------------------

Anabela Pereira & Primeiros L.U.A.s (6/3/95)-Universidade de Aveiro

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Appendix B: Duty

B.1. Questionnaire – English version

Duty Pilot Questionnaire (LUA and Hull/Humberside)

Duty: Feedback questionnaire (LUA and Hull/Humberside)

Overall Evaluation of LUA: Second Semester

B.2. Questionnaire – Portuguese version

Em Serviço: Questionário Piloto (LUA)

Em Serviço: Questionário Feedback (LUA)

Avaliação Geral da LUA: Segundo Semestre
Duty Pilot Questionnaire (LUA)

This is a questionnaire about your duties on Nightline. It is anonymous. I have no way of identifying you from your answer. Please answer them as honestly as possible. Thank you.

Gender------ Age------

1- What type of emotion/feelings do you usually experience when you arrive at N.L. (Nightline). Try to describe them. (nervous, confident,...).

2- What type of emotions/feelings do you experience while you are waiting for the call? During the call?

After the call?

3- Are your emotions different at the end of the duty? How would you describe them?

4- If you are distressed by a call what range of emotions/feelings do you experience?

5- What activities (smoke, drink, sleep, play, doodle...) do you usually do when you are: Waiting for the call?

During the call?

After the call?

6- Would it help if facilities for different activities (e.g. games) were provided in the office?

YES / NO

Please give same examples:
7. How could your duties be made less stressful?

8. Which activities help you reduce emotions/stress best?

9. Are all calls stressful?

10. Which types of call do you find more stressful?


12. Do you adopt any particular behaviour or practical strategies for coping with stress?

13. What do you usually do immediately after you put the phone down?

Anabela Pereira - University of Aveiro - Portugal
**Duty Pilot Questionnaire (Hull & Humberside)**

This is a questionnaire about your duties on Nightline. It is anonymous. I have no way of identifying you from your answer. Please answer them as honestly as possible. Thank you.

Gender------ Age------

1- What type of emotion/feelings do you usually experience when you arrive at N.L. (Nightline). Try to describe them. (nervous, confident,...).

2- What type of emotions/feelings do you experience while you are waiting for the call? During the call? After the call?

3- Are your emotions different at the end of the duty? How would you describe them?

4- If you are distressed by a call what range of emotions/feelings do you experience?

5- What activities (smoke, drink, sleep, play, doodle...) do you usually do when you are: Waiting for the call? During the call? After the call?

6- Would it help if facilities for different activities (e.g. games) were provided in the office? 
   YES / NO
   Please give some examples:
7-How could your duties be made less stressful?

8-Which activities help you reduce emotions/stress best?

9-Are all calls stressful?

10-Which types of call do you find more stressful?


12-Do you adopt any particular behaviour or practical strategies for coping with stress?

13-What do you usually do immediately after you put the phone down?

Anabela Pereira - Department of Psychology- University of Hull- U.K.
Duty: Feedback Questionnaire (LUA)

Dear LUA,

As I promised, here is the feedback on the questionnaires about your duties on Nightline. It shows the most common response, given for each question. I would be grateful if you could answer as quickly as possible and send it to me. Could you please indicate, in the boxes alongside each answer, the extent to which you identify with the overall group answer. And could you do the same for all other answers gone below. Thank you.

Name-------------------------------------- Age------- Gender---------------

Very strongly identify □ Strong identify □ Moderate identify □ Not identify at all □

For Question 1. What type of emotions/feelings do you usually experience when you arrive at N. L. (Nightline). Try to describe them (nervous, confident...)

Group Answer was
Q1A. Nervous, anxious          □ □ □ □
Q1B. Apprehensive/confident    □ □ □ □
Q1C. Eager for calls          □ □ □ □

For Question 2 What type of emotions/feelings do you experience while you are waiting for the call.

(G. A.) Q2.1A. Nervous and anxious □ □ □ □
Q2.1B. Expectant and hope      □ □ □ □

During the call
Q2.2A. Intense concentration □ □ □ □
(G.A.) Q2.2B. Anxious, tense (at begin) □ □ □ □

After the call
(G.A.) Q2.3A. Relief & satisfaction & Happy □ □ □ □
Q2.3B. Empty and disappointed/worried □ □ □ □

For Question 3. Are your emotions different at the end of the duty? How would you describe them?

(G.A.) Q3A. Yes. Relieved and more relax □ □ □ □
Q3B. Tired                     □ □ □ □
Q3C. Would like to have more calls □ □ □ □

Q4. If you are distressed by a call what range of emotions/feelings do you experience

(G.A.) Q4A. Sadness            □ □ □ □
Q4B. Frustration (Disappoint)/inadequacy □ □ □ □
Q4C. Nervous and anxious      □ □ □ □

Q5. What activities (smoke, drink, sleep, play, doodle...) do you usually do when you are waiting for the call

(G.A.) Q5.1A. Drink or eat      □ □ □ □
Q5.1B. Talk with duty partner □ □ □ □
Q5.1C. Listen music           □ □ □ □
Q5.1D. Smoking                □ □ □ □
Q5.1E. Study                  □ □ □ □

During the call
(G.A.) Q5.2A. Intense concentration on calls □ □ □ □
Q5.2B. Sometimes doodle or write □ □ □ □

After the call
(G.A.) Q5.3A. Talk to my duty partner, reflection about call □ □ □ □
Q5.3B. Take a deep breath     □ □ □ □
Q5.3E. Take a deep breath     □ □ □ □
Q5.3C. Drink and eat          □ □ □ □
Q5.3F. Listen music           □ □ □ □
Q6. Would it help if facilities for different activities (e.g. games) provided in the office?

YES NO. Please give examples:

(G.A.) Q6A. T.V. and video
Q6B. Computer
Q6C. Shower
Q6D. Cooking facilities
Q6E. Comfortable chair
Q6F. Books

Q7. How could your duties be made less stressful?

(G.A.) Q7A. More short duties
Q7B. More calls
Q7C. To reduce the LUA others activities (off duty)

Q8. Which activities help you reduce emotions/stress best?

(G.A.) Q8A. Talking with the partner and friends
Q8B. Physical exercises
Q8D. Relaxation techniques
Q8B. Watching T.V.
Q8E. Listening to music
Q8F. Having a shower

Q9. Are all calls stressful?

(G.A.) Q9A. Yes
Q9B. Fairly demanding (Some of them)

Q10. Which types of call do you find more stressful?

(G.A.) Q10A. Manipulative calls
Q10B. Suicidal calls
Q10C. Inconclusive calls
Q10D. Suicide
Q10E. Inadaptation/transition


(G.A.) Q11A. To relax, to be calm, take a deep breath; listen music, cinema
Q11B. Do physical exercises
Q11C. Sleep

Q12. Do you adopt any particular behavior or practical strategies for coping with stress?

(G.A.) Q12A. Change to more positive thoughts
Q12B. Physical exercises (gymnastic, yoga...)
Q12C. Talk
Q12D. Take a deep breath
Q12E. Drink and eat
Q12F. Sing

Q13. What do you usually do immediately after you put the phone down?

Q13A. A: Talk to my duty partner
Q13B. Take a deep breath
Q13C. Give a hug or kiss to my duty partner
Q13D. Drink or eat or a cigarette
Duty: Feedback Questionnaire (Hull & Humberside)

Dear Nightliner: As I promised here is the feedback on the questionnaires about your duties on nighttime. It shows the most common response, given for each question. I would be grateful if you could answer as quickly as possible and send it to the Psychology Department, before the end of term. Could you please indicate, in the boxes alongside each answer, the extent to which you identify with the overall group answer. And could you do the same for all other answers gone below. Thank you.

Age------------------- Gender-------------------

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Very strongly Identify</th>
<th>Strong identify</th>
<th>Moderate identify</th>
<th>Not identify at all</th>
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</table>

For Question 1. What type of emotions/feelings do you usually experience when you arrive at N.L. (Nightline). Try to describe them (nervous, confident...)

Group Answer was

- Q1A. Nervous, anxious
- Q1B. Apprehensive but confident
- Q1C. Eager for calls

For Question 2. What type of emotions/feelings do you experience while you are waiting for the call.

- (G. A.) Q2.1A. Nervous and not knowing who is going to happen
- Q2.1B. Hope and confidence
- Q2.1C. Bored

During the call

- (G.A.) Q2.2A. Intense concentration
- Q2.2B. Anxious, tense
- Q2.2C. Frustrated

After the call

- (G.A.) Q2.3A. Relief & satisfaction
- Q2.3B. Worried, disappoint
- Q2.3C. Tired, Drained

For Question 3. Are your emotions different at the end of the duty? How would you describe them?

- (G.A) Q3A. Yes. Relieved & more relax
- Q3D. On busy night feelings of accomplishment

Q4. If you are distressed by a call what range of emotions/feelings do you experience

- (G.A.) Q4A. Sadness
- Q4B. Inadequacy
- Q4C. Nervous, under pressure

Q5. What activities (smoke, drink, sleep, play, doodle...) do you usually do when you are waiting for the call

- (G.A.) Q5.1A. Drink coffee and tea
- Q5.1F. Watch Television

During the call

- (G.A.) Q5.2A. No activities
- Q5.2B. Sometimes doodle

After the call

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Q5.3A. Talk to my duty partner
Q5.3B. Drink tea or coffee
Q5.3C. Smoke
Q5.3D. Watch T.V.

Q6. Would it help if facilities for different activities (e.g. games) provided in the office?
YES. NO. Please give examples:
(G.A.) Q6G. No. (I like to keep my mind on the duty)
Q6H. Yes. (Stereo, radio, cards, dominoes)

Q7. How could your duties be made less stressful?
(G.A.) Q7D. Encourage others Nightliners to come and say hello.
Q7E. Talk about more stressful calls
Q7F. To know my duty partner better
Q7G. Duties aren’t stressful, unless it is a really busy night

Q8. Which activities help you reduce emotions/stress best?
(G.A.) Q8A. Talking with the partner and friends
Q8B. Watching T.V. (preferentially something funny)

Q9. Are all calls stressful?
(G.A.) Q9A. Yes
Q9B. Fairly demanding.
Q9C. No

Q10. Which types of call do you find more stressful?
(G.A.) Q10C. Masturbation, rape, sexual abuse
Q10B. Suicide
Q10A. Manipulative calls

(G.A.) Q11E. Talking with the partner and friends.
Q11D. Go out with friends: drinking, dancing
Q11A. Try to relax: listen music, cinema, (reading, writing)
Q11B. Try to relax with exercise, (cycling swimming)

Q12. Do you adopt any particular behaviour or practical strategies for coping with stress?
(G.A.) Q12A. Talk with close friends.
Q12C. Try to stay calm and relax.
Q12B. Take a deep breath

Q13. What do you usually do immediately after you put the phone down?
Q13A. Talk to my duty partner
Q13B. Take a deep breath, sign of relief
Q13C. Have a drink / or cigarette

Anabela Pereira University of Aveiro, Portugal
Overall Evaluation of LUA: Second Semester

The data are confidential so please answer as honestly and thoroughly as possible.

Name: ____________________________________________________________

Date: _________________ Training course: 1° ___ 2° ___

S_1. How many shifts have you done? _____
S_1.1 How many group support shifts did you do? _____
S_1.2 Was your duty partner good company? _____

S_2. When you were duty how many calls did you receive? _____
S_2.1 Which types of call did you find most stressful?

S_2.2 What did you usually do immediately after you put the phone down?

S_3. During night duties
S_3.1 What type of emotions/feelings did you experience when you arrived at Nightline (LUA)?

S_3.2 What type of emotions/feelings did you experience during the service?

S_3.3 What type of emotions/feelings did you experience at the end of duty?

S_3.4 What activities usually did you do when you are on duty?

S_3.5 Which activities did you consider most helpful?

S_3.6 Do you consider duties nights stressful?

S_3.7 What are the principal factors that make duties difficult?

S_3.8 Can you study when on duty at night?

S_4. As concern LUA
S_4.1 In general do you consider that LUA should continue? Why?
S_4.2 What changes would improve the service?

S_4.3 Do you agree that LUA must close if new accommodation is not forthcoming? If no what do you suggest?

S_5. You as a person
S_5.1 Did LUA contribut for your own development/growth as person?

S_5.2 What were the positive aspects that LUA has given you?

S_5.3 Did the LUA experience help you to understand and to cope better with your feelings?

S_5.4 Did the LUA experience help you to understand and to cope with difficult and stressful situation?
Em Serviço: Questionário Piloto (LUA)

Este questionário é sobre a LUA- Linha da Universidade de Aveiro nocturna. É um questionário anónimo. É impossível identificar por quem serão dadas as respostas. Por favor responda ao questionário o mais honesto possível. Obrigado.

Sexo------- Idade-------

1-Que tipo de emoções/sentimentos costumas sentir quando chegas a L.U.A.. Tenta descreve-los ( nervoso/a, confiante,...).

2-Que tipo de emoções/sentimentos sentes enquanto: 
Esperas por uma chamada telefónica

   Durante a chamada telefónica

   Depois da chamada telefónica

3-São diferentes as tuas emoções quando terminas o teu turno serviço? Como as descreverias?

4-Se te sentes pertubado devido a uma chamada telefónica, que conjunto de emoções/sentimentos experiencias?

5-Que tipo de actividades (fumar, beber, dormir, jogar, desenhar...) costumas fazer quando: 
Esperas por uma chamada.

   Durante a chamada.

   Depois da chamada.
6-Ajudaria se fossem postos a tua disposição na sala de trabalho mais material
(p.e jogos)?
SIM / MÃO
Dá alguns exemplos:

7-De que maneira esta actividade poderia ser feita para que não fosse tão indutora de
stress?

8-Quais as actividades que te podem ajudar melhor a reduzir as emoções/stress?

9-As chamadas telefónicas são causadoras de stress?

10-Que tipo de chamadas consideras mais indutoras de stress?

11-Geralmente como lidas com o stress? Dá exemplos.

12-Tens algum comportamento ou estratégia particular para combater o stress?

13-O que costumas fazer logo, depois de desligares uma chamada telefónica?

Anabela Pereira- Universidade de Aveiro- Portugal
**Em Serviço: Questionário Feedback (LUA)**

Querida L.U.A.

Aqui está o *feedback* do questionário preenchido durante os turnos de serviço. São as respostas mais comuns. Por favor, agradeça que me dessem também o vosso *feedback*, a vossa identidade pessoal com a resposta do grupo.

Nome----------------------------------| Idade---------

Agradeço que indiquem nos quadrados abaixo mencionados a resposta com a qual mais se identificam.

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<tr>
<th>Muito fortemente identificado</th>
<th>Fortemente identificado</th>
<th>Moderadamente identificado</th>
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</tbody>
</table>

Q=Questão1. Que tipo de emoções /sentimentos costumas sentir quando chegas à LUA. Tenta descrevê-los (nervoso/a, confiante,...)

RG=Resposta do grupo.

Q1A. De início nervoso/a, ansioso/a
Q1B. Confiante/Apreensivo
Q1C. Esperança de ter muitas chamadas.

Q2. Que tipo de emoções /sentimentos sentes enquanto:

**Esperas por uma chamada**

(RG) Q2.1A. Nervoso/a, ansioso/a
Q2.1B. Na expectativa/esperançoso

**Durante a chamada telefónica**

(RG) Q2.2A. Intensa Concentração
Q2.2B. De início muito nervoso/tenso

**Depois da chamada telefónica**

(RG) Q2.3A. Aliviado; Satisfeito/a,Feliz
Q2.3B. Vazio/Frustração/Preocupado

Q3. São diferentes as tuas emoções quando terminas o teu turno de serviço. Como as descreverias?

(RG) Q3A. Aliviado e mais calmo/a
Q3B. Cansado/a
Q3C. Gostaria de ter mais chamadas

Q4. Se te sentes perturbado devido a uma chamada telefónica, que conjunto de emoções/sentimentos experiencias?

(RG) Q4A. Tristeza
Q4B. Frustração/insatisfação/inadequação
Q4C. Nervoso e ansioso

Q5. Que tipo de actividades (fumar, beber, dormir, jogar, desenhar...) costumas fazer enquanto **Esperas por uma chamada**

(RG) Q5.1A. Comer e beber
Q5.1B. Conversar com o colega de serviço
Q5.1C. Ouvir música
Q5.1D. Fumar
Q5.1E. Estudar

**Durante a chamada**

Q5.2A. Concentrada/o na chamada
Q5.2B. Desenhar rabiscos ou escrever

**Depois da chamada**

Q5.3A. Conversar com o colega, reflectir sobre a chamada.
Q5.3E. Respirar fundo
Q5.3B. Comer e beber
Q5.3C. Fumar
Q5.3F. Ouvir música

Q6. Ajudaria se fossem postos à tua disposição na sala de trabalho mais material (p.e. damas)?
Sim /Não. Dá alguns exemplos.
(RG) Q6A. T.V. e video
Q6B. Computador
Q6C. Chuveiro
Q6D. Fogão
Q6E. Cadeira confortável
Q6F. Livros

Q7. De que maneira esta actividade poderia ser feita para que não fosse tão indutora de stress?
(RG) Q7A. Fazer turnos mais pequenos
Q7B. Ter mais chamadas
Q7C. Reduzir as actividades extras da LUA (fora de serviço)

Q8. Quais as actividades que te podem ajudar melhor a reduzir as emoções/stress?
(RG) Q8A. Falar com o colega de serviço e com os amigos
Q8C. Exercícios físicos
Q8D. Fazer técnicas de relaxamento
Q8B. T.V.
Q8E. Musica
Q8F. Tomar banho

Q9. As chamadas telefónicas são causadoras de stress?
(RG) Q9A. Sim
Q9B. Só algumas

Q10. Que tipo de chamadas consideras mais indutoras de stress?
(RG) Q10A. Manipulativas
Q10D. Chamadas inacabadas
Q10B. Suicido
Q10F. Inadaptação

Q11. Geralmente como lidas com o stress?
(RG) Q11A. Tento relaxar, acalmar, respirar fundo
Q11B. Fazer exercícios físicos
Q11C. Dormir

Q12. Tens algum comportamento ou estratégia particular para combater o stress?
(RG) Q12A. Falar
Q12B. Respirar fundo
Q12C. Levantar da cadeira
Q12D. Falar com o colega de serviço
Q12E. Exercícios físicos (ginástica, yoga)
Q12F. Comer, beber
Q12G. Cantar
Q12H. Mudar os pensamentos para outros mais positivos

Q13. O que costumas fazer logo, depois de desligares uma chamada telefónica?
(RG) Q13A. Falar com o colega de serviço
Q13B. Respirar fundo
Q13C. Beber/comer/fumar
Q13D. Levantar da cadeira
Q13E. Abraçar ou beijar o colega
Avaliação Geral da LUA: Segundo Semestre

Este questionário destina-se sómente a avaliar a situação presente da LUA. São elementos confidenciais, responde com honestidade.

Nome_____________________________________________________________

Data_______________________ Curso de formação: 1°___ 2°___

S_1. Quantas noites de serviço já fizeste?______
S_1.1 E noites de grupo de apoio?______
S_1.2 O/A colega de serviço foi boa companhia?______

S_2. Desde que estás na LUA, quantas chamadas telefônicas já recebestes?______
S_2.1 Qual a chamada mais difícil de atender?

S_2.2 Em geral depois de terminares de atender uma chamada, geralmente o que fazes?

S_3. Durante as noites de serviço
S_3.1 Que tipo de emoções/sentimentos sentes quando chegas ao serviço?

S_3.2 Que tipo de emoções/sentimentos, tens durante o serviço?

S_3.3 Que tipo de emoções/sentimentos, tens no fim do serviço?

S_3.4 Quais as actividades que costumas fazer quando estás de serviço?

S_3.5 Quais as actividades que consideras mais eficazes?

S_3.6 Consideras uma noite de serviço como stressante?

S_3.7 Quais o(s) principal(ais) factor(es) que torna(m) as noites dificeis?

S_3.8 Durante a noite de serviço consegues aproveitar o tempo para estudar?

S_4. Quanto à LUA
S_4.1 De uma maneira geral continuas a considerar necessário o funcionamento da LUA? Porquê?
4.2 Quais os principais aspectos que deveriam ser mudados para uma maior eficácia do serviço?

S_4.3 Caso as instalações não possam ser mudadas, é de opinião que a LUA feche? Se não, que sugeres?

S_5. Quanto à tua pessoa
S_5.1 A LUA contribui para o teu desenvolvimento/crescimento como pessoa?

S_5.2 Para a tua vida quais os aspectos positivos que a LUA te trouxe?

S_5.3 A experiência da LUA ajudou-te a compreender e lidar melhor com os teus sentimentos?

S_5.4 A experiência da LUA ajudou-te a compreender e lidar melhor com situações difíceis?

Anabela Pereira - Universidade de Aveiro - Portugal
Appendix C: Students’ clients

C.1. Records of calls received by LUA

C.2. Grelha de Anotação Diária de Chamadas Telefónicas Recebidas na LUA
Record of Calls Received by L.U.A
Academic Year 1994/1995

Date_________________                  Day of Week_________________

Name of person on duty______________________________________________

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<tr>
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Problems category

| Information                  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |     |
| Manipulative                 |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |     |
| Joke call                    |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |     |
| Silent calls                 |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |     |

Personal problems

| Loneliness               |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |     |
| Probl. With boy/girl     |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |     |
| Family problems          |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |     |
| Self-concept             |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |     |
| Physical self image      |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |     |
| Shyness                  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |     |
| Social skills            |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |     |
| Anxiety                  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |     |
| Stress                   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |     |

Problems related with university

<p>| Academic achievem.         |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |     |
| Study problems            |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |     |
| Exams                     |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |     |
| Examination stress        |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |     |
| Course selection          |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |     |
| Diffic. with lectures     |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |     |
| Diffic. With colleague    |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |     |
| Learning materials        |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |     |
| Training/placement        |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |     |
| Probl.with 1st job        |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |     |
| Accommodation             |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |     |
| Financial problems        |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |     |
| Food                      |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |     |</p>
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Observations/notes

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Anabela Pereira- Universidade de Aveiro- Portugal
Grelha de Anotação Diária de Chamadas Telefónicas Recebidas na L.U.A.
Ano Académico Experimental- 1994/1995

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| Ordem da chamada | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | ...
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Categoria de Problemas

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Problemas Pessoais

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Problemas Relacionados com a Universidade

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Observações/Notas:
Appendix D: Posters and Newspaper Puttings

D.1. Posters

*Linha de Universidade de Aveiro (LUA): Publicity for the Recruitment of Volunteer Students*

*Linha de Universidade de Aveiro (LUA): Publicity About LUA Phone Number: 37 07 63*

*Bookmark About LUA Phone Number*

D.2. Press Cuttings

“*Ouvido amigo para estudantes solitários*” – Quinta-feira, 27/10/94

“*Telefone nocturno apoia alunos da universidade*” – Jornal de Noticias, 30/10/94

“*LUA vai escutar universitários*” – Correio de Manhã, 6/11/94

“*Telefone nocturno na Universidade de Aveiro*” – Jornal de Noticias, 25/11/94

“*Universitários querem serviço de psiquiatria*” – Quinta-feira, 15/12/1994

“*O mais recente satélite da Universidade de Aveiro*” – Noticias de Educação, February 1995

“*Universidade de Aveiro tem de ser um ‘centro de excelência’*” – Noticias de Educação, March 1995

*publicity in Bolletim informatico, February-March 1995*

“A noite tem uma LUA” – Correio da Manhã, supplemento Forum estudante, 7/3/95

“*Portuguese student nightline is spin-off for Hull PhD research project on stress*” – The University of Hull Bulletin, June 1995

*Folha informativa - page 10 - Departamento de Ciências da Educação, 1996*
A Linha da Universidade de Aveiro (noturna) é um serviço organizado por estudantes para estudantes que necessitem de ter alguém com quem falar sobre os seus problemas. Esta linha, que é confidencial, estará à tua disposição diariamente das 8 da noite às 8 da manhã.

Para que este serviço possa funcionar precisamos de estudantes voluntários para colaborar no projeto. Precisamos de ti e da tua amiga A AAUAV, tua associação, conta contigo.

Aparece no próximo dia 26 de Outubro às 14h30m na sala C 2.40 do CIFOP para obteres mais informação sobre este projecto.

O curso de formação de voluntários é obrigatório e irá ter lugar no ginásio do CIFOP nos dias 28°, 29° e 30° de Outubro.
Linha Universidade de Aveiro
(nocturna)
37 07 63
(rede de Aveiro)

Stress?
Exames?
Solidão?
Inadaptação?
Problemas?

Linha Confidencial de Estudantes para Estudantes
Apoio: Reitoria da Universidade de Aveiro • A.A.ULes • Associação Académica da Universidade de Aveiro
Fundação Calouste Gulbenkian • Instituto de Inovação Educativa
Confidencial

37 07 63
rede de Aveiro

Linha Universidade de Aveiro
(nocturna)
Os estudantes da Universidade de Aveiro vão passar a dispor, a breve prazo, de um serviço telefônico destinado a dar-lhes apoio para enfrentarem e resolverem os problemas que normalmente os afectam.

Através da LUA - Linha da Universidade de Aveiro, que funcionará no período anual, universitários podem fazer dos seus problemas com outras universidades e ainda com uma equipa especializada. As conversas são confidenciais.

Os problemas que normalmente se abrem sobre a vida dos estudantes estão na origem de um projecto que vai ser lançado, a breve prazo, em Aveiro. A iniciativa é de Anabel Pereira, docente da Universidade de Aveiro, e iniciou-se na preparação da sua tese de doutoramento. Um dos projectos os estudantes universitários passam a contar com um serviço telefónico destinado a apoiá-los nos seus problemas.

A LUA - Linha da Universidade de Aveiro vai começar a funcionar, em princípios da próxima semana de Novembro, em três gabinetes cedidos pela Universidade de Aveiro. Os estudantes universitários, quer da Universidade, quer do ISCLA, ou ISCLIL, vão poder confidenciar os seus problemas, com a certeza de que não encontrarão do ouro lado da linha uma voz amiga, sempre disposta a dar-lhes o apoio necessário para enfrentarem e resolverem os seus problemas. Confidencial porque todas as chamadas, bem como o seu conteúdo, são privadas, obrigando-se os operadores a guardar rigorosamente o que lhes foi contado. Além disso, o juvenil que querer expor os seus problemas, não tem que se apresentar ou dizer o seu nome.

A tarefa de escutar os estudantes vai estar a cargo de outros estudantes. Fica, é de acordo com Anabel Pereira, docente do projecto, uma das principais características da Linha da Universidade de Aveiro. Os jovens, que são voluntários, vão ser também apoiados por uma equipa de técnicos especializados, nomeadamente psicólogos e psiquiatras.

Os voluntários têm ainda de realizar um curso de formação, que Anabela Pereira considera uma ação «muito dura». «São os melhores resistentes», refere ainda aquela docente, que, no entanto, prevê uma boa adesão por parte dos universitários que têm recebido como aconselhamento para a sua tese de doutoramento.

Luceas são as noites JÁ a música de Pedro Abrunhosa reza que «Luceas são as noites que passam sem durar». Talvez por isso mesmo a Linha da Universidade de Aveiro vai funcionar apenas durante a noite, entre as 20 e as 8 horas.

Trata-se, diz Anabela Pereira, de um período em que «os estudantes estão mais à vontade com companhia». Opinião que tem sugestão tem José Tavares, Professor da Universidade de Aveiro, que supervisiona o projecto e o doutoramento. Este docente considera que «ainda muitos dos estudantes saem, para se diversarem, mas outros ficam sem nada para fazer, a pensar nos seus problemas. Refiram-se ainda que muitos dos estudantes, e mesmo os de grande orientação, têm muitos problemas, mas «deixam todo o mundo, e a sua vida, quando o mais necessário». Além disso, André Tavares, que depende de examenes, os exames, os exames...
TELEFONE NOCTURNO APOIA ALUNOS DA UNIVERSIDADE

É um serviço inédito de atendimento confidencial

A iniciativa é inédita no meio universitário português e deve começar a funcionar a partir da segunda semana de Novembro, na Universidade. 

A "Lua", Linha da Universidade de Aveiro, que funcionará entre as 20 e as 8 horas, é um serviço de atendimento confidencial para ouvir estudantes com problemas.

Jesus Zing

"Uma incógnita", assim perspective Anabela Pereira, psicóloga e docente de Psicologia do Desenvolvimento no Departamento de Ciências da Educação na Universidade de Aveiro, a aceitação que a "Lua", Linha da Universidade de Aveiro, vai ter junto aos estudantes daquele estabelecimento de ensino superior e do Instituto Superior de Contabilidade e Administração e do Instituto Superior de Ciências da Informação e Administração.

A iniciativa, inédita no meio universitário português, de criar uma linha telefônica nocturna para apoio aos estudantes, faz parte da tese de doutoramento daquela docente sobre "Stress e rendimento académico: ajuda aos estudantes para lidar com estratégias de coping adequadas".

Segundo Anabela Pereira, trata-se de um projecto supervisionado pelos professores J. Tavares e D. Williams, das Universidades de Aveiro e Hull (Inglaterra), que conta com o apoio da Reitoria e da Associação de Estudantes, "uma vez que veio ao encontro de algumas necessidades existentes na nossa Universidade."

A linha telefônica funcionará entre as 20 e as 8 horas da manhã e será um serviço de atendimento confidencial para ouvir estudantes com problemas, com a particularidade de ser realizado por estudantes, em regime de voluntariado.

A seleção dos atendentes decorreu no fim-de-semana, uma triagem necessária para os 55 jovens que se mostraram disponíveis. E Anabela Pereira mostrou-se satisfeita com o sentido de responsabilidade de muitos dos jovens que apareceram ao curso de formação para seleção final dos candidatos.

A incógnita, segundo Anabela Pereira "é total", não só ao nível da receptividade que a linha — sugestivamente intitulada "Lua" — vai ter, como, ainda os problemas que serão colocados.

Num universo de cerca de sete mil alunos, tudo poderá acontecer, desde problemas emocionais até monetários, mas todos os contatos serão confidenciais. 

Na Universidade de Hull, um serviço idêntico existe há já 50 anos. Os temas mais ventilados são a solidão, violações, problemas monetários, síxia, em sexualidade. Em Aveiro está tudo por descobrir.

Insucesso escolar — uma realidade grande na Universidade — poderá ser a preocupação dominante aos jovens estudantes aveirenses. Mas questões como o stress, os exames, inadaptação à cidade e ao curso ou tentativas de suicídio, são preocupações que podem surgir.

Para Anabela Pereira, uma certeza há: o serviço é confidencial e, numa primeira fase, funcionará apenas durante o presente ano lectivo. "Numa fase posterior, pretende-se que este serviço tenha como objectivo ajudar os estudantes com problemas, através de linha telefónica, bem como o atendimento face a face, passando pela criação de um gabinete de atendimento psicológico".
português pediu às autoridades de Singapura para não executar Mou Pui Peng, portuguesa de origem chinesa, condenada à morte por tráfico de droga".

O jornal publicou as palavras de António Maria Pereira, presidente da Comissão Parlamentar para os Negócios Estrangeiros que afirmou, sobre a condenação da morte de Angel, que "seria um crime punido com outro crime".

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**LUA vai escutar universitários**

Viseu (da nossa Delegação) - Acompanhar de perto os problemas específicos dos estudantes universitários através de um serviço telefónico - Linha da Universidade de Aveiro (LUA) - é o objectivo de um projecto inédito a ser implantado naquela academia.

A ideia não é nova, uma vez que já existem linhas telefónicas deste género a operar em outras universidades da Europa, nomeadamente em Inglaterra. A responsável pelo projecto, a docente Anabela Pereira, baseou-se no modelo da Universidade de Hull, no Reino Unido, e vai levá-lo a cabo como preparação para a sua tese de doutoramento.

Em conjunto com a equipa de psicólogos e psiquiatras, um grupo seleccionado de universitários vai estar disponível do outro lado do telefone para responder às mais variadas questões dos seus colegas e para os acompanhar nas "noites de solidão".
TELEFONE NOCTURNO NA UNIVERSIDADE DE AVEIRO

A "Lua". Linha da Universidade de Aveiro, um serviço de atendimento confidencial para ouvir estudantes com problemas, está a funcionar desde o passado fim de semana.

A linha telefónica serve os estudantes das 20 às 8 horas todos os dias e é considerado um serviço inédito no meio universitário português.

A "Lua" está aberta não só aos estudantes da Universidade de Aveiro como ainda aos do Instituto Superior de Contabilidade e Administração e do Instituto Superior de Ciências da Informação e Administração.

Os estudantes podem utilizar o número 370763 para expor os seus problemas.
PARA MAIOR APOIO

Universitários querem serviço de psiquiatria

Um abaixo-assinado para a criação de um serviço de apoio psíquico está a circular pela Universidade de Aveiro. Os estudantes dizem-se descontentes com o sistema existente, que implica longos períodos de espera para ter uma consulta, no Hospital de Aveiro.

César Cardoso, aluno da licenciatura em Ensino de Matemática, é quem está por detrás deste abaixo-assinado. César Cardoso fala ainda da LUA - Linha da Universidade de Aveiro, que considera ser um princípio, mas que não vai ajudar a resolver os problemas dos universitários.

Os estudantes revindicam um maior apoio psíquico, que possam usufruir sem terem de se sujeitar à longa lista de espera das consultas de psiquiatria do Hospital de Aveiro. Os Serviços de Apoio Social da Universidade de Aveiro têm um protocolo estabelecido com aquele hospital, necessitando os estudantes de levantar no médico da Universidade uma declaração, através da qual podem marcar consulta no estabelecimento hospitalar.

No entanto, dado o longo período de espera que implica uma consulta no Hospital, bem como os largos intervalos entre as várias sessões, os estudantes optam por recorrer ao sector privado. Assim sendo, em vez dos 400 escudos da taxa moderadora do Hospital, pagam cerca de 800 contos por uma consulta.

Custos que os estudantes consideram muito elevados.

Além disso, uma vez que os espaços de tempo entre duas consultas são muito largados, César Cardoso considera que é difícil uma pessoa recuperar. «Chegamos a esperar quatro meses para termos atendidos», refere, acrescentando que «para ajudar numa situação esporádica, tudo bem, mas para uma pessoa ter um melhor acompanhamento, não dá. É preciso reduzir os intervalos».

Não estamos contra a LUA

A pesar de considerar que a LUA - Linha da Universidade de Aveiro, que foi criada recentemente como forma de apoiar os universitários, quando sujeitos a stress e outro tipo de pressões a nível mental e social, César Cardosos é peremptório ao afirmar que «não estamos contra a LUA».

Com efeito, o impulsorado do abaixo-assinado considera que a linha telefônica, que surgiu no âmbito de um projeto de trabalho/estudo de uma docente da Universidade de Aveiro, é já um princípio, muito embora «não vá resolver problemas de fundo». A pesar de não ser gratuita como outras do género, a LUA presta apoio a estudantes, durante a noite. No entanto, refere César Cardoso, «não são profissionais, mas são voluntários, que visitam os universitários». Além disso, do outro lado do telemóvel apenas «escutam os problemas e nunca dão conselhos, talvez com medo de errar», refere ainda César Cardoso.

César Cardoso, aluno da licenciatura em Ensino de Matemática, é quem se autodefiniu como um profissional, no sentido de «ajudar numa situação esporádica, mas nunca no sistema». No entanto, «fala-se nos corredores, mas não se faz nada», o que para César Cardoso, vem demonstrar que «a Reitoria não está preocupada com o problema».
O mais recente satélite da Universidade de Aveiro

Sérgio Ribeiro

Na data de 18 e 19 de Janeiro de 1986, uma equipe de reportagem da MNE destaca-se, pela primeira vez na história do jornal, à LUA. Observou e tomou notas. Na bagagem trouxe registos e depoimentos dois voluntários de um novo satélite da Universidade de Aveiro — que vivem atrás de um número de telefone. Vê-los não nos foi possível, porque a confidencialidade e o anonimato são dois grandes requisitos para que ouvires indiscutidos não invadam o seu mundo nocturno.

Notícias da Educação

actual

LUA

A mais recente aula de psicologia no campo da educação. Pernas à luz e projeções de slide nas paredes de uma sala, um professor e uma estudante em uma atividade interativa. O professor, de vestuário tradicional, encabeça a aula. A estudante, de vestuário moderno, participa ativamente.

Anabela Pereira & Montenegro Furtado

A investigação na psicologia da educação é um campo importante na actualidade. A Universidade de Aveiro destaca-se neste sentido, com a implementação de novos métodos e técnicas de ensino.

Depoimentos:

1. "A investigação na psicologia da educação é um campo importante na actualidade. A Universidade de Aveiro destaca-se neste sentido, com a implementação de novos métodos e técnicas de ensino." — Anabela Pereira

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Ne outro lado do fim, há sempre uma nova amiga.

A experiência íntima, na qual participa, foi igualmente descrita pelo psicólogo da LUSA, que sugere que a

expediente na área está nas mãos de um técnico sem esforço. O

outra vez, sobrevivência para reduzir a intensão de propósitos. Valor

que renda e quatro salas de 365 mil alunos.

Em termos globais, foram grandes, para os alunos, 310 mil conosco, que contemplavam cerca de mil alunos, já que os que haviam recebi-

rado após anterior, 166 via e seu pedido remanejado. Estes valores

gerais com 50% de salas de 2 mil salas em ano passado, abrangendo as

uma vez que se referir às 27 salas.

As duas salas que passaram por um período de 

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As duas salas que passaram por um período de

uma vez que se referir às 27 salas.
ADIVINHA!
O que é que na TUA Universidade e para TI funciona das 8 da noite às 8 da manhã todos os 7 dias da semana?
Damos-te algumas dicas: 370763 diz-te alguma coisa!
E que é um serviço confidencial, onde poderás encontrar SEMPRE uma voz amiga para poderes conversar, já estás a ver o que é?
Sim, sim ... é um projecto que está a crescer que tem pessoas que “olham” para ti como um igual, como um AMIGO com quem poderás sempre contar.

Está em funcionamento uma linha nocturna, de apoio a alunos desta Academia, quando sujeitos a stress e a outros tipos de pressão a nível mental e social.
Do lado de là estão alunos desta Universidade, voluntários, cujo sentido de abnegação e solidariedade social souvamos.
A LUA surgiu no âmbito de um projecto de trabalho/estudo da Drª. Anabela Pereira, docente da Universidade de Aveiro. A criação desta linha vem na sequência da existência de projectos idênticos em Universidades do Reino Unido.
A supervisão está a cargo do Prof. Doutor José Tavares (U.A.) e do Prof. Doutor P. Williams (U. Hill-Inglaterra).
Defende o reitor:
Universidade de Aveiro
tem de ser um «centro de excelência»

Mário Alberto

O alargamento das fronteiras do saber e a consequente necessidade de especialização levam o reitor da Universidade de Aveiro a afirmar que "Aveiro não se pode dizer ao lume ter uma universidade que não seja um centro de excelência."

Tendo em conta os novos horizontes que estão a ser alcançados, é dever do ensino superior abranger vários campos de conhecimento de forma a permitir ao aluno explorar as diversas áreas do conhecimento, como não há como arcar com a complexidade das questões sociais e científicas de hoje.

Esta realidade deve ser uma oportunidade para a Universidade de Aveiro, que está a ser um dos principais centros de excelência em Portugal.

Uma missão chamada qualidade

A Universidade de Aveiro é uma instituição de ensino superior que tem como objetivo principal a promoção da excelência no ensino e na pesquisa. A qualidade é uma das principais características da Universidade de Aveiro, que busca concretizar os objetivos estabelecidos.

A estrutura da Universidade de Aveiro é composta por várias unidades que se dedicam a diferentes áreas de conhecimento, como ciências humanas, ciências sociais, ciências da saúde, ciências da vida, ciências da terra, ciências da informação e comunicação, ciências da engenharia, ciências da economia e administração, ciências do direito e ciências da arte.

Para o avanço da pesquisa e do ensino, a Universidade de Aveiro dispõe de uma infraestrutura moderna, com instalações e equipamentos de qualidade, que permitem o desenvolvimento de projetos de alto nível.

Julio Perdigão, reitor da Universidade de Aveiro

Uma paisagem de excelência

A Universidade de Aveiro está a ser reconhecida internacionalmente como um centro de referência em várias áreas de conhecimento, graças à excelência das suas ações de ensino e pesquisa.

A Universidade de Aveiro é uma instituição de ensino superior que tem como objetivo principal a promoção da excelência no ensino e na pesquisa. A qualidade é uma das principais características da Universidade de Aveiro, que busca concretizar os objetivos estabelecidos.

Para o avanço da pesquisa e do ensino, a Universidade de Aveiro dispõe de uma infraestrutura moderna, com instalações e equipamentos de qualidade, que permitem o desenvolvimento de projetos de alto nível.

Julio Perdigão, reitor da Universidade de Aveiro
Estudantes de Aveiro têm uma voz amiga que os conforta nas longas noites de angústia

A noite tem uma LUA

Os estudantes da Universidade de Aveiro (UA) têm ao seu dispor um serviço inédito no meio universitário nacional. Trata-se da LUA — Linha da Universidade do Aveiro. Linha esta, que funciona das oito da noite às oito da manhã e cujo objetivo é ouvir os problemas que os estudantes enfrentam na frenética passagem pelos bancos da universidade. Questões como solidão, desordens emocionais, droga, dificuldades no relacionamento com os profissionais, stress e até mesmo a planeamento familiar, são alguns dos desafios que a LUA procura resolver. Do outro lado da linha estão estudantes voluntários que tiveram um curso de formação intensivo sob orientação de psicólogos.

A Linha da Universidade do Aveiro está a funcionar desde 18 de Novembro do ano passado. A iniciativa deu-se à Dra. Anabela Pereira, psicóloga e docente da UA, que nesta primeira fase também tem orientado os "escutantes". Segundo esta psicóloga a ideia surgiu no seguimento do trabalho de Doutramento que está a efectuar. Por outro lado, "os próprios alunos como sabiam que eu era psicóloga, vinham ter comigo no fim das aulas para pedir ajuda".

Outra das medidas que esta linha proporciona é o relatório semestral onde são indicadas as percentagens e as categorias dos problemas referentes à universidade. Este relatório é entregue, posteriormente, na reitoria "para a universidade poder estudar soluções para resolver estes problemas". Refira-se que não só os alunos da Universidade de Aveiro podem utilizar este serviço: está aberta também aos alunos dos dois institutos particulares, bem como à qualquer outra pessoa da cidade, e isto porque é um serviço confidencial e, segundo esta psicóloga, "não é necessário identificação do apelante"

Uma das vantagens conseguidas por esta iniciativa é o aparecimento de um gabinete de atendimento psicológico. Gabinete este que se prevê entrar em funcionamento ainda durante o corrente ano lectivo. Para o futuro a LUA, já com experiência adquirida, pretende parar para o atendimento "face a face" as pessoas mais necessitadas.

Contacto: LUA — 370763 (rede do Aveiro)
Portuguese student nightline is spin-off for Hull PhD research project on stress

RESEARCH work carried out by a Hull PhD student has helped a Portuguese university to establish a student helpline service along the lines of Hull's own Nightline service run by the Students' Union.

Psychology research student Anabela Pereira has set up the LUA service at the University of Aveiro in Portugal as part of her research work into how students cope with the stresses of academic life.

LUA is providing a vehicle for research as well as a useful service to students. The project differs from normal studies on counselling in that the focus is on the counsellors rather than the clients and in how they cope with stress.

"In the first year the response to the service has been very gratifying and it will now be a permanent part of the University's welfare structure," said Professor Derek Newham, Academic Registrar.

Amendments to the 1994/95 Telephone Directory

Please make the following changes/additions to your directory:

p21 Officers

5302 Acting Registrar and Secretary: Mr Anthony McClaran
5126 Administrative Assistant: Mrs Susan Applegarth
6544 Secretary: Mrs Dorothy Tovey

p21 Academic Office

6579 Acting Academic Registrar: Mr Derek Newham
5060 Secretary/Academic Office Manager: Mrs Kay Austin

APPRAISAL/REVIEW TRAINING FOR TECHNICAL AND CLERICAL STAFF

The dates for the next central Induction Programme have been changed to Thursday and Friday, September 21 and 22, 1995. Further details and invitations will be circulated in July/August.

To register in advance contact Sally Greaves on extension 6365.
Historial


Ensino

- Bacharelato em Educadores de Infância
  Ano lectivo 1996/97 - numeri clausi - 30
  total de alunos inscritos - 122

- Licenciaturas em Ensino
  Responsável pela leccionação de 4 disciplinas (Psicologia do Desenvolvimento e da Aprendizagem, Sociologia da Educação, História e Teoria da Educação e Organização Escolar e Desenvolvimento Curricular) aos 9 cursos de formação de professores.
  total de alunos inscritos em 1996/97 - 544

- Mestrados
  Activação do Desenvolvimento Psicológico
  total de alunos inscritos em 1996/97 - 24
  Análise Social e Administração da Educação
  total de alunos inscritos em 1996/97 - 20
  Ciências da Educação na área de especialização de Formação Pessoal e Social

- Doutoramentos
  Ciências da Educação
  total de alunos inscritos em 1996/97 - 9

- Formação em programas de colaboração com os PALOP
  total de alunos inscritos em 1996/97 - 40

Investigaçao

- Integra a Unidade de Investigação Construção do Conhecimento Pedagógico nos Sistemas de Formação
- Em 1996/97 tem em desenvolvimento os seguintes projectos de investigação:
  - financiados pela comunidade europeia - 4
  - financiados pelo DEP/GEP - 2
  - financiados pela Universidade de Aveiro - 2
  - financiados pelo Instituto de Inovação Educacional - 2

Extensão Universitária

- Projecto LUA (Linha da Universidade de Aveiro)
- Colaboração com outras instituições do ensino superior
- Colaboração com centros de formação de associações de escolas
- Acções de formação em escolas do ensino básico e secundário
- Exercício de cargo directivo no Departamento de Ensino Secundário (Ministério da Educação)

Pessoal envolvido

- Docentes - 17
  - Doutorados - 9
  - Não doutorados - 5
  - Convidados - 3
- Pessoal administrativo - 2
- Pessoal auxiliar - 1

Infra-estruturas

O Departamento de Ciências da Educação encontra-se sediado em edifício próprio (n° 18) no Campus Universitário de Santiago.
Appendix E: Conclusion

E.1. Tips for Parents

E.2. Tips for Staff

E.3. Tips for Students

An example of leaflet: “Hints on how to improve your exam preparation”
TIPS FOR PARENTS

“Our experiences show us that are lots of difficulties these students face when they come to university, and the support and comprehension / understanding from the family is very important. Here are some points that you may wish to consider:

• The Process of transition with its homesickness and loneliness, could have implications for future mental and physical health.

• During the Process of growing up: you child will face new challenges in intellectual, knowledge and learning.

• They will also need to acquire social skills in dealing with peers and with the opposite sex.

• They will be face with moral and religion challenges.

• They will need to develop their interest strengths and personal autonomy

If you notice change in your child, do not worry, it is a normal process and, consequence of growing up. If you do have any queries or doubts, however, do contact the Counselling services and the University, or your childs personal tutor.”
TIPS FOR STAFF

"Everyday you are in contact with students. Certainly you are aware that students are suffering changes in their lives. It is important to understand their needs, and their problems, especially in critical periods like entry to a new course or examination.

As an adult you certainly have your own personal, family, and work problems. Perhaps you sometimes do not always have the patience to listen to the students and their stories. Sometimes students transfer their anger and their dissatisfaction with the system to you, especially in situations where you are "breaking bad news" You need to be prepared for this.

Remember:

• Most students are living away from home for the first time

• They have other major events in their personal life besides their academic work."
TIPS FOR STUDENTS

These tips are intended to help you to cope with some typical situations in academic life. They are not prescriptions;

In every subject you should decide which topics are important for you and for your needs,

Improve and adapt the suggestions made to your own life and situations. These tips should help you to find your weaknesses and strengths.

• Be aware of knowledge you have about yourself. Try to answer questions such as “who am I?”, “Who Am I Becoming”, “Who Could I Be?”

• Be aware they are staff also have, their own families, and their own problems. Try to make an effort to understand them. Accept, and use in their advice in a positive way.

Try to understand your peers. You have peaks and troughs, in life so have they. Be aware of the needs of others. Train your listening skills so that you can help others when they need it.