

**ANASTASIA KALANTZI-AZIZI
GERHART ROTT
DECLAN AHERNE**
Editors

NOVA

**PSYCHOLOGICAL COUNSELLING
IN HIGHER EDUCATION**

Practice and Research

PSYCHOLOGICAL

FEDORA - ELLINIKA GRAMMATA

PSYCHOLOGICAL COUNSELLING
IN HIGHER EDUCATION
Practice and Research

First published in Greece by Ellinika Grammata Publ. & FEDORA

Copyright 1997 FEDORA – ELLINIKA GRAMMATA

No reproduction without permission

All rights reserved

ELLINIKA GRAMMATA Publishers
88, Akadimias str., 10678 Athens Greece
tel. 01/3302415, fax 01/3836658

FEDORA
(Forum Européen de l' Orientation Académique)
Post Box 55, B-1348
Louvain, Neuve, Belgium

ISBN 960-344-311-5

Editors

ANASTASIA KALANTZI-AZIZI, University of Athens, Greece

GERHART ROTT, University of Wuppertal, Germany

DECLAN AHERNE, University of Limerick, Ireland

PSYCHOLOGICAL COUNSELLING
IN HIGHER EDUCATION
Practice and Research

FEDORA – ELLINIKI GRAMMATA

Athens 1997

C O N T E N T S

About the Authors	9
Foreword	
LUCIA BERTA, President, FEDORA	11
Foreword	
A. KALANTZI-AZIZI, G. ROTT and D. AHERNE.....	12
Introduction to the 3-session FEDORA Symposium	
IV European Congress of Psychology: "Counselling in Higher Education"	
A. KALANTZI-AZIZI	15

SECTION 1 INTRODUCTION

1	Treating and Preventing Psychological Problems in Ancient Greece: A Brief Overview	
	E. C. KARADIMAS	25
2	Practice and Research in Psychological and Psychotherapeutic Counselling in the European Context	
	G. ROTT	32

SECTION 2 RESEARCH APPROACHES TO STUDENT NEEDS

3	The Students and the Academic Institutions: An Italian Experience	
	P. VALERIO	51
4	Aspects of Individualism as a Function of Cultural Variation	
	J. P. BROONEN and A. E. AHMADI	68
5	Polarities in the Life of Modern Student	
	M. BAUER	78

6	Student Stress: A Developmental Perspective D. AHERNE	89
7	Interaction between Emotion, Cognition and Behaviour as a Focus for Student Counselling in Higher Education G. ROTT	112

SECTION 3
INTERVENTIONS IN THE CONTEXT
OF STUDENT COUNSELLING

8	Counselling Students in the Short Term, Training Counsellors to Focus: One Way of Achieving Quality within Resource Constraints J. ELTON-WILSON	137
9	Human Relations Training and its Effects on the Personality Characertistics of Future Teachers M. MALIKIOSI-LOIZOS	146
10	The Relationship of Temperament and Social Factors to Study Abilities A. KALANTZI-AZIZI AND E.C. KARADIMAS	161
11	University Students in Athens: Mental Health Issues and Attitudes toward Psychotherapeutic Intervention A. L. CHRISTOPOULOS, M. KONSTANTINIDOU, V. LAMBIRI, M. LEVENTIDOU, T. MANOU, K. MAVROIDI, V. PAPPAS and L. TZOUMALAKIS	176

APPENDIX

SUMMARY OF FURTHER CONFERENCE PAPERS	193
GENERAL REFERENCES	199

About the authors

FEDORA-PSYCHE Coordinator:

Gerhart Rott

Bergische Universität -
Gesamthochschule
Zentral Studienberatung
Gaußstrasse, 20
D-42097 – Wuppertal
tél +49-202-439 3281
fax +49-202-439 2797
E-Mail rott@wrcd1.urz.
uni-wuppertal.de

Declan Aherne

University of Limerick
Plassey Technological Park
Limerick, Ireland
Tel: 353-61-333644
Fax: 353-61-330316
E-mail: aherned @ uL

Mette Bauer

Studenterrådgivningen
The Technical University of
Copenhagen
Bygning 101, Anker Engelundsvej 1
DK 2800, Lyngby
Danmark
Tel: 45-42-881104
Fax: 45-42-8821353

Lucia Berta

President of FEDORA
FEDORA
Post Box 55
B-1348 Louvain-la-Neuve
Belgium
Tel: 32-10-472706
Fax: 32-10-454614

Jean Paul Broonen

& A. El Ahmadi
Service d' Orientation
Universitaire
Universite de Liège au Sart Tilman
Trifontaine, Bât. 33
4000 Liège
Belgium
Tel: 32-41-662388
Fax: 32-41-662988

Graça Figueiredo Dias

Universidade Nova de Lisboa
Faculdade de Ciências e
Technologia
Quinta da Torre, 2825 Monte da
Caparica
Portugal
Tel: 351-1-2954464
Fax: 351-1-2954461

Jenifer Elton-Wilson
Centre for Student Affairs
University of the West of England,
Bristol
Frenchay Campus
Coldharbour Lane
Bristol BS 16 1Q Y, U.K.
Tel: 44-272-656261
44-1179-763818
Fax: 44-1179-763819

Paolo Valerio
University of Napples,
Dipartimento di Neuroscienze e
della Comunicazione Interhumana
Segreteria di Psicologia
Via S. Pansini 5
Napples 80131
Italy
Tel: 39-81-7463459
Fax: 39-81-7463478

Veronica Tóth & Monica Serfözö
Eötvös Lorand University
Institute of Psychology
1064 Budapest
Izabella u. 46
Hungary
Tel./Fax: 36-1-2680831

**Anastasia Kalantzi-Azizi,
Diana Charila,
Anna Christopoulos,
Evangelos Karadimas,
George Kissas,
Maria Leventidou,
Maria Malikiosi-Loisos**
University of Athens
Department of Psychology
School of Philosophy,
Panepistimiopolis
Ilisia, 157 84
Greece
Tel: 30-1-7249000
Fax: 30-1-7248979

Foreword

LUCIA BERTA

The Higher Education System needs to keep in pace with the economic, political and cultural changes in our society. In order to do this considerable resources are required. One important resource necessary to be developed in order to assist students in the modern era are the *Student Counselling Services* within Universities, guiding students in their personal development whilst they are at university is a difficult task and one which psychological counselling can help enormously.

I very much appreciate the work of the FEDORA-PSYCHE group. In particular, I compliment them on their symposium held at the 4th European Congress of Psychology in Athens. This publication is testament to the success of their symposium. The congress has played an important role in the constructive exchange of ideas and in the development of theory and practice in psychology. It is perhaps not by chance that FEDORA was founded in Athens and that the 4th Congress of Psychology took place there. It is the city where Europe's basic cultural traditions were established and from which we all draw on in our daily work with students.

Foreword

A. KALANTZI-AZIZI, G. ROTT, D. AHERNE

The book in hand is the outcome of the collaboration between colleagues from many different European countries. All contributors share one characteristic: namely that they are all involved in Student Counselling.

Many students, despite their youth and excitement, as well as their high mental abilities, for certain reasons, cannot deal adequately with the problems they encounter. Sometimes, these students present themselves to us, the “so-called” specialists in mental health. Thus, it becomes our duty to help them to organise and develop the abilities they already in order to overcome the obstacles they confront.

Our work in most cases is effective we hope. We all share the same joy and good feelings on the completion of a successful collaboration with a student in overcoming coming his/her difficulties.

We practice our profession in many countries across Europe. National frontiers have been no obstacle to us, thanks to FEDORA and especially its PSYCHE Sub-Group. FEDORA PSYCHE Group became our common house and gave us the opportunity of becoming acquainted, of working together and of sharing our knowledge and thoughts.

FEDORA-PSYCHE Group was established six years ago (3rd Congress of FEDORA, Berlin, September 1991). In this short time we have managed to create some powerful collaboration networks, as well as establishing close personal relationships.

Our collaboration as members of the PHYCHE Group resulted in the publication of a book, under the title "Psychological Counselling in Higher Education: A European Overview". It was edited by Elsa Bell, Craig McDevitt, Gerhart Rott, and Paolo Valerio in 1994. In that book, a "mapping" of the facilities for psychological counselling in Higher Education was presented.

To begin with, it was obvious that there are some noticeable differences among the European countries with respect to the ways that student counselling is being practised. Secondly there is much room for further improvement of the effectiveness as well as further extension of the target groups of our counselling endeavours. In that book, an array of interesting questions was raised concerning the ways that research is being conducted, and the kind of intervention that take place across Europe.

In July 1995 three Symposia were organised by the FEDORA-PSYCHE Group at the IV European Congress of Psychology, in Athens. This initiative gave us the opportunity to address some important issues with respect to our interests. Sixteen speakers from eight countries gave us the framework for the implementation of counselling in Higher Education in their countries.

Soon after the successful Symposia, Gerhart Rott persuaded the Board of FEDORA to finance the publication of selected papers of these Symposia. Also, the Greek Publishing Firm ELLINIKI GRAMMATA, well known to the Greek scientific public, helped us financially and have finally published the proceedings. Only the FAX-machines and the E-mail could help the three editors to organise their work and expedite the task of editing the proceedings of the PSYCHE Symposia: Gerhart Rott from Wuppertal, Germany, worked as the central axon of the editorial Group; Anastasia Kalantzi-Azizi, from Athens, Greece, provided ideas concerning the structuring of the material; whilst Declan Aherne from Limerick, Ireland, carried out the burdensome task of adapting the papers into proper English.

Our collaboration proved to be a productive one. The final result of this collaboration is the book that you hold now in your hands. It presents some important aspects of the ways that Counselling is taking place in Higher Education across Europe.

We hope that this book is only the beginning. We have a lot to learn from each other.

Acknowledgements to:

- FEDORA, for its funding of this project, enabling the publication.
- Mary Costelloe, S.P.S., University of Limerick, for her considerable secretarial assistance.
- Ellinika Grammata Publishers, and especially the publisher, P. Papachristophilou, and C. Xenaki, for her assistance to the publication.

Introduction to the 3-session FEDORA Symposium

IV European Congress of Psychology

July, 2-7, 1995

Athens - Greece

Counselling in Higher Education

ANASTASIA KALANTZI-AZIZI

Introduction

I am very glad that FEDORA honoured me with the task of organising and chairing these three symposia, the main subject of which is the psychological counselling of students. I am also very glad that us, who work on the psychological problems of students, have the chance to present and promote (or show) our work in such an important Congress as the IV European Congress of Psychology.

The importance of post-adolescence, as a special developmental stage, has already been mentioned. However, when the questionings of post-adolescence meet with the learning demands of the academic education, we are in front of an interesting challenge.

Before our colleagues, who participate in the 1st session of our symposium, present their papers, I would like to say a few words about FEDORA-PSYCHE (Table 1). FEDORA (Forum Européen de l'Orientation Académique) is an association for those involved in all aspects of student guidance in institutions of higher education in Europe.

FEDORA was founded in 1988 at the Third Conference on University Guidance in Higher Education, in response to the growing needs of student advisors, teaching staff and students themselves for information and advice on study and work opportunities throughout

the European Union. But it was also felt to be important to include in the professional exchange the contributions of psychological counselling. Indeed, it was at that conference that the first encounters took place between people who identified their role as being a discrete activity within guidance, i.e. psychological counselling which focuses on the emotional and psychological difficulties of students rather than on the study advise, career choice and the general dissemination of information.

In 1990, an unofficial meeting of 11 student counsellors with psychotherapeutic training took place in Amsterdam. They tried to find a basis on which they could discuss about possible ways to exchange their knowledge, and develop some perspectives on participating in a European dialogue about academic orientation. This group decided to give itself the name PSYCHE (**P**ychological **C**ounselling in **H**igher **E**ducation).

During the Fourth European Conference on University Guidance in Berlin; 1991, PSYCHE was officially accepted by FEDORA as one of its working groups. In 1992, 21 PSYCHE members met in Naples. Before the conference, they had prepared preliminary national reports, about psychological counselling with students. The final report, entitled "Psychological Counselling in Higher Education: A European Overview", was distributed in 1994, during the Fifth Congress of FEDORA. This is an important publication which gives us a solid common foundation of mutual understanding about the framework of counselling in each of our countries. The next steps (Table 2) were to pay attention at the counselling. In my opinion the main aim of the psychological counselling with students is to provide them direct support in order to: (i) help them overcome, easily and timely, difficulties of adjustment with regard to the new education setting; (ii) help them find out new effective ways of solving post-pubertal developmental queries and problems (Table 3).

Our symposium is divided into three sessions. Tables 4, 5 and 6 give us a full overview of the papers that will be presented today. Some of our colleagues did not make to be here with us today, so there will be some changes regarding the programme. P. Dias' and N. Rajnai's papers will be presented by J.A. Afonso and Z. Vajda, respectively.

For the organisation of these symposia, two persons have mainly contributed: the director of the Counselling Center for Students at the University of Wuppertal and our postgraduate student Evangelos Karadimas, who kept everybody informed and solved all practical problems. I would like to thank them for their valuable assistance.

Evangelos Karadimas got the idea of turning us back to our ancient Greek origins in order to define Counselling with regard to the Greek language (Table 7).

Table 1. *Milestones of the PSYCHE Group History.

<p>■ FEDORA: Forum Européen de l'Orientation Académique</p> <p>● PSYCHE: Psychological Counselling in Higher Education = Working group of FEDORA =</p> <p><i>1988, 3rd FEDORA Congress, Athens and Delphi:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Third European Conference on University Guidance – “Birth” of FEDORA – <i>Impetus</i> for the establishment of the PSYCHE
<p><i>1990, Amsterdam:</i> Meeting of 11 Student Counsellors with psychotherapeutic training name of the working group: PSYCHE</p>
<p><i>1991, 4th FEDORA Congress, Berlin: Fourth European Conference on University Guidance</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – PSYCHE is accepted by FEDORA as one of the 15 working groups
<p><i>1992, Meeting of 21 PSYCHE members, Naples.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Presentation of a publication based on a detailed report for the services offering psychological/psychotherapeutic help in the EU Universities.
<p><i>1994, 5th FEDORA Congress, Barcelona: “New Challenges for Guidance in Europe”</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Publication of the “Psychological Counselling in Higher Education. A European Overview”
<p><i>1995, IV European Congress of Psychology Athens</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Dr. G. Rott’ s, PSYCHE coordination: Keynote speech – 3 Sumposia organised by the PSYCHE Group (16 participants, 8 European States) – Meeting of the Greek PSYCHE members

Table 2. PSYCHE Future Development
(in "Psychological Counselling in Higher Education", 1994, pp. 25-26).

1. To <i>look at the Counselling Services in a more systematic way - exchange ideas about special methodological problems.</i>
2. To <i>define standards and qualifications for psychological and psychotherapeutic counselling in Higher Education.</i>
3. To <i>promote the idea that successful academic learning is not only a process of acquiring knowledge, but also implies personal growth and development. Therefore, is extremely necessary to magnify the counselling experts.</i>

Table 3. Aim of Psychological Counselling in Higher Education.

DIRECT PSYCHOLOGICAL SUPPORT ADDRESSED TO STUDENTS in order to:
i) help them <i>overcome</i> , easily and timely, difficulties of adjustment with regard to the new education setting;
ii) help them find <i>out new effective ways of solving</i> post-pubertal developmental queries and problems.

Table 4. PSYCHE Symposium: *First Session.*

Title: GAINING EXPERIENCE Chair: <i>A. Kalantzi-Azizi</i> Co-Chair: <i>Declan Aherne</i>
Participants: 1) <i>J. Elton-Wilson</i> : “Counselling students in the sort term, training counsellors to focus: one way of achieving quality within resource restrains”.
2) <i>P. Valerio</i> : “Psychological counselling with medical students”.
3) <i>M. Leventidou</i> : “Counselling Center for Students at the University of Athens: Two years of experience”.
4) <i>V. Tóth</i> : “Peer counselling in the Philosophy Faculty of the Eötvös Lorant University”.
5) <i>M. Serfozo</i> : “Peer counselling with teenagers - helping decision and preparation for future career of secondary school students”.

Table 5. PSYCHE Symposium: *Second Session.*

Title: INTERVENTIONS IN THE CONTEXT OF UNIVERSITY COUNSELLING CENTERS Chair: <i>A. Kalantzi-Azizi</i> Co-Chair: <i>J.P. Broonen</i>
Participants: 1) <i>B. Mette</i> : “Dealing with emotional problems of the modern students”.
2) <i>D. Aherne</i> : “Understanding student stress - a qualitative approach”.
3) <i>D. Charila</i> : “Case study of a student with test anxiety and agoraphobia”.
4) <i>Zsuzsa Vajda</i> : “Cope with the parents”.

Treating and Preventing Psychological Problems in Ancient Greece: A Brief Overview

1

E. C. KARADIMAS

All Sciences, including Psychology, represent uninterrupted evolution from simpler forms to more elaborated systems. It is not quite possible to pinpoint the date for the establishment of any science. However, Kantor (1983) believes that we could estimate the time that a first attempt was made to systematise propositions about a particular class of events or thoughts.

According to Kantor (1983, p.57), “Greeks were the first, so far as we can tell, to establish an authentic psychological science”. This took place earlier than the 5th century B.C.

The Hellenic origin of psychology, is an enormous issue and yet one of great interest. Greek scientists, like Aristoteles or Plato, systematised their psychological science in a holistic fashion (a principle that was forgotten for several centuries until recently). They developed their thoughts about psyche in conjunction with their viewing of the entire human being and its social life in the “polis” (that is, the city). Psychosomatic perfection was defined by them as “civilian perfection”.

It is beyond my present remit to examine the whole history of Greek psychological thought. For those interested, we refer to Kantor (1963, p. 51-154). Throughout this document we will try to highlight some aspects of this thought, emphasizing on beliefs about abnormal behaviour, its treatment and prevention.

Pre-Hippocratic period

Psychological disturbances have been reported by almost all ancient literature, but especially by the Greeks. Homer and the tragedians report a lot of “cases”. Aiadas’ and Hercules’ manic-depressive episodes, Orestis’ shizophreniform crisis and so on (Chartokolis, 1989).

It is well known that our ancestors regarded deviant behaviour, like other events that they could not explain, as the product of supernatural forces, such as Spirits and Gods. Usually, any kind of disturbance was attributed to Gods or demons and according to Homer and Isiodus, it was regarded as a punishment (in Greek: “temorea”) for a forbidden act (in Greek: “hyvris”). Sometimes the “pathogenic” god referred to as Mania and Lyssa. Ancient Greeks believed that Death and Hypnos (that is, sleep) were brothers. This probably reflects the impression that, during sleep, the human spirit could leave the body and travel to the world of spirits (dream). Thus, archaic Greeks believed that certain psychological problems are some kind of contact with the Spirits and the Gods.

In many ancient societies, there was a particular type of therapist who dealt with mental problems. He was called “shaman”. These “therapists” were trying to cure via a state of ecstasy during which they were coming in contact with the invisible and especially with the pathogenic Gods. Their mission was to persuade the god to let go of the ill person’s body or mind. We are not sure whether such a “therapy” was developed in Greece or not. However, we could detect a shamanism expression in the ceremonies of the Orphic Mysteries.

Post-Hippocratic period

Hippocrates, the great physician, known as the father of Medicine, was the first to declare in the 5th century B.C. that all illness, including mental problems, had an explainable, even hidden, natural cause. He was the first in Western Scientific History to describe mental disorders, such as phobias, hysteria, and postpartum psy-

chosis, and also to attribute epilepsy to some specific brain damage. Hippocrates classified abnormal mental states into three categories: mania, melancholia and phrenitis (that is, brain fever, from the Greek word “phrena” that means psychological - especially cognitive activities).

Hippocrates successors, namely Asclepiades and Galen continued his work. However, their contributions were more in the fields of theory and descriptions, than in the field of systematic therapy. Asclepiades, for example, described and differentiated between hallucinations, delusions and illusions.

Besides Hippocrates and his students, the famous philosopher Plato, in the 4th century B.C., supported a gentle treatment of the mentally ill (Alloy, Acocella, & Bootzin, 1996). Plato believed that the care of the mentally ill should be a family duty. Those who had psychological problems should not be punished in any way for their acts or sayings. The influence that Plato exerted over Greeks led to the establishment of retreats in favour of those with problems. For example, in Alexandria during the Hellenistic era (334-30 B.C.), special temples dedicated to Saturn were used as asylums for the mentally disturbed. They could recover there with the help of rest, physical exercise, special music, diet and abstinence from alcohol (Zilboorg & Henry, 1941). This tradition was continued during the following centuries in the Eastern Greek-Roman (Byzantine) Empire, with the assistance of the Church, with the so called “pious houses” (Christophilopoulou, 1991).

In mainland Greece, there were three important “therapeutic centres”, in Triki (in Thessalis, Central Greece), in Epidaurous (in Peloponnisos) and in the island of Kho (Chartokolis, 1989). These centres were called “Asclepisis” and they were temples dedicated to Asclepius who was the God of health. The “cure” in these temples was based on dream interpretation and personal counselling.

We must, however, notice that all the physicians of that time did not hold the same beliefs about psychological functioning and emotions. The great majority of the “philosophers-psychologists” had the same concept as Homer regarding the psyche, i.e. the centre of all emotions and psychological functioning, was located on the diaphragm and/or in the heart. Hippocrates, Plato and Democritus put

forth that the brain (in Greek “encephalos”) is responsible for all of the emotional life.

The Greek ideas were spread to the Romans. Markus Tullius Cicero used to be one of the Asclepiades’ students. In his notorious “*Tuscularum disputationem*”, he points out that “*abearum rerum est absentium metus, quarum est aegritudo*” (quoted in Eysenck, 1990, p. 5): In neurotic disorders anxiety (or fear) is felt of things that are not present; their presence causes distress. This concept is of Greek origin and it suggests a process of conditioned learning (Eysenck, 1990).

Some of the ideas that we regard as fundamental for psychology today, have their origin in ancient Greece. For example, Embedocles (4th century B.C.) believed that everything in this world has its origin in an endless combat between love (in Greek “*Filotis*”) and hate (in Greek “*neikos*”). Those concepts are equivalent to the two Freudian primary impulses: love and death.

Ancient Greek writers also founded a psychological theory that could resemble current cognitive psychology. Epictetus stated that “it is not the things that disturb humans, but the belief humans hold about the things”. Aristoteles had the same opinion to Epictetus. It is worthwhile noticing that Mahoney (1991) when reviewed 24 important handbooks in psychology, found that writers were referring to Aristoteles twice as many times as to any other philosopher or other scientist.

Prevention via education

According to Plato, a good mental condition was the result of a proper education as well as of diet, physical exercises and motivation control (Bozonis, 1995).

Greeks considered education to be a condition sine qua non in order to achieve the greatest physical, psychological and social development. Socrates declared that education was the supreme good for humans. The main aim of the Hellenic educational system was the development of both mind and body.

In Athens, in particular, the most important citizens supervised

the education of the youth. Through the education system, Athenians tried to create persons capable of solving real life problems in an effective and fair manner, as well as capable of initiating and maintaining good interpersonal relationships (Danassis-Afentakis, 1985). Today, it is well known that both problem solving and social support are two of the most important factors with respect to psychological as well as physiological health (Sarafino, 1990).

Isocrates, in his “panathinaikos” speech, put forth that good education results in a good (rational) way of thinking. Rational thinking is, according to him, the best way to overcome passions and disasters.

In Athens all children had to attend the “*scholeion*”, a kind of primary school. Children during the first years of their lives had to learn basic skills, such as writing and calculating. Later on they used to attend the “*afebeion*”, a type of secondary school, where they became familiarised with political, ethical and military issues as well as with religion (Patsis, 1981).

However, two aspects of this education system were unique:

- (a) All adolescents exercised their bodies in specific places referred to as “*gymnasia*”. Greeks, like Romans, used to say “*mens senus in corpore sano*”. They believed that a healthy body contributed to a healthy mind, and vice versa. Current science has documented the importance of physical exercise as a method of stress management (Fillingim & Blumenthal, 1993). It is also noteworthy that Greeks used another stress management technique, that is music (Maranto, 1993). Adolescents of that time used to play at least one musical instrument (usually a “*lyra*”).
- (b) The image of a bearded teacher holding a long stick, preserved on pottery paintings, is a famous one. According to Patsis (1981), this pedagogue was in fact a slave who fulfilled the duties of a male nurse. His duties were: first, to accompany his young master to the school, to the gymnasium and to the public ceremonies; second, to supervise his master’s personality development through the age of seven to the age of 15; third, to intervene in any difficult situation and correct his master’s attitude. Every young boy in Athens had his own pedagogue, whose only work was to supervise his master’s behaviour. Therefore, we

could describe this special relationship as the first systematic, other than parental (or even scholastic) effort for psychological guidance/counselling addressed to young people.

In the preceding paragraphs, we have tried to give a brief description of the ancient Greek beliefs about psychological health, as well as about treatment and prevention through education.

Our work, as psychologists or counsellors, shares a lot with the work of the ancient Athenian pedagogue: our work also includes an educational perspective (social skills teaching, coping strategies enrichment, strengthening of the client's personality). The ancient holistic ideal is now being translated into the cognitive - behavioural - emotional support of the young person (Rott, 1996).

Nowadays, the knowledge we have regarding psychology in general, and psychological problems and counselling in particular, is far more complete and solid. Our ancestors used only their mind and their personal experience as a means for understanding the surrounding world. Today, we use more "scientific" techniques, such as experiments and surveys. However, we do have something in common with our ancestors: Our way of thinking and processing information is the one that our Greek forefathers conceived more than 2.500 years ago.

References

- Alloy, I.R., Acocella, J., & Bootzin, R.R. (1996). *Abnormal psychology: Current perspectives*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Bosonis, G. (1995). Platonic psychology as self-knowledge. Paper presented in the IV European Congress of Psychology. Athens, Greece.
- Chartokolis, P. (1989). *Eisagogi stin psichiatriki*. [In Greek] [Introduction in Psychiatry]. Athens: Themelio.
- Christophilopoulou, A. (1991). *Byzantini Istorია*. [In Greek] [Byzantine history]. Athens:
- Danassis-Afentakis, A.K. (1985). *Eisagogi stin paidagogiki*. [In Greek] [Introduction in education]. Athens: University of Athens Press.
- Eysenck, H.J. (1990). Clinical psychology in Europe and in the United States: Development and future. In P.J.D. Drenth, J.A. Sergeant, & R.J. Takens (Eds.): *European perspectives in psychology* (vol. 2). London: Wiley.
- Filingim, R.B., & Blumenthal, J.A. (1993). The use of aerobic exercise as a method of stress management. In P.M. Lehrer, & R.L. Woolfolk (Eds.): *Principles and practice of stress management*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Kantor, J.R. (1963). *The scientific evolution of psychology*. I. Chicago, Illinois: The Principia Press.
- Mahoney, M. (1991). *Human change processes*. New York: Basic Books.
- Maranto, C.D. (1993). Music therapy and stress management. In P.M. Lehrer, & R.L. Woolfolk (Eds.): *Principles and practice of stress management*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Patsis, H.S. (1981). *Paedeia, agogi kai morfosi stin archaia Athina*. [In Greek] [Paedeia, education and learning in ancient Athens]. Article in the New Big Hellenic Encyclopaedia. Athens: Patsis Publishing Co.
- Rott, G. (1996). Interaction between emotion, cognition and behaviour as a focus for Higher Education and in student counselling. In J. Georgas, M. Manthouli, E. Besevegis, & A. Kokkevi (Eds.). *Contemporary Psychology in Europe: Theory, research and application*. Proceedings of the IVth European Congress in Psychology. Gottingen: Hogrefe & Huber Publishers.
- Sarafins, E.P. (1990). *Health Psychology: Biopsychosocial interactions*. New York: Wiley.
- Zilboorg, G., & Henry, G.W. (1941). *A history of medical psychology*. New York: Norton.

2

Practice and Research in Psychological and Psychotherapeutic Student Counselling in the European Context

GERHART ROTT

Psychology, in comparison to philosophy, theology, medicine, law and natural sciences, is a young enterprise in the modern academic world. This is true for psychology as a special science and even more as a profession. With its beginnings in the second half of the last century, psychology has only in this century established itself as an academic discipline in its own right (Schmidt, 1978; Reinert & Wittlig, 1980).

The development both of psychology and of psychotherapy must be viewed against the background of the scientific, technological and social progress of our time. Psychology and psychotherapy have established themselves as academic disciplines and special professions within this framework. Though the basic issues of psychology and psychotherapy are not new (according to Karadimas (in this book) they already existed in ancient Greece), the disciplines have themselves created new frameworks and a new kind of knowledge. These two disciplines strive to understand the basic elements of human existence and their interconnection with social relations in ways that correspond to the times in which we live. Within the vast changes that took place in society through the processes of industrialization -changes that revolutionised man's relation to the outer world- new ways emerged to understand the inner world of human beings and the interaction between both inner and outer worlds.

Wundt (1950, p. 89), one of the founders of modern empirical psychology, underlines the psychophysical unity of the individual. At the same time he emphasises the necessity of the two different views of the individual in a programmatic way. The view taken by the natural sciences has to be complemented by psychological research, not only because psychology examines how emotions and affects are related to consciousness but since “all our cultural values develop out of immediate conscious experience and can only be understood in relation to this” (ibid., p. 96).

Classifying sociology as an applied psychology, Freud, the founder of modern psychotherapy, stated that strictly speaking only two sciences exist: psychology (both pure and applied) and natural science (Freud, 1967, p. 194).

Grawe, Donati and Bernauer (1994) use the model of the interaction between dominant consciousness and historic-social living conditions described by Zwilgmeier (1981). Against this background Grawe, Donati and Bernauer analyse the emergence of psychology and psychotherapy as a result of the general development of consciousness, “which many individuals in our society have already carried out”. The reflective distance which was originally focused on nature, began to be relevant for the individual. Now he could face himself in this reflective, distant way and objectively analyse himself in his psychological existence (Grawe, Donati, & Bernauer, 1994, p. 6).

If one considers, for example, the rapid development of psychology as a health profession in the United States (Fowler, 1996; Eifert & Lauterbach, 1995), one gets a deeper understanding of the possible dynamic social implication of this reflective distance, with which the growth of psychology and psychotherapy as academic disciplines and professions are intimately connected.

* * *

Within this context of social change, psychology and psychotherapy developed as comparatively young academic disciplines with a vast body of scientific and professional knowledge behind them. Only recently has their potential been considered as a way of contributing

to higher education itself and to supporting students and their educational processes.

With some few exceptions, student counselling services have emerged in the European context only in the last 25-30 years. In some southern European countries this process only started at the end of the eighties (Bell, McDevitt, Rott, & Valerio, 1994; Rott, 1996). The various expansions of the systems of higher education in the European countries played an important role in this foundation process (Bell, 1996, p. 17).

Psychology, as well as psychotherapy, have made scientific knowledge available and have in this way shaped practical solutions for the problems that arise in higher education. They have influenced both the political and academic institutions, which have decided to set up student counselling services, as well as the student counsellors, who have organised these services and tried to put student counselling into practice (Bell et al., 1994; Figge, 1995; Bell, 1996).

In the field of psychotherapy, counselling methods had already been elaborated and developed (Sahakian, 1976), and these have spread through society and to the universities during the seventies. Some of the characteristics of these counselling methods helped to develop specific interventions for students in their specific working and living environments. Not only humanistic approaches, like person-centered therapy and gestalt-therapy, but also psychodynamic and behavioural therapy yielded intervention methods which could be more easily integrated into the academic context. These features included: the emphasis on personal growth and development in personal disorders (Rogers, 1976); the relation of behavioural modification and training to educational settings (Belschner, Hoffmann, Schott, & Schulze, 1975; Meichenbaum, 1979, p. 96); and the focus on "counter-transference and empathy", "holding and containment", "dialogue" and developmental psychology in psychoanalysis (Pines, 1996, p. 385). They also helped to bring about a "change in thinking from seeing students in emotional or psychological difficulties as people who are ill, to seeing them as those who may well be undergoing normal developmental difficulties" (Bell, 1996, p. 5).

Inasmuch as it uses these developing clinical methods, student

counselling can be perceived as a practical activity within the discipline of applied psychology: one that uses psychotherapeutic and counselling methods in the specific context of tertiary education. But if one takes a closer look, one cannot avoid asking the question: "what is the link between the unique body of scientific knowledge and its application in the field" (Lunt, 1996, p. 44). The success of student counselling has relied upon the ability of student counselors to integrate complex demands within the institutions of higher education. It has also called for a more complex understanding than the body of psychological science can provide. Creative intuition, flexibility and an open-minded perspective on the effectiveness of procedures and applications has produced new ad hoc insights, explanations and new knowledge. A British colleague once told me how she convinced the high-ranking board of academics who interviewed her not by emphasising scientific legitimisation and explanation, but by saying that student counselling was useful since it worked and she saw it working. This secure, pragmatic basis in everyday experience has become an important element in the evolution of professional knowledge. For the field of student counselling probably a large number of colleagues in the various European countries will use Louw's description of applied psychology' as "knowledge that is developed in practice" (Louw 1992, p. 55). In his contribution to the controversial debate on the dualism of theory and practice in applied psychology (Landy, 1992; Levy-Leboyer, 1992; Louw, 1992; von Mayerhauser, 1992; Sahikian, 1992; Sugiman, 1992; Semmer, 1992; Schönplflug, 1992 a & b; de Wolff, 1992), Louw uses the term "practical psychology" to underline the genuine importance of "on-the-job experience" (Louw, 1992, p. 55). At the same time, the "combination of practical experience and theoretical insight" (Bell, 1996, p. 7) was another feature in the maturation process of student counselling.

To some extent this process of theoretical thinking was accompanied by specialised research. In Germany "working models" were set up within various universities with a view to establishing Student Counselling Services, and these also contributed research in the field of student needs and the evaluation of applied methods of counselling (Figge, Kaiphas, Knigge-Illner, & Rott, 1995; Rott &

Wickel, 1996). In special fields, like procrastination or learning inhibitions, special research was carried out by student counsellors. The combination of these different approaches, attitudes, theories, applications and activities created a professional field as a “social reality” with its “specific meaning and relevant structure” (Schutz, 1954), in which everyday life and work interacted with institutional contexts and with the creation of concepts and standards (Rott, 1986, p. 239).

* * *

Three stimuli encourage us to take new steps to examine the results of these developments in student counselling during the seventies and eighties:

1. European integration requires closer communication in all fields of higher education. This demands that we make much more explicit the background of practical work, as well as its theoretical assumptions and implications in the field of student counselling. Communication beyond national borders and cultures also demands a better understanding of one’s own culture. The common European standards require a better understanding of these counselling concepts and methods and the development of professionalism in guidance and counselling at the European universities (Bell, 1991; Klaus, 1991; Rott, 1991).
2. The mechanisms of finance and control in higher education have changed dramatically in recent years in countries like the UK and the Netherlands. In other countries far reaching structural changes seem to be possible although their scope is not yet quite clear (e.g. Germany). The question of efficiency and effectiveness, the question of goals and means in higher education are generally discussed inside the European Union. Student Counsellors have to define their positions in this dialogue.
3. There are now a larger number of more experienced colleagues working as student counsellors in the various European countries, who want to examine more closely the work they do. Some produce more coherent descriptions of the practical procedures they are working with. Some initiate research projects and some

carry out research projects by themselves. In addition to that, clinical psychologists, who as scientists undertake relevant research projects, are having an important influence on the establishment of Student Counselling Services in southern European countries. These services have been established only in the course of the last five to seven years - for instance in Greece and Portugal.

* * *

It seems to me to be helpful in this context to link the issue of communication in student counselling with the more general debates on practice and research in psychology.

In his leading lecture at the IV European Congress of Psychology -drawing on the above mentioned debate with Schönplflug-Drenth tried to specify the status of psychology as a science and to identify the questions of its relevance in the practical world.

He was concerned with “the integrity of science on the one hand and the prevalence of pragmatic, utilitarian, non-scientific criteria on the other” (Drenth, 1996, p. 26). He wanted to reflect systematically the tension between these two claims of truthfulness (veracity) and usefulness (relevance) in order to reconcile them. He constructed a relevant space of science in which he distinguished three major dimensions: *intrinsic relevance*, *instrumental relevance* and *contributive relevance*.

Intrinsic relevance is concerned with “the seeking of answers to existential questions” (ibid., p. 39), which Drenth sees as “a unique characteristic of the human species and a motor for its development” (ibid., p. 28) [e.g. the origin of the earth, the nature of matter, the sense of meaning and life, the essence of communication between creatures, the shaping of values and norms (ibid.)].

Instrumental relevance is concerned with the “immediate or indirect application of research” into practical tools and instruments, which Drenth sees as including less technological but still functional contributions. These can “lead to important breakthroughs in preventative or therapeutic approaches or in developmental or intervention practices” (ibid., p. 29) (e.g. “the stimulating work of Freud or Rogers

for clinical applications” or “Bandura’s social learning” or “Lewin’s field theory for individual and organisational development”).

Contributive relevance assesses how research can “contribute to better judgement, to more appropriate decision-making and to more suitable interventions in a variety of contexts” (ibid.).

This *space* or *sphere of relevance* encloses the *knowledge cube* which clarifies the dimension of veracity. In Drenth’s model three dimensions with polar attributes generate eight cubes which represent “types of scientific knowledge” within the larger cube. The dimensions which constitute these subcategories are described in the following way:

- *pure versus applied research*, where the origin of the research is the important criterion. If the origin has “scientific curiosity” (ibid. p. 32) then it is pure or if it has “a practical question, difficulty or dilemma” (ibid.) it is applied research;
- *monodisciplinary versus complex-systems (multidisciplinary) research*, refers to the differentiation “between: (a) a well-defined experimentally controllable research design, where concessions are made to reality-value or ecological validity in order to maintain a controllable and standardised research procedure” (ibid., p. 33) and (b) the acknowledgement of “real life” problems without allowing their “unrealistic and artificial procrastination in order to meet the requirements of disciplinary experimentation” (ibid.);
- *general and individual research* both have to fulfil the same task to “aim at and lead to generalisable laws and insights in human behaviour”. This task may also be fulfilled with the help of “in-depth analyses of individual persons or phenomena” (ibid., p. 34) but that is not identical with the “aim to gain insight into a particular situation (in order to improve it) or a single individual (in order to help him/her)” (ibid.).

In a certain sense Drenth draws a strict line between psychology as a science and practical applications where “the utilisation of knowledge in decisions, actions and interventions” (ibid.) takes place. He underlines the fact that the criterion in these latter instances is no “longer truthfulness and scientific veracity” and that psychotherapists, organisational developers and personnel selection

psychologists are (in this sense) not scientists but “social workers” (ibid.).

* * *

At this point Drenth’s differentiation seems to me too rigid. For the development of student counselling it is important to reflect interactively the relation between scientific knowledge, research and professional knowledge. A “scientist-practitioner” model, which “consists of training in both scientific and practitioner activities” is, in contrast to the USA, not widespread in Europe (Eifert & Lauterbach, 1995; Heppner et al., 1992). However there is a “practitioner-scientist”-role which is often implicit within the thinking of the individual student counsellor. When student counsellors try to find out, for example how their clients are coping with their learning experiences, how they are handling separation from their families, and how they are developing as young adults, they try to make successful interventions. At the same time they might question their own judgements and look for theoretical models to provide them with wider meaning. This might be transformed into more formalised thinking, and in some cases into formalised research. Here too, then, to use Drenth’s terms, *truthfulness* goes along with *usefulness*.

There are four basic areas in which this kind of “search for truth” may occur:

- the personal development of late adolescent and young adults;
- the conditions of academic achievement and failure;
- the effects of applied psychotherapeutic, psychological and counselling methods;
- the context of higher education.

Research questions can arise in one of these fields or more often in a combination of them.

Investigating these questions, student counsellors can contribute to a more specific diagnosis and to more effective counselling interventions and treatments.

For example, in the International diagnostic guidelines for the mental and behavioural and developmental disorders, ICD 10, (Dilling, Mombour, & Schmidt, 1991) *exam anxiety* is just listed as

one of the *specific (isolated) phobias* besides *animal phobia, claustrophobia, acrophobia and simple phobia*. This group belongs together with agoraphobia, other anxiety disorders and not further defined anxiety mental disorders to the section 4.0 *phobic mental disorders* as a part of the *neurotic, stress and somatoform mental disorders* (F4). Though exam anxiety is listed in the ICD 10, it is not differentiated enough as far as the cognitive, emotional, physiological and behavioural elements are concerned. The concept needs more diagnostic explication to be adequate for the differentiated problems which students have and to develop more specific treatments and trainings. The rich experience student counsellors have of exam anxiety contribute to an improved diagnostic differentiation of the condition, and can relate it to other psychological concepts. Within the Association for Student Counselling (ASC) project "Categorisation of Client Issues" interesting beginnings have been made in this direction (Green, Parker, & Patten, 1995/1996).

Other possible research questions include: With what kind of instruments can personality changes be measured? How and to what extent do different student counselling methods contribute to these changes? In what way do personality traits evoke certain behavioural patterns in higher education? How far can these behavioural patterns be influenced by counselling? Another task would be to analyse the improvement in study methods and study skills as a behavioural modification connected with cognitive attributions of failure and success. Finally, the needs and expectations of students in relation to the student counselling centres must be examined (Figge, 1991).

* * *

Student Counselling reflects the more general background of recent research in psychotherapy. The aspects of this research that are most relevant to the counsellor are:

- goal setting in counselling and therapy (Greve, 1993);
- measuring the effects and the success of psychotherapy (Schulte, 1993);
- the control of the quality of psychotherapy (Grawe & Braun, 1994, p. 234);

- what are the decisive elements in psychotherapy and how do particular treatments fit specific problems (Grawe, Donati, & Bernauer, 1994).

When analysing emerging topics in student counselling more accurately, one should not forget that the success of student counselling quite often depends on the rich differences in approach and method between one practitioner and another. This richness seems particularly appropriate to the highly complex structures of a University. The diversity is even more visible when one looks at practice on a European scale (Bell, 1991, p. 7).

This complexity might be reflected in multidisciplinary complex system research approaches (Drenth, 1996), which would provide a better chance to master the richness of the field. Heppner et al. demand “multiple research designs” and “paradigmatic diversity” (Heppner et al., 1992, p. 75) and ask for a balance of research, since this will help to avoid the possibility that “all the research will contain the same flaws and blind spots”. In his outline of the system-oriented approach to clinical psychology, Shiepek calls for ‘methodological plurality’ to be added to “conceptual plurality” (1994, p. 90) in order to avoid one-sidedness. Interest in the interconnectedness of the world should be joined with a will to interdisciplinary co-operation, and both of which depend on: intellectual honesty and a broad education.

* * *

All four basic areas mentioned above -the areas with which student counsellors come into contact- played a role in the symposium whose findings are published here.

Valerio and *Wilson* provide presentations of practical working experience. One can perceive these as descriptions of complex interactive social systems applying scientific and professional knowledge. The conceptualisation of the objectives of the counselling services and their work with students, as well as the relation between these concepts and theoretical constructs concerning the socialisation of students, the university context and the organisational frame-

work of counselling, open these experiences to a larger public. The presentations contain both implicit hypotheses which invite further complex system research and show the degree of professional competence already achieved.

Bauer, on the other hand, relates this complexity in the social context to the basic psychoanalytic concept of the self, which mirrors the social environment in a different way. In this way she takes a step towards providing a deeper psychological understanding and a more truthful analysis of modern higher education.

Generalisation and general concepts are a necessary instrument to interpret complex interventions. But it is also necessary to go the opposite way - to break down concepts into parts, to make them more accurate and to improve their clarity and accuracy. Formalised research is an important instrument here.

Aherne's analysis of the developmental tasks of young adults and late adolescents in their relation to stress and threats to the self makes the concept of self-adequacy more accessible. His analyses of the interdependence of academic concerns, of the significance of the family and of social relationships help to produce a model of student stress which has a functional relevance for student counselling interventions, but which also enhances the psychological understanding of students in higher education.

The use of psychological theories in student counselling must always be open to correction and improvement with a view to a more subtle understanding of their practical implications. Empirical research, like that of *Bronen* on "individualism as a function of cultural variation", makes clear how important cultural influences can be. The differentials yielded by his additional research help to understand how over-generalisation in psychological concepts needs to be avoided. Here too, as far as they influence our models of intervention, questions of truth have functional relevance. These differences suggest the need to understand scientific knowledge not as a product, but as a continuous process of clarification.

In practice there are natural limits to scientifically backed explanation. However, this does not mean that scientifically backed concepts should not be used to build up practical models of intervention. *Kalantzi-Azizi* and *Karadimas* show how recent pure research

on the concept of temperament might be extremely relevant for student counselling and for a better and deeper psychological understanding of the student. At the same time they make clear that we need additional applied research to help improve differentiation in counselling interventions, especially in the field of study ability.

On the other hand, applied research on basic aspects of socialisation in the student population raises further question for pure research, as *Christopoulos* shows in her study on mental health issues. Her report helps at the same time to clarify the background of work with students, and to contribute to cross-cultural psychology and personality theory.

The evaluation of the outcomes of counselling and training interventions is an important step in judging the effects -and effectiveness- of work with students. As has been pointed out above, the importance of this kind of research will probably rise in the context of evaluative approaches in psychotherapy. *Malikiosi-Loizos's* analysis, which is primarily concerned with counselling skills in future teachers, touches on the more general question of training communicative competence among students, and at the same time provides a framework for evaluative studies.

Both the practical experience and the research reports demonstrate that there is an *intrinsic* relevance to understanding the psychology of students in higher education. The reports also demonstrate their *contributive* relevance for all those who are concerned with decision making in the politics of higher education.

This symposium has contributed to the fulfilment of these tasks at an adequate theoretical and practical level. It has helped to define constructively the relation between professional knowledge, scientific knowledge and professional competence (Lunt, 1996) in the field of student counselling on a European scale. We are aware of the fact that our work is a first step which others have to follow. Sometimes first steps are the most important.

- Bell, E. (1991). Counselling methods and concepts. In Hochschulrektorenkonferenz (Ed.) *Ein Jahr davor: Studieren in Europa* (Vol. 72, pp. 306-317). Bonn/Berlin: Dokumente zur Hochschulreform.
- Bell, E., McDevitt, C., Rott, G., & Valerio, p. (Eds.). (1994). *Psychological counselling in higher education*. Napoli: La Città Del Sole.
- Bell, E. (1996). *Counselling in Further and Higher Education*. Buckingham, Philadelphia: Open University Press.
- Belschner, W., Hoffmann, M., Schott, F. & Schulze, C. (1975). *Verhaltenstherapie in Erziehung und Unterricht*. (3rd ed.). Stuttgart, Berlin, Köln, Mainz: Verlag W. Kohlhammer (1973).
- Dilling, H., Mombour, W., Schmidt, M.H. (1991). *Internationale Klassifikation psychischer Störungen, ICD 10 Kapitel V (F)*. Bern, Göttingen, Toronto, Seattle: Verlag Hans Huber Authorised German Edition. Original Edition: World Health Organisation (1991) Tenth Revision of the International Classification of Diseases, Chapter V (F): Mental and Behavioural Disorders (including Disorders of Psychological Development) Clinical Descriptions and Diagnostic Guidelines. World Health Organisation.
- Drenth, P. J. D. (1996). Psychology as a science: Truthful or useful? In Georgas, J., Manthouli, M., Besevegis, E. & Kokkevi, A. (Eds.) *Contemporary Psychology in Europe: Theory, Research, and Application*, Proceedings of the IVth European Congress of Psychology (pp. 23-40). Seattle, Toronto, Göttingen, Bern: Hogrefe & Huber Publishers.
- Eifert, G. H. & Lauterbach, W. (1995). Das Wissenschaftler-Praktiker Modell zur Ausbildung von klinischen Psychologen/Psychotherapeuten: Erfahrungen und Vorschläge aus amerikanischer Sicht. In *Zeitschrift für Klinische Psychologie: Forschung und Praxis* (Vol. 24, 3, pp. 209-215). Göttingen, Bern, Toronto, Seattle: Hogrefe, Verlag für Psychologie.
- Figge, P. (1991). Die Ansprechbarkeit von Studierenden für Beratung. In Hochschulrektorenkonferenz (Ed.) *Ein Jahr davor: Studieren in Europa* (Vol. 72, pp. 210-215). Bonn/Berlin: Dokumente zur Hochschulreform.
- Figge, P., Kaiphas, W., Knigge-Illner, H. & Rott, G. (1995). *Psychologische Studienberatung an deutschen Hochschulen: Eine empirische Studie zu Kontext, institutionellen Bedingungen und Aufgaben*. München: Lexika Verlag.
- Fowler, R. D. (1996). The future of psychology as a health care profession. In Georgas, J., Manthouli, M., Besevegis, E., & Kokkevi, A. (Eds.) *Contem-*

- porary Psychology in Europe: Theory, Research, and Application*, Proceedings of the IVth European Congress of Psychology (pp. 80-87). Seattle, Toronto, Göttingen, Bern: Hogrefe & Huber Publishers.
- Freud, S. (1967). *Gesammelte Werke, Neue Folge der Vorlesungen zur Einführung in die Psychoanalyse* (Vol. XV, 4th ed.). Frankfurt am Main: S. Fischer Verlag.
- Grawe, K. & Braun, U. (1994). Qualitätskontrolle in der Psychotherapiepraxis. In *Zeitschrift für Klinische Psychologie* (Vol. XXIII, 4, pp. 242-267). Göttingen: Hogrefe-Verlag.
- Grawe, K., Donati R., & Bernauer, F. (1994). *Psychotherapie im Wandel, Von der Konfession zur Profession* (4th ed.). Göttingen: Hogrefe, Verlag für Psychologie.
- Green, A. Parker, L., & Patten, M. (1995/1996). (Association for Student Counselling - Research sub committee: Categorization of Client Issues - Questionnaire and papers-) (unpublished). Available from Lesly Parker University of Hertfordshire - Hatfield Herts.
- Greve, W. (1993). Ziele therapeutischer Intervention: Probleme der Bestimmung, Ansätze der Beschreibung, Möglichkeiten der Begründung und Kritik. In *Zeitschrift für Klinische Psychologie* (Vol. XXII, 4, pp. 347-373). Göttingen, Bern, Toronto, Seattle: Hogrefe, Verlag für Psychologie.
- Hepner, P.P., Kivlighan Jr., D.M., & Wampold, B.E. (1992). *Research Design in Counselling*. Pacific Grove, California: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.
- Klaus, J. (1991). University guidance systems in Europe. In Hochschulrektorenkonferenz (Ed.) *Ein Jahr davor: Studieren in Europa* (Vol. 72, pp. 83-90). Bonn/Berlin: Dokumente zur Hochschulreform.
- Landy, F.J. (1992). Basic Applied Psychology: Which is the Cart and Which is the Horse? In *Applied Psychology* (Vol. 42, pp. 49-51). Hove, East Sussex: Erlbaum, Taylor and Francis.
- Levy-Leboyer, C. (1992). The Chicken and the Egg: Which Came First. In *Applied Psychology* (Vol. 42, pp. 52- 54). Hove, East Sussex: Erlbaum, Taylor and Francis.
- Louw, J. (1992). The history of psychology, applied psychology, and professionalisation. In *Applied Psychology* (Vol. 42, pp. 54-57). Hove, East Sussex: Erlbaum, Taylor and Francis.
- Lunt, I. (1996). Competent to practise in psychology? In Georgas, J., Manthouli, M., Besevegis, E., & Kokkevi, A. (Eds.) *Contemporary Psychology in Europe: Theory, Research, and Application*, Proceedings of the IVth European Congress of Psychology (pp. 43-54). Seattle, Toronto, Göttingen,

- Bern: Hogrefe & Huber Publishers.
- von Mayerhauser, R. T. (1992). Applied Dualism: An Old Deception in New Employment. In *Applied Psychology* (Vol. 42, pp. 30-37), Hove, East Sussex: Erlbaum, Taylor and Francis.
- Meichenbaum, D. W. (1979). *Kognitive Verhaltensmodifikation*. München, Wien, Baltimore: Urban und Schwarzenberg.
- Pines, M. (1996). From patriarchy to partnership in psychotherapy. In Georgas, J., Manthouli, M., Besevegis, E., & Kokkevi, A. (Eds.) *Contemporary Psychology in Europe: Theory, Research, and Application*, Proceedings of the IVth European Congress of Psychology (pp. 378-385). Seattle, Toronto, Göttingen, Bern: Hogrefe & Huber Publishers.
- Reinert, G. & Wittling, W. (1980). Klinische Psychologie, Konzepte und Tendenzen. In Werner Wittling (Ed.) (1980) *Handbuch der Klinischen Psychologie Vol.I: Methoden der klinisch-psychologischen Diagnostik* (pp. 14-80), Hamburg: Hoffmann und Campe.
- Rogers, C. R. (1976). *Entwicklung der Persönlichkeit - Psychotherapie aus der Sicht eines Therapeuten*. Stuttgart: Ernst Klett Verlag. Original Edition (1961) *On becoming a Person. A Therapist's View of Psychotherapy*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Rott, G. (1986). Challenges to the Counsellor in a Changing World - the Impact of Environmental Changes in Universities on the Concepts of Student Counselling. In *International Journal for the Advancement of Counselling* 9: 237-249. Netherlands: Martinus Nijhoff Publishers, Dordrecht.
- Rott, G. (1991). Counselling concepts and methods: The development of professionalism in guidance and counselling at European universities. In Hochschulrektorenkonferenz (Ed.) *Ein Jahr davor: Studieren in Europa* (Vol. 72, pp. 91-104). Bonn/Berlin: Dokumente zur Hochschulreform.
- Rott, G. (1996). Psychologische Studierendenberatung im Europäischen Vergleich; Schnittflächen zur allgemeinen Studienberatung. In *Symposium, Studentenberatung in Österreich 28.-29.9.1995* (pp. 59-69). Wien: Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft, Verkehr und Kunst.
- Rott, G. & Wickel, W. (1996). Student counselling in Germany: An overview. In *International Journal for the Advancement of Counselling* 18: 1-18. Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Sahikian, W.S. (1976). *Psychotherapy and Counselling, Techniques in Intervention* (2nd ed.). Chicago: Rand Mc Nally College Publishing Company.
- Schönplflug, W. (1992a). Applied Psychology-Newcomer with a long Tradition. In *Applied Psychology* (Vol. 42, pp. 5-30). Hove, East Sussex: Erlbaum, Taylor and Francis.

- Schönpflug, W. (1992b). Practical and Theoretical Psychology: Singles with Wedding Rings? In *Applied Psychology* (Vol. 42, pp. 58-66). Hove, East Sussex: Erlbaum, Taylor and Francis.
- Schmidt, L. R. (1978). Klinische Psychologie - Definitionen, Tätigkeitsfelder, Geschichte, Ausbildung und berufsständische Situation. In Schmidt, L. R., *Lehrbuch der klinischen Psychologie* (pp. 3-28). Stuttgart: Ferdinand Enke Verlag.
- Schulte, D. (1993). Wie soll Therapieerfolg gemessen werden? In *Zeitschrift für Klinische Psychologie* (Vol. XXII, 4, pp. 374-393). Göttingen, Bern, Toronto, Seattle: Hogrefe Verlag für Psychologie.
- Schutz, A. (1954). Concept and theory formation in the social sciences. In *Journal of Philosophy* (Vol. 51, pp. 257-73). Lancaster: Lancaster Press Inc.
- Semmer, N. (1992). Differentiation between Social Groups: The Case of Basic and Applied Psychology. In *Applied Psychology* (Vol. 42, pp. 40-46). Hove, East Sussex: Erlbaum, Taylor and Francis.
- Shiepek, G. (1994). Der systemwissenschaftliche Ansatz in der Klinischen Psychologie. In *Zeitschrift für Klinische Psychologie* (Vol. XXIII, 2, pp. 77-92). Göttingen, Bern, Toronto, Seattle: Hogrefe Verlag für Psychologie.
- Sugiman, T. (1992). Applied and Basic Psychology: Towards a Dynamic, Bidirectional Relationship. In *Applied Psychology* (Vol. 42, pp. 39-46). Hove, East Sussex: Erlbaum, Taylor and Francis.
- de Wolff, Ch. (1992). Developments in Applied Psychology. In *Applied Psychology* (Vol. 42, pp. 54-57). Hove, East Sussex: Erlbaum, Taylor and Francis.
- Wundt, W. (1950). *Einführung in die Psychologie*. Bonn: Verlag der Dürschens Buchhandlung.
- Zwillingmeier, K. (1981). *Stufen des Ich. Bewusstseinsentwicklung der Menschheit in Gesellschaft und Kultur*. Fellbach: Bonz.

SECTION 2

**RESEARCH
APPROACHES
TO STUDENT NEEDS**

The Students and the Academic Institutions: An Italian Experience

3

PAOLO VALERIO

Introduction

The difficulties facing adolescents are well-known. The problems of youth, “the new generation”, “troubled youth”, “student dissent” are currently topics of the utmost concern to most European countries where adolescents are struggling to define new modes of conduct relevant to their lives. A new socially regulated age group has gradually been created all over Europe; this includes the young men and women at universities and graduate schools who can’t seem to “settle down” the way their parents did, who refuse to consider themselves adult, and who often vehemently challenge the existing social order. This group is mainly made up of individuals who don’t have an economic base themselves but are, however, independent in social, moral, intellectual, political and erotic-sexual ways.

I refer to those young people between 18 and 25 years of age who are still in a situation of dependence within the familial context. These students have not got over adolescence, since they haven’t completed the developing tasks that commonly confront adolescents in Western society, namely: (a) coming to terms with physical and sexual maturity; (b) redefining social roles, including achieving autonomy from parents; and (c) deciding upon occupational goals.

The factors that have brought this new group into existence are varied: rising prosperity, the further continuation of their education, the enormously high educational demands of a post industrial society. For these young people, who can be referred to as “late adolescents and young adults”, the problem seems to be related to the transition to adulthood and to the moment at which such a change takes place.

Postponing the period of adolescence is not a solution. However one can suggest that overcoming it and entering into adulthood is the result of a complex and prolonged process of transition that occurs mainly by means of a gradual move towards this goal, characterized by phases of advancement and retreat. Rapid steps forward or signs of slowing down and stalling stem from this and are often witnessed during the growth of adolescents. For many young people, the period coinciding with their university studies constitutes the period during which this transition happens (Blos, 1962, 1979; Canestrari, 1989; Danon-Boileau, 1984; Henry, 1985). Therefore the academic institution seems to make up the natural container used to cope with the transition from adolescence to adulthood or, at least, a not insignificant part of this process.

Young people and educational institutions

Within contemporary society, scholarly institutions punctuate and organize growing up, define the stages and abilities and structure something akin to stages of development. This enables them, on analogy with primitive initiation rites (Van Geppen, 1909), to provide a kind of social regularization of the phases of growing up, and also ensures that the process of an individual’s maturity presents a strict relationship within the context in which it takes place. Due to this, even the academic institution, with its members and the goals it aims to achieve, makes up an important element to which the processes of maturation must refer. It serves as an external regulator and, as such, it can nurture, facilitate or, on the contrary, slow down and permanently halt the evolutionary development of the young person. Indeed, the status of the university student adds some spe-

cific elements to the general difficulties of the younger population.

The beginning of university studies represents the first entrance into adult life for many young people, but also corresponds to a long period of suspension as far as social duties and definitive choices are concerned. This can encourage an indeterminacy in personal and social identity which can provide fertile ground for potential crises. The expectations related to study, the questions and doubts about the future, the efforts and eventual frustrations linked to awaited but unfulfilled results, constitute factors of stress that can produce a decline in motivation and the fear of facing new trials (Melucci, 1992).

On the other hand, educational institutions are not facilitating environments for growth and development. In Europe, education is increasingly conducted as an ego activity; it is about performance and quantifiable achievement; about the acquisition and assessment of a narrow range of knowledge; about preparing for work, rather than having an experience in living. In this pressure to achieve, there is very little respect for the idea of emotional growth. Whatever personal interests students may have, they have to forget them, as in the more competitive universities they are sitting 4 or 5 exams, along with other assorted intermediate and advanced exams; no opportunities are offered to them, nor are they encouraged to dedicate themselves to other interests.

Problems related to study can become a means by which students tend to express an emotional unease which, though having its origin in deep, unresolved conflicts deriving from the past, can be set off by the confrontation with the institutional context in which they find themselves (Canestrari, 1989; Erikson, 1959; Halton, 1988). These unresolved psychological problems often undermine the possibility of success. Such problems may include hatred of authority, envy of the teacher's superior knowledge and position, intolerance over the exposure to ignorance, destructive competitiveness, excessive perfectionism and the unconscious perverse desire to fail in order to punish parents and teachers. Consequently, academic institutions are not only faced with the traditional task of educating young people, but also with supplying them with help in the process of adapting to the role which they face (university stu-

dent) and the inherent tasks attached to it: (1) joining the institution; (2) doing the work of the course; (3) being examined; (4) leaving the institution. This progressive sequences of tasks must be successfully completed if the student, who is not always well prepared to handle these tasks, is to succeed. Two of them are clearly academic (i.e. “doing the work of the course” and “being examined”), whereas “joining” and “leaving” are part of the student-role tasks but not academic as such. A concern for these two tasks takes the academic staff beyond the academic boundary but not beyond the bounds of what is required from the student in order to succeed as a member of the academic institution.

University students and counselling services

Each of those tasks makes a demand on both intellectual and emotional capacities and in order to realize developmental aspirations students have to struggle with normal anxieties, unrealistic expectations and unresolved psychological problems (Halton, 1988). It becomes, then, necessary to organize a space within the University environment where students may be helped to explore the internal difficulties which impede the realization of potential. In such a setting the counsellor may act as a container for anxiety and as a mediator between different internal parts of the personality, between destructive tendencies, between adult and infantile emotional needs.

The greater awareness among the scientific community of the relationship between lack of academic success and unresolved emotional problems, has led in recent years to the creation of Psychological Counselling Services, even in countries such as Italy, Greece, Spain where traditionally there were no such initiatives designed to help university students.

We have, until now, examined together several of the internal factors that may be responsible for the emotional unease felt by students. Added to these are other external ones related to the transformations that have been applied to Western society and to the system of higher education in Europe.

As far as the first point is concerned, behind the many changes

with which young people have had to cope in recent years, there are a few trends which are not easily measurable but are very important such as: the rapid rate of social change that threatens to make all institutions, values, methodologies and technologies obsolete within the life time of each generation; a technology that has created not only prosperity and longevity, but also the power to destroy the planet, whether through warfare or the violation of nature's balance; a world of extraordinarily complex social organization, instant communication and constant revolution.

With respect to the educational system, we have had: an enormous increase in the number of students entitled to go to university in the last few years (in Italy there are some universities with more than 100.000 students enrolled). There has been structural change and differentiation of subjects of study within our colleges. Problems of selection of subjects; high number of dropouts; and difficulties in finding suitable links between the educational and the employment system (Rott, 1986) are all in evidence at modern third level institutions.

There are, therefore, many factors, both external and internal, which are responsible for the emotional unease and for the consequent lack of academic success of university students. The interest of researchers and institutions has focused upon these factors.

Following the opening of the frontiers and the comparison between various universities within the European Union, initiatives have been put forward designed to promote the establishment of an international communication network between the various scholars working in this area of research.

Indeed, since 1989, "Forum Européen de l'Orientation Académique" (FEDORA) has existed, which offers its members the chance to compare and discuss a vast range of problems related to university guidance, understood in its widest sense. The diversity of university contexts and institutions of European countries has shown the multidimensionality of this area of research.

A work group named Psychological Counselling in Higher Education (PSYCHE) has been established within FEDORA in 1992 with the aim of looking specifically at the role psychological consultation plays in dealing with student unease (Rott, 1993). The term

“counselling” has been chosen, not without some hesitation, given that it is not easy within the different European languages to find a term with which the various activities making up this kind of activity can be identified. Indeed, such a term is often mistakenly associated with a process of giving information and advice, which is an understandable confusion given that linguistically the term “counselling” means “giving advice” and the translation of the word from its American sense into European languages has been literal and direct, e.g. *coinseiller d’orientation*, *studien beraten*, *rådgivning*, *consulente* and/or *consigliere d’orientamento*, which continues to give the sense of it being a process of advice-giving in each of those languages (French, German, Danish, Italian respectively), and thus creating a misunderstanding (Bell, Mc Devitt, Rott, & Valerio 1994). With regard to Italian, the corresponding term could be “*consulenza*”. Such a term, however, implies an action and/or decision by a consultant (*consulente*). He or she is viewed as a professional who offers explicit “advice” or at least technical opinions which are professionally qualified, but that reflect the strictly personal points of view of the person who gives such “counselling”.

Most of the confusion in this field is also due to the fact that such work is carried out in centres that, at the beginning, exclusively provided “advice”. Gradually, in order to respond to students’ new requests and needs, they have begun to offer not just “advice”, but also psychological help is provided for the students in order to identify the nature of their own unease and suggest a remedy (Weinman & Goveston, 1991).

The need to take account of university students’ emotional problems and to identify possible remedies has led, even in Italy, to the setting up of Services of Psychological Counselling in various universities.

I will go on now to describe the situation of these services, stressing in particular: (1) the Italian educational context; (2) the history of counselling services for university students in Italy; (3) Organizational Models.

1. The Italian educational context

Once a student has passed the secondary school-leaving exami-

nation, (called “esame di maturità”, i.e. “maturity examination”) which occurs at about 18 years of age, he or she has access without any entrance examination to any University Department, regardless of the kind of studies carried out, with the exception of the Faculties of Architecture, Psychology and Medicine which, require such an entrance exam.

The openness of the Italian University system is enhanced by other factors, such as the very low cost of enrolment fees, the lack of residence requirements and the possibility of any student to continue being a university student for up to 8 years without passing any exam, the only requirement being to continue to pay enrolment fees. Thus, access to university in Italy has been very easy in the last 20 years, particularly for lower-class students and for those living in cities which seat of a university. In Italy it is normal for students to attend the nearest available university, usually that of their own town.

While the number of students has increased enormously (Rome, Milan and Naples have each more than 100.000 enrolled students) the number of university teachers has increased only slightly. This means that very often Italian students are enrolled in overcrowded universities where they are lectured in very large groups and relationships between teachers and learners are impersonal (Table 1). In this situation students are left to cope with all the problems of academic life without any help. Tutorial activity, introduced by a recent law, is actually available only in a few universities and on an experimental basis.

So we can consider that the “state of health” of the Italian university system is not a sound one. In fact, while the number of students who annually enroll in a university is high, relative to that of secondary school graduates (it corresponds to approximately 73%), the number of students who actually obtain a final degree, is rather discouraging. For every student who manages to graduate, there are, on an average, 14.2 students who never complete their studies. These figures are even more disheartening when confronted with those of other European countries, such as Great Britain or Norway, whose ratio is 1 to 4 (Valerio et al., 1993). Moreover, the average university student’s academic career is very long. The data reveal

that only 13% of students actually manage to complete their courses within the officially established number of years. There is, of course, a great degree of variation from one department to another in this respect.

In most of our universities there is no “campus” structure. A young person’s problems and difficulties are therefore deflected most frequently on to his/or her family rather than to the academic university (Adamo, & Valerio, 1990). By far the largest number of the Italian universities are Government institutions and are mainly supported by public funding. A great number of students who are enrolled in these universities have fallen far behind in their course of studies and no longer attend classes nor take any exam. Paradoxically, this may not affect the academic institution at all. These students in fact, are a sort of invisible, undemanding multitude which “swells the crowd” when requests are advanced for new space or for more teaching staff.

2. History of psychological counselling services for university students in Italy

In recent years the high rate of University students in Italy either falling behind or dropping out of their programs, has aroused great interest, especially among academic psychologists. Thanks mainly to their initiatives, some Services have been set up for the specific purpose of giving psychological help to students with emotional problems and/or difficulties in pursuing their studies. These Services are rather different from the Psychotherapy or Counselling Services that exist within American or British universities, as they have no formal organization and professional staff members.

At present, in Italy, there are only ten or so Universities in which students can find Psychological Counselling Services, and only a few of them have been operating for several years and are formally recognized (Table 2). Only two of these services have been promoted by the academic authorities, which by and large are not interested in this kind of service (Table 3). There is a lack of motivations which in other European countries forced the Academic Authorities to establish counselling services for students. There are not the economic and competitive incentives available in Italy which, at least

initially, led many universities in Great Britain to set up Counselling Services for students so as to limit the eventual loss of prestige and funds caused by student failures and drop-outs (Noonan, 1988).

The existing Services have been established on the initiative of individuals or groups of academic clinical psychologists, mainly working within Faculties of Medicine or Psychology who, conscious of the deep emotional dynamics that often may be at the root of the academic failure, have tried to create Counselling Services in their Faculties for students in spite of these adverse factors (Adamo et al., 1992; Canestrari, 1989; Valerio & Giusti, 1994). In some cases, these Services originate from a widening, change or expansion of the previously existing Careers Advisory Centres. These centres, do not in any way resemble their counterparts in Anglo-Saxon countries or in E.U. northern countries (Denemark, Germany) because they do not fall into any organized frame. In Italy guidance activities are usually carried out by university teachers since, according to a national law, these responsibilities fall within the realm of their official duties (as stipulated by a national law D.P.R. 382, 11 July 1980). University Guidance Counselling Services, run by the local Offices for University Affairs (E.D.I.S.U.) and staffed with psychologists, social workers and guidance counsellors, are very rare indeed and exist only in Parma, Pavia, and Milan.

In most cases, however, the existing services started to operate as Psychological Counselling Services and also supported guidance activity by themselves (Table 4). In other very few cases (Milano ISU, Palermo, Pavia) they have grown out of pre-existing Guidance Counselling Services.

3. Organizational models

- The existing Psychological Counselling Services are generally located in premises made available by the Department of Psychology which, in some instances, have continued to be used for other purposes as well.
- In Italy, the figure of the “counsellor” is not clearly identified and is not actually recognised as such. This is reflected in the staffing of the existing Counselling Services. In most cases the

staff is made up of academic and non-academic personnel qualified in either Clinical Psychology or Psychotherapy.

- The types of psychological help offered by the various “Services”, have some important elements in common, even if they vary in a few aspects:
 - a) access to the Centre is on a self-referral basis; other sources of referral are not encouraged and third parties (Academic authorities, teachers, families) hardly receive any communication about interventions (Table 5);
 - b) there is a trend to emphasize typically “Psychological” intervention and therefore to avoid any possibility of interpreting the Service in medical, especially psychiatric terms;
 - c) due to the lack of professional resources and the needs and defences of the target-persons (i.e. late-adolescents and young adults), brief or even very brief intervention are provided (Tables 6-7);
 - d) the psychodynamic approach prevails over any other theoretical orientations (Valerio & Adamo 1995) but these (systemic, cognitive, behavioural) may be used as well as far as the theoretical orientation is concerned. Some centres are homogeneous, while others have various backgrounds and have to deal with the problems caused by such a variety of theoretical approaches;
 - e) almost all the Services described are funded by city or regional boards for the promotion of university studies (ISU, EDISU). This permits a certain autonomy from the academic institution on the one hand, but on the other, these arrangements must generally be renewed every year (Table 3);
- Unlike most US and UK programmes the Italian Counselling Service plays a very marginal role within the academic institution, as it is often ignored or invested with negative projections (Noonan, 1988). Its staff never participate on any Faculty Committee nor are they consulted when it comes to making decisions regarding faculty life.

Conclusions

Psychological counselling for university students has been the main subject of several scientific congresses and meetings held in Italy in the past few years. This testifies to the growing interest in our country for this area of work and research but there is much left to do. At this moment, it is becoming more and more necessary to compare various national experiences within the context of a European framework, chiefly among the professionals working in these activities. Such a comparison has been inaugurated in a series of initiatives such as the International Forum held in Naples in September 1992 entitled "Psychological counselling in higher education in the European Community: establishing the common ground and exploring the differences with a view towards future developments" (Bell et al., 1994).

The aim of the Forum was to establish the situation in Europe regarding services offering psychological/psychotherapeutic Counselling in university settings, in order to begin to evaluate standards and methods of practice on a European scale. I hope the experiences we have shared during the course of this conference will also be of help to all of us in offering better opportunities to our students and serve as mutual encouragement in developing this issue further in our respective countries.

References

- Adamo, S.M.G. & Valerio, P. (1990). Counselling Psicodinamico con studenti universitari. Acquisizioni e prospettive di ricerca. In: P. Valerio & S.M.G. Adamo (eds), *Psicologi e Medici. Esperienze e ricerche in ambito istituzionale* (pp. 83-94). Napoli: Idelson.
- Adamo, S.M.G., Valerio, P., & Giusti, P. (1992). Psychodynamically Oriented Brief Interventions with Medical Students: An Italian Experience. *Journal of College Student Psychotherapy*, 7, 2, 35-45.
- Adamo, S.M.G., Bosinelli, M., & Valerio, P. (1994). Psychological Counselling in Higher Education: an Italian Overview: In: E. Bell, C. Mc Devitt, G. Rott, & P. Valerio (Eds.), *Psychological Counselling in Higher Education: A European Overview* (pp. 161-184). Napoli: La Città del Sole.
- Bell, E., Mc Devitt, C., Rott, G., & Valerio, P. (1994). Introduction. In: E. Bell, C. Mc Devitt, G. Rott, & P. Valerio (Eds.), *Psychological Counselling in Higher Education: A European overview* (pp. 11-26). Napoli: La Città del Sole.
- Blos, P. (1962). *On adolescence. A psychoanalytic Interpretation*. New York: Free Press.
- Blos P. (1979). *The Adolescence passage. Developmental Issues*. New York: International Universities Press.
- Canestrari, R. (1989). Recent Research in the transition from adolescence to adulthood. In: M. Bosinelli & M. Giusberti (Eds). *The age of adolescence and youth and the psychosocial profile of the university student* (pp. 15-22) Bologna: Editrice CLUEB.
- Chamboredon, J.C. (1985). Adolescence et postadolescence: La Jeunilisation. Notes sur les recents changements des limites et de la definition sociale de la jeunesse. In (AA. VV.) *Adolescence terminée, adolescence interminable*. Paris: Presses Universitaires de France.
- Danon-Boileau, H. (1984). *Les études et l'échec. De l'adolescence à l'age adulte*. Paris: Payot.
- Earwaker, J. (1992). *Helping and Supporting Students*. London: S.R.H.E. and Open University Press.
- Erikson, E.M. (1968). *Identity, Youth and Crisis*. New York: Norton Company.
- Melotti, V. (1993). L'adolescenza: un'analisi antropologica. In: R. Brancalenti (Ed). *L'adolescenza: gli anni difficili* (pp. 11-20). Napoli: Alfredo Guida Editore.
- Melucci, A (1992). L'ascolto del disagio quotidiano dei giovani. In: S.M.G.

- Adamo & P. Valerio (Eds). *Servizi Psicologici per studenti universitari: percorsi e metodologie a confronto*, Quaderni di Counselling Psicodinamico per Studenti Universitari, 1, 1 (pp. 17-23), Suppl. Riv. Diritto allo studio, Scafati: Industria Grafica Giglio.
- Noonan, E. (1988). The impact of institution on psychotherapy. In: R. May (Ed.), *Psychoanalytic psychotherapy in a college context* (pp. 57-100). New York: Praeger.
- Rott, G. (1993). The focus of FEDORA-PSYCHE: the work with the student as a person, *FEDORA Newsletter*, June, 2-3.
- Rott, G. (1986). Challenges to the counsellor in a changing world: the impact of environmental changes in universities on the concepts of student counselling. *Int. Journ. for the Advanc. of Counsell.*, 237-249.
- Salzberger Wittenberg, I., Henry Polacco, G., & Osborne, E. (1983). *The emotional experience of learning and teaching*. London: Routledge and Kegan.
- Valerio, P., Ciannella, C., Minutillo, L., & Pavone, A. (1992). Indagine Psicossociale sugli studenti iscritti al primo anno della Facoltà di Medicina. In: P. Valerio & S.M.G. Adamo (Eds), *Servizi Psicologici per studenti universitari: percorsi e metodologie a confronto* (pp. 121-153). Quaderni di Counselling Psicodinamico per Studenti Universitari, I, 1, 107-119, Suppl. Riv. "Diritto allo studio". Scafati: Industria Grafica Giglio.
- Valerio, P. (1993). Il Counselling Psicologico per Studenti Universitari. In: R. Fischetti & F. Milano (Eds), *Lo psicoterapeuta ed i suoi sistemi di riferimento impliciti ed espliciti* (pp. 576-590). Quinto di Treviso: Pagus Edizioni.
- Valerio, P. & Giusti, P. (1994). Medical Students' difficulties in continuing their university studies. *Journal of College Students Psychotherapy*, 8, 4, 55-70.
- Valerio, P. & Adamo, S.M.G. (1995). Psychodynamic Counselling in a university setting: a space for thinking together over emotional problems. *Psychodynamic Counselling*, 1, 4, 576-586.

Table 1.

University	Number of Faculty	Number of University Students	Number of Academic Staff
Bologna	14	82.000	2.600
L'Aquila	5	10.700	667
Milano "L. Bocconi"	1	10.900	489
Milano (ISU)	8	91.913	2.352
Napoli "Federico II"	11	103.500	3.449
Padova	12	6.342*	2.192
Palermo	11	54.987	–
Pavia (ISU)	16	24.000	1.500
Roma "La Sapienza"	1	15.000*	100
Salerno	10	45.000	1.300
Siena	8	18.145	1.716

* Faculty of Psychology only.

Table 2.

University	Years of Activity	Number of Students per year	Full-time Counsellors	Part-time Counsellors	Voluntary
Bologna	9	100	–	8	3
L'Aquila	4	100	–	1	8
Milano "L. Bocconi"	5	1.100	2	7	–
Milano (ISU)*	18	170	3	2	–
Napoli "Federico II"	4	150	–	12	–
Padova	1	30	–	–	20
Palermo*	26	2.000	–	10	6
Pavia (ISU)*	22	4.000	6	–	–
Roma "La Sapienza"	1	20	–	10	8
Salerno	7	100	–	–	8
Siena	3	50	7	–	1

* Established as Guidance Counselling Services.

Table 3.

University	University Funding	Students Affairs Office Funding	No Formal Funding
Bologna			*
L'Aquila	*		
Milano "L. Bocconi"		*	
Milano (ISU)			*
Napoli "Federico II"		*	
Padova	*		
Palermo		*	
Pavia (ISU)		*	
Roma "La Sapienza"			*
Salerno			*
Siena		*	

Table 4.

University	Guidance Activity
Bologna	
L'Aquila	YES
Milano "L. Bocconi"	YES
Milano (ISU)	YES
Napoli "Federico II"	
Padova	YES
Palermo	YES
Pavia (ISU)	YES
Roma "La Sapienza"	
Salerno	
Siena	YES

Table 5.

University	Sources of Referral		
	Self %	Academic Staff %	Others
Bologna	80	5	15
L'Aquila	90	5	5
Milano "L. Bocconi"	100	-	-
Milano (ISU)	90	10	-
Napoli "Federico II"	100	-	-
Padova	50	50	-
Palermo	30	70	-
Pavia (ISU)	-	-	-
Roma "La Sapienza"	100	-	-
Salerno	100	-	-
Siena	80	20	-

Table 6.

University	Individual Sessions	Family Therapy	Brief Consultations	Long-term Psychotherapy
Bologna	yes		yes	yes
L'Aquila	yes		yes	
Milano "L. Bocconi"	yes		yes	
Milano (ISU)	yes			
Napoli (EDISU)	yes			
Padova	yes		yes	
Palermo	yes	yes	yes	
Pavia (ISU)	yes			
Roma "La Sapienza"	yes	yes	yes	
Salerno	yes		yes	
Siena	yes	yes	yes	

Table 7.

University	Brief Consultations %	Number of Sessions
Bologna	30	16-20
L'Aquila	20	4
Milano "L. Bocconi"	100	3 + 1 follow-up
Milano (ISU)	–	–
Napoli "Federico II"	100	4
Padova	100	–
Palermo	20	8
Pavia (ISU)	–	–
Roma "La Sapienza"	100	3-5
Salerno	100	5-7
Siena	100	15

4

Aspects of Individualism as a Function of Cultural Variation

J. P. BOONEN
A. E. AHMADI

Academic success is related to a set of numerous variables: abilities, self-concept, cognitive values, self-efficacy, self-confidence, locus of control, level of achievement, etc. Cross-cultural research has emphasised, generally outside the fields of vocational guidance and counselling, that many of these variables appear to vary culturally: e.g. values (Berry, 1984; Schwartz, 1990), self-concept (Triandis, 1989; Cohen, 1994), attribution of academic success (Schuster et al., 1989; Mizokawa & Ryckman, 1993).

On the other hand, students' growing mobility, particularly inside the European Union, is a recent phenomenon in the history of higher education. As a consequence, students resorting to counselling and seeking help for vocational or psychological difficulties do not necessarily share with the counsellor the same cultural backgrounds of norms in values, attitudes, etc. (see McDevitt, 1994). Thus, the importance of an analysis of the students' subjective culture (beliefs, categorisations, expectations, norms, self-definitions, ideals and values, ...) is clear: "All counselling psychologists will need to act as multicultural advisors, a counsellor with low multicultural competencies provides services without regard to the counsellor's or the client's race or ethnicity, believing that he or she should provide equal treatment to all clients, regardless of their cultural variables. Indeed, the counsellor with high multicultural com-

petencies regards client-counsellor cultural differences (and, possibly, similarities) as important to the counselling process, as in case conceptualisation, methods of resolution, counselling goals, and perceived counsellor credibility" (Sodowsky et al., 1994, p. 137).

One of the most fundamental dimensions of cultural variation is individualism - collectivism (Hofstede, 1980). Individualism refers to "identity based on individual", "autonomy", "people concerned with own self and closed family", and some other features. But Hofstede's data, which resulted from protocols collected by IBM, were based on few items and conceptualised at a cultural level. Several researchers attempted to operationalize the construct at the psychological level (Hui & Triandis, 1986; Triandis et al., 1985; Triandis et al., 1986) and distinguished idiocentric vs allocentric individuals.

Two aspects of idiocentrism are relevant to our purpose: an independent self (as opposed to an interdependent one in allocentrics) and values of achievement and competition (as opposed to obedience, duty, in-group harmony).

In general, "modern cultures are neoindividualistic, characterised by both independence from ingroups and distance (emotional detachment) from in-group. Thus, one is able to 'do one's own thing' and get away with it" (Triandis et al., 1988, p. 324). However, and analysis of each relevant attribute on the dimension is required among specific cultural or subcultural groups, even those who are reputed to belong to the same general cultural area. "Most cultures include a mixture of individualistic and collectivist elements. In the most individualistic culture people have a very strong independent self as well as a 'different self' (e.g. the upper and middle class in the Latin countries of Europe, where the aristocratic ideals are still very strong). The moderately individualistic cultures are less extreme" (Triandis, 1994, p. 172).

In the United States individualism is very high. Now, comparing Canada and the U.S., Lipset (1990) found that the U.S. is more individualistic and somewhat less collectivist than Canada, in spite of the very close similarity of the two cultures (see Triandis, 1994, p. 165). Triandis et al. (1988) suggested via exploratory factor analyses that U.S. idiocentrism is reflected in one factor called Self-Reliance With Competition (and in a second one somewhat less impor-

tant: Low Concern for Ingroup), “suggesting..... that at least in the United States, self-reliant individualism is linked to competition” (p. 330). The same scholars emphasised that “it is not known if the same themes or some other combinations of ideas would emerge in other cultures” (p. 331).

As show in Hofstede’s (1980) study, Belgium is moderately high on the individualism index as compared to the United States. In a comparative study of Turkish immigrants and Dutch-speaking Belgian youth (14-16 years old), Phalet and Claeys (1993) found that Belgian youth showed a collectivist profile of preference for social contact and group loyalty instead of the expected individualistic profile “achievement with autonomy”. “Apparently motivation in Belgian youth is primarily socially anchored, but at the cost of individualistic achievement motives” (p. 339). As a tentative explanation the authors claimed that “the social moratorium between childhood and adulthood that characterises adolescence in Western cultures, postpones commitment to career concerns in Belgian youth” (loc.cit.).

Before suggesting any explanation, we think that new data extracted from other samples in both Communities (The Flemish one and the French one) are required to explore the Belgian idiocentrism. We provide here the results of an analysis of the Self-Reliance and Competition features based on a sample of French-speaking undergraduate students.

Method

Subjects

Four hundred and seven undergraduate students from the University of Liege and the Hautes Etudes Commerciales of Liege (Business School) participated for course credit.

Instrument

Eleven out of the twelve Triandis et al. (1988) attitude items (the first item was dropped because it was inappropriate to our students’ situation) loading on the Self-Reliance with Competition factor were translated and adapted in French. This option follows Leung

and Bond's (1989) within-culture procedure in contrast with a pan-cultural or cross-cultural procedure.

Data analysis

A confirmatory factor analysis was used to test the Triandis et al. (1988) Self-Reliance With Competition single factor structure. In contrast to the exploratory factor analysis, the confirmatory factor analysis allows for the specification of factor models in agreement with expectations for the factor construction of the models, these expectations being based on theoretical and empirical considerations.

The logic of the model testing was as follows: The primary goal is to identify the most parsimonious construction that provides an acceptable fit to the data. On the basis of Triandis et al. (1988) Self-Reliance With Competition factor, a single-factor model can be specified. This specification assumes that each item loads on a single factor, and that the errors are not correlated.

The SAS CALIS procedure (Hartmann, 1993) was used. Indicators of fit included: (a) a chi-square (X^2) test of significance which tests the hypothesis that the data were generated by the proposed model, and (b) a goodness-of fit-index (GFI) which estimates the extent to which the sample variances and covariance's were reproduced by the hypothesised model. The generalised least squares method was used to estimate the parameters in the model.

Freeing residual correlation's through modifying the model to improve fit was not considered, in order to avoid obscuring meaningful relationships among items. If the Single-Factor Model was not an acceptable specification, a Dual-Factor Model would be considered, with the same constraints on fixing the residual correlation's to zero.

Results

Fit indices for the models tested are given in Table 1. The chi-square for the null model provides a test of the hypothesis that the observed eleven items are uncorrelated. Clearly, this hypothesis should be rejected [$X^2(55) = 669.238$, $p < 0.0001$]. This large value

Table 1. Fit indices for the models tested.

MODEL	X ²	df	p value	GFI
Null model	669.238	55		
Single-Factor Model	114.579	44	<0.0001	0.949
Dual-Factor Model Q12 = 0.366	52.345	43	= 0.155	0.977

Table 2. Standardized coefficients for Single-Factor Model and Dual-Factor Model.

ITEMS	Single Factor Model Self-Reliance with Competition	Dual Factor Self-Reliance	Model Competition
item 1	0.594		0.692
item 2	0.450		0.511
item 3	0.541	0.645	
item 4	0.280	0.315	
item 5	0.551		0.596
item 6	0.280	0.326	
item 7	0.500		0.609
item 8	0.263	0.228	
item 9	0.580	0.646	
item 10	0.413		0.400
item 11	0.525	0.604	

Note: All values are at least significant with $p < 0.001$.

was an indication that more information - by introducing more parameters in the model, i.e. factors - could be extracted from the data.

Single-Factor Model

The fit X^2 index for the Single-Factor Model was significant [$X^2(44) = 114.579, p, 0.0001$]. Because of the high X^2 value this specification was rejected, and a more complex Dual-Factor Model was considered.

Dual-Factor Model

On the basis of distinctive Self-Reliance and Competition patterns, the items 3, 4, 6, 8, 9 and 11 were a priori loaded on the factor labelled Self-Reliance (I) and the items 1, 2, 5, 7 and 10 on the factor labelled Competition (II). The Dual-Factor specification had 1 less degree of freedom than the Single-Factor specification did because of the additional correlation to be estimated between the two factors.

As can be seen, the Dual-Factor Model provided an acceptable fit to the data ($X^2 = 52.345, p=0.155$). The non significant value of X^2 and the high value of GFI (0.977) indicated acceptable fit. All item loadings have significant t values ($p, 0.001$). The correlation between Self-Reliance and Competition factors was estimated 0.366 ($t = 5.483; p < 0.001$). Standardised loadings are given in Table 2 for the two models tested.

Discussion

The U.S. single factor Self-Reliance With Competition appears to be split into a correlated dual factor structure in the French-speaking Belgian sample.

Of course, if Triandis et al. (1988) had performed a factor analysis of the Self-Reliance With Competition items apart from those loading on the second factor (Concern for In-group) and on a third factor (Distance from Ingroups), possibly they would have found another factorial structure. Anyway, in his study, Hofstede (1980) provided the location of national samples on the so-called individualism fac-

tor: Belgium is less high on his individualism index than the U.S.A. (75 vs. 91) and close to Italy (76) or France (71). Although Hofstede's study is 25 years old and based on very specific samples, it is somehow indicative of differences between Belgium and the United States of America. According to Snowman (1977), the American culture gives primary emphasis to the "worldly" rather than the "ascetic" aspect of the Protestant ethics, i.e. self-reliance closely linked to competitiveness. On the other hand, Lipovetsky (1990) argued that after a first "cool" post-modern neo-individualism, today's neoindividualism is characterised by the "cohabitation of opposites" (1): hedonism is combined with values of austerity, ego idolatry with charity, competition with generosity. However, Lauwers's analysis (1984) revealed that Belgian people are not very moved by the Calvinist zeal: as compared to the European average, they are less concerned, in their working situation, about getting promotion and more concerned with avoiding stress. Besides, in 1995, the labour market appears to be saturated, particularly in Wallonia which suffers from a serious structural economic crisis and doubts her cultural identity. It is not surprising therefore to find among our undergraduate students the exact replication of the Triandis et al. (1988) single factor structure underlying items related to Self-Reliance With Competition.

As far as the generality of the construct of individualism is concerned, Schwartz (1990) claimed that collectivism-individualism is an inadequate dichotomy since it oversimplifies and obscures important differences among types of individualism vs. types of collectivism. We quite agree, as counsellors, that "to attain a stronger and more accurate understanding of cultural and individual differences, finer distinctions are needed" (p. 140), such as subtypes of individual vs. collective types vs. both. Schwartz proposed as individual types hedonism, achievement, self-direction, social power and stimulation. Triandis (1994) also suggested new developments such as horizontal vs. vertical individualism with numerous subsets like attributions, self, goals, emotions, cognition's, norms, values, attributions, etc. "There are a very large number of collectivist and individualistic patterns" (p. 166). As counsellors, we need these distinctions that go beyond polar dichotomy because they can help us understand our own cultural patterns and students' patterns from

other nationalities. This is one of the fundamental requirements to enter the student's "psychological and emotional world" (McDevitt, 1994). Our finding of two distinct, though correlated, factors instead of one shows that a major way of going deeper into the comprehension of the cultural variation of specific aspects of individualism, consists in probing patterns of so-called close cultural areas.

References

- Berry, J.W. (1984). Towards a universal psychology of cognitive competence. *International Journal of Psychology*, 19, 335-361.
- Cohen, A.P. (1994). *Self consciousness: An alternative anthropology of identity*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Hui, C.H., & Triandis, H.C. (1986). Individualism - collectivism: A study of cross-cultural researchers. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 17, 225-248.
- Lauwers, J. (1984). Les Belges et le travail. In R. Rezsóhy & J. Kerkhofs (Eds.), *L'univers des Belges. Valeurs anciennes et valeurs nouvelles dans les années 80*. Louvain-la-Neuve: CIACO, pp. 189-215.
- Leung, K., & Bond, M.H. (1989). On the empirical identification of dimensions for cross-cultural comparisons. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 20, 2, 133-151.
- Lipovetsky, G. (1990). Virage cultural, persistence du moi. *Le Débat*, 60, 264-269.
- Lipset, S.M. (1990). *Continental divide*. New York: Routledge.
- McDevitt, C. (1994, April). *Counter-transference issues in working with students from other European cultures*. Paper presented at the 5th Congress of the European Forum for Student Guidance, Barcelona.
- Mizokawa, D.T., & Ryckman, D.B. (1990). Attributions of academic success and failure: A comparison of six Asian-American ethnic groups. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 21, 4, 434-451.
- Phalet, K., & Claeys, W. (1993). A comparative study of Turkish and Belgian Youth. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 24, 3, 319-343.
- Schuster, B., Forsterlung, F., & Weiner, B. (1989). Perceiving the causes of success and failure: A cross-cultural examination of attributional concepts. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 20, 2, 191-213.
- Schwartz, S.H. (1990). Individualism-collectivism: Critique and proposed refinements. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 21, 139-157.
- Snowman, D. (1977). *Britain and America*. New York: Alfred Knopf.
- Sodowsky G.R., Taffe R.C., Gutkin T.B., & Wise S.L. (1994). Development of the Multicultural Counselling Inventory: A Self-Report Measure of Multicultural Competencies. *Journal of Counselling Psychology*, 41, 2, 137-148.
- Triandis, H.C. (1989). The self and social behaviour in differing cultural contexts. *Psychological Review*, 96, 3, 506-520.

- Triandis, H.C. (1994). *Culture and social behaviour*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Triandis, H.C., Bontempo, R., Betancourt, H., Bond, M., Leung, K., Brenes, A., Georgas, J., Hui, C.H., Marin, G., Setiadi, B., Sinha, J.B.P., Verma, J. Spangenberg, J., Touzard, H., & de Montmollin, G. (1986). The measurement of etic aspects of individualism and collectivism across cultures. *Australian Journal of Psychology* 38, 257-267.
- Triandis, H.C., Bontempo, R., Villareal, M.J., Asai, M., & Lucca, N. (1988). Individualism and collectivism: Cross-cultural perspectives on self-ingroup relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 54, 323-338.
- Triandis, H.C., Leung, K., Villareal, M.J., & Clack, F.L. (1985). Allocentric versus idiocentric tendencies: Convergent and discriminant validation. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 19, 395-415.

5

Polarities in the Life of Modern Student

METTE BAUER

Dealing with students and their emotional problems calls for the ability to analyze their individual history. This includes analyzing their experiences with parents, siblings, trends and authorities and analyzing how they organize these experiences.

But students are not merely students and families are not merely families. They both exist in a historical context and it is very important to understand their living conditions in a broader sense. That is more than just the material conditions under which they live. Of course it is important to know how they finance their studies, how they are housed etc. But it is also important to investigate the kind of socialization process society and its institutions make them go through. You may call it the *hidden curriculum* of the modern university. Such knowledge may serve as a framework for understanding students. Especially those students with developmental and maturational problems. We encounter many students struggling with these problems in our counselling centers.

According to the English sociologist Anthony Giddens the most important task in Modernity is what he calls *The reflexivity of the self*. Modern life produces the need for permanent reflection on who you are, what kind of person you want to be, and how you should

look, and act, and what your tastes should be¹.

This enormous introspection is one of the results of the disintegration of the transfer of traditions from one generation to the next. The German social scientist Thomas Ziehe calls this development *cultural liberation*. We are no longer handed over norms and values which could function as stable tools when we interact with other

1. Anthony Giddens points out three mechanisms which are facilitating this process of disintegration of traditions: separation of time and space, disembedding mechanisms and institutional reflexivity.

Separation of time and space

We are used to thinking of time and space as connected with one another. If we, for instance, want to do something together with other people, we have to meet with them physically at a certain moment. In modern life this is often not necessarily. You can record, as Frank Sinatra did recently, a compact disc with musicians from all over the world without meeting them in person. A lecturer may record his lectures on video and the students can play them whenever they want. They can retrieve information on their computers at home without visiting the libraries.

Disembedding mechanisms

These mechanisms tend to make social processes take place in contexts other than they were originally born into. Symbolic tokens and expert systems show examples of disembedding. Symbolic tokens are media of exchange which have a standard value and thus are interchangeable across a plurality of contexts, e.g. money brackets time and space, as do Levis jeans. You can do transactions with money all over the world without ever having to meet other people face to face. In some countries Levis jeans can function as money.

Expert systems are entire bodies of knowledge and routines, computerized or not. They bracket time and space in the sense that they deploy modes of technical knowledge which have validity independent of the situation and the practitioners and clients who make use of them. These systems penetrate all aspects of our social life: the food we eat, the medicine we take, the technology we use, public administration etc. Expert systems influence social relations. The doctor looks more at his computer screen than at the patient when making a diagnosis. The psychologist makes the client pass through the authorized stages of grieving. Parents elevate their children according to trendy books on education. Students have to study according to pedagogical systems authorized by the experts in the university administration.

Institutional Reflexivity

There is a permanent demand for revision and changes on the level of the institution, as well as the student. A University is no longer a fixed entity. This means that students can no longer rely on the conservatism of their university. The course schedules are constantly changing and the study experience, of for example an older brother, is of no value. The education you started out on might be redundant before you have finished.

people. We have to reformulate and continuously create our norms by ourselves. This offers, at the same time, new possibilities and new anxieties.

The self becomes a reflexive project for which the individual is fully responsible. You have to develop control over and to cope with all parts of your being and body in order to manage your current and future life. Giddens names it *colonizing the future*. The reflexive project puts a new kind of emphasis on choice and responsibility. You become responsible for your own health, personality and future.

In this perspective, therapy can be regarded as more than just a means to deal with problems of modern life. It also becomes an expression of the reflexivity of the self. Therapy becomes the time and place for self expression.

The development of psychoanalytic theory displays the same movement towards an understanding of the concept of the self (H. Kohut, D. Stern) Freud put a certain focus on the concept of Ego in his clinical work. Many modern psychoanalysts put more emphasis on the concept of the self perceived as the subjective, phenomenological side of the personality. One might call this the analysand's image of himself. This image may of course be more or less true. The American psychoanalyst James Masterson operates with a dichotomy between a true and a false self. Daniel Stern operates with a concept of a rudimentary self from the very beginning of the infants life (Stern, 1985).

The increasing interest in the concept of the self-reflects the change over from the diagnostic picture of the classical neuroses and psychoses to the broader more diffuse patterns we see today, e.g. diagnoses like borderline, narcissistic disturbances and a cornucopia of mixed diagnoses. These changes have been developing gradually over the last few decades. Eric H. Erickson noted in 1968 in *Childhood and Society*:

The patient of today suffers most under the problem of what he should believe in and who he should - or indeed, might - be or become; while the patient of early psychoanalysis suffered most under inhibitions which prevented him from being what and who he thought he knew he was.

According to Freud you learn about the “normal” personality by looking at disturbed personalities. The disturbances demonstrate in a clearly pronounced form the structures of the common dynamic organization. The modern diagnosis of self disturbances tell you more about the kind of common self problems experienced in general in modern society.

Polarities in the life of the modern student

The reflexivity of the self is a broad imperative for all of us in modern living. But it will especially be a burden on young persons who are still working hard to find their identity. Actually, today identity is not found. It is created.

In 1994 I saw 93 students of whom 53 had self-esteem related difficulties. They may have felt inferior to the University, to their fellow students and to the opposite sex. Many of them held extremely negative and even hostile feelings about their own body and appearance. This is not unusual for a young person, but it is worth noting that so many felt like this. It is remarkable that at the same time they appear to others as very bright, fashion-right, self-assured and even beautiful.

Some of the students came from traditional backgrounds: a farm in the countryside, a little village etc. They have been accustomed to playing with the children from the neighboring farm, having classmates as friends etc. When coming to a big city and a big institution, they feel completely lost. They do not know how to make friends, because they are used to friendship as a naturally developed relationship. They discover completely different languages in terms of big city slang and sophisticated town talk. They do not manage the modern routines of displaying and talking about feelings. They would typically say such things as, “In my family we do not talk about feelings”. They have not been socialized to the reflexivity of the self. They are caught in a contradiction between tradition and modernity.

This contradiction colors the many polarities, of which student life are filled. I wish to discuss some of them here.

Adult - Child

In modern society the period of adolescence seems to be prolonged. At the same time some aspects of maturity seem to occur earlier today than was the case in previous generations².

It is not unusual to encounter students between 18 and 25 years of age with puberty problems. They have not yet separated emotionally from their parents. They want to model themselves like other people, but fear to be absorbed in the crowd. They are constantly in search of suitable role models. If they withdraw from other people they fear to be isolated. They cannot stand to be alone.

Many students at University live with their parents while studying, even though it is easy and economical to get independent housing for students. They may be staying at home, because they fear separation. Because they are staying at home, separation gets more and more difficult and frightening.

The fear of separation may of course exist whether you stay at home or not. In the student counselling services in Copenhagen we see many apparently independent young female students having great difficulty in separating from their family as well as their studies. They procrastinate. They fear being grown up and responsible

2. The majority of children in Denmark attend school for 12 to 13 years. Most families, due to economic conditions, are able to keep their children at home until they have reached 20 years.

Children remain dependent persons for a long period of time. Parents will bring their children to school and pick them up when they have finished school. They do all the housework for them even if the children have passed the teenage period. In the nursery institutions they are looked after and "pedagogised" for many years.

In Denmark, where a majority of women work outside the home, children are used to staying in institutions during the day from the age of 6 months to 14-15 years. They are kept in the day nursery, the kindergarten or in the youth centers after school has finished. This makes them at the same time more and less independent. They obtain a lot of experience of coping with others and learn how to master conflicts. But they also get used to having grown up people structuring their activities and controlling them all the time.

At the same time children arrive earlier to sexual maturity today than 20 years ago. Through TV they are familiar with grown up life from a very early age. They start very early going to parties and drinking alcohol (13 years).

persons. We deal with these problems in short-term dynamic group therapy (Bauer et al., 1996).

I encounter many 23-24 years old male students with no sexual experience. They may suffer very much and in a very lonely way. Yet they will not have talked to anybody about their pain, before they enter the counselling center.

By way of contrast some students can be very mature in a social sense. They are able to develop close friendships in which they skillfully support each other when they run into emotional problems. Many are able to end love affairs without being too hurt and often they are able to change their love affairs into friendships.

But at the same time many students marry and have children while studying. They are responsible, mature and very hard working.

The period of adolescence seems to be prolonged and less homogeneous as society moves from traditions to modernity.

The lowest in the hierarchy - becoming the "upper class"

The student rank lowest in the University hierarchy. They have very little influence on the organization, the planning, the lessons and the way exams are organized. Basically, they are pupils as opposed to professors and it is not until later during their studies that they will experience some kind of authority themselves. They may easily regard themselves as the insignificant ones, and the stupid ones. Especially because the only parameter of worth is the mark or grade they receive in exams. For the student not getting the highest mark the feeling of "not good enough" is very often felt to be just around the corner. At the same time students have a certain kind of status in the eyes of the outside world. They are perhaps going to become academics and executives earning high salaries or they may have such fantasies at least. Finally, their parents may be very proud of their prosperous kids.

As a student you may identify with both poles. Feeling very superior or very inferior or oscillating between the two.

Living for a goal far away - living here and now

The lifestyle in a big city is consuming. You are permanently tempted with a variety of new elegant clothes, shoes, compact discs, food, entertainment etc. Some young people manage to establish themselves as business people, merchant bankers or TV personalities at an early age. They may be seen in magazines and on TV wearing expensive clothes and driving fancy cars.

The lifestyle of the student is extremely modest in comparison with this extravagant lifestyle. The student has a very small budget to subsist on, and studying has a quite different perspective than consuming. The student needs to be able to discipline herself, be able to defer the gratification of present needs for the benefit of intellectual needs. This is difficult in a “here and now” society with anti-intellectual features.

Students may react to these contradictions by repressing all needs in favor of the fulfilment of the intellectual demands of the institution. They work very hard studying and ignore social, cultural and emotional needs. The repressed needs might emerge after some years as a form of general malaise and concentration problems, or of course as more pronounced diagnostic symptoms.

Some students are zigzagging through their study with periods of studying and periods of “living the life”. In this context studying is often experienced as “not living”. Others may give up studying, because the ability to self-discipline is so difficult.

“Anal” demands - “narcissistic” personality

The students of today are standing in the middle of a contradiction between their own psychic abilities and the demands of the University.

Many Universities are not constructed to fit in with the development the socialization of the modern student. Universities are organizational systems with a considerable amount of inertia. In Denmark there are big differences between Universities in terms of tradition and modernity. For example there are very different kinds of educational methods, exams and authority systems in evidence.

Within scientific fields like engineering and medicine the educational institutions might express “anal” demands. That means discipline, control and the ability to deliver an achievement at the right place at the right time and with the quality accepted by the authority. Those are the fields where the concepts of right and wrong exists at least at the level where the students encounter science.

The word Anal is maybe not very precise. The Universities of today do not request absolute obedience and discipline. They also request ego strength and independence and the ability to compete and to sublimate. But as a whole universities are geared to fit the old-fashioned neurotic type rather than to accommodate the modern student with his problems of self and identity.

The technical University has a very outspoken structure with large unstructured pockets. It is structured in the way that you have a very dense schedule with lectures every morning and exercises during the afternoons. But at the same time you are not guided through the system by the professors. They do not know you at all, because there might easily be 200-300 students at their lectures.

The professors do not demand homework. This is up to the student himself or herself to decide upon and that requires a certain amount of self-discipline and organizational ability.

The rigid structure may be very supporting for those who have problems with self-fulfilment and making the right choices. But at the same time it maybe frightening for many students to be their own employer. And to many of them the big lectures together with many hundreds of other students create anxiety and feelings of being lost and loosing themselves.

More serious problems with the self are reflected by feelings of inferiority followed by feelings of emptiness and the loss of meaning in life. This vulnerable basis makes students try to defend themselves either by withdrawing from all demanding situations or by trying to fantasize another image of themselves, e.g. being the brightest at the university.

I have met students who could not tolerate being submissive to authorities. Even being in a learning process can threaten their weak feeling of self. A young intelligent student came to me 6 days before he had to hand in his thesis. He had only written 3 pages and

these did not express any analysis of his own but were only a translation of an article written by someone else. His fantasies about doing the best thesis had stopped him from working. He dared not be confronted with the reality.

Efficiency and discipline - acting out and rebellion

It is during youth that the big exigencies to life may be formulated. Now you are going to change the world and make it different from the world of your parents. You are not bound by responsibility and engagements and may put forward ideal requests of life. It is very important that such ideals are formulated, although they might seem unrealistic and naive to the older generation.

Thinking of utopia needs time and space and that is what is missing in modern student life. It is a dominating policy in many European countries to cut down the time of studies and to make them more effective. Along with this tendency you see efforts to discipline the students with economical restrictions. Students can not get any grants without passing all the requested exams on schedule. They may even lose their accommodation at the student hostel if they do not succeed at their exams. In this way it has become much more difficult to regulate their own activities. For example, being very active in one semester and having a reflective pause in the next. As a consequence many students get tired of studying. They end up feeling depressed and without engagement.

Universities have turned into mass education enterprises and are no longer sublime cathedrals for the celebration of scientific knowledge. Students are no longer the adepts of knowledge learning to search on their own for the answers to existential questions.

Many students of today experience study as like going to school and this creates the strange situation of being 25 year old school-children. Student refer to school instead of university and homework instead of studying.

A school is an authoritarian, given structure which one does not make attempts to change. But at the same time schools can have very high expectations. Consequently they want their teachers to be

very goal oriented and present the matters in a digested form. That means only dealing with what is absolutely necessary for passing the exam with no digressions and no excursions to exciting borderlands. The demand seems to be “tutor to a first class degree”. These attitudes leave little space for rebellion and new thinking about the subject and the institution nor towards the society as a whole. The traditional potential for influencing change in society seems to have diminished.

I have pointed out some polarities of the modern students life. Living a life with contradictions and even antagonisms is never only just good or bad. They may be a basis for challenge and development. But they might also create insecurity and anxiety and not only for students with a vulnerable psychic constitution. It is difficult even for the more healthy students in a modern educational system with a vulnerable psychic constitution to manage both the educational system and ordinary crises like conflicts with parents, love troubles and identity problems. There is not much room for meditation in the life of the modern student.

References

- Eauer, M., Fredtoft, T., Malm, M., & Poulsen, S. (1996). *Dependency and Perfectionism: Short-term dynamic Group Psychotherapy for University Students*, Copenhagen. (This article will be published in *Psychodynamic Counselling*, Routledge, London, november 1996).
- Erikson, E. H. (1968). *Childhood and Society*, W. W. Norton & Co.
- Giddens, A. (1991). *Modernity and Self-Identity*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Kohut, H. (1988). *The Restoration of the Self*. New York: Brunner/Mazel.
- Masterson, J. F. (1988). *The Search for the Real Self*.
- Stern, D. (1985). *The interpersonal World of the Infant*, Basic Books, Inc.

6

Student Stress: A Developmental Perspective

DECLAN AHERNE

Introduction

Much publicity has been given to the current pressures on third level students. Sometimes, this publicity can be more of a political exercise than out of genuine concern for student health and wellbeing. Nonetheless, student stress is an example of the stress that prevails our society in general and the educational system in particular. It is necessary to examine Student Stress within its specific context in order to assist students in difficulties, to guide the professionals on campus concerned with “treating” such difficulties as well as to inform institutional policy on matters pertaining to student stress in general.

There are certain factors to be taken into account when examining student stress. These factors include: the relevance of late adolescence/early adulthood as a specific developmental period, the educational system, the fact that not all students are stressed and finally that the group of students who are stressed are not an homogeneous group.

There may be many different reasons which bring about student stress. According to Greenberg (1981), college students experience a great deal of stress, due to a range of factors including having to leave home for the first time (see Fisher, 1988), having to manage

their own finance, make new friends, and generally assume greater responsibility for themselves. Furthermore, students are presented with important decisions about such issues as sexual behaviour and their use of drugs and alcohol. Many students will experience distress at University, where the threat of the educational process itself can elicit helplessness, a sense of loss, and resultant negative self-image (Whitmann, Spendlove & Clark, 1984). It is not surprising therefore, says Greenberg (1981), that suicide has been the second leading cause of death amongst college students in the U.S. The situation does not look like it is going to get any better. Stone and Archer (1990) concluded that the increase in stress amongst students noted during the 1980's is set to continue into the 1990's. Perhaps the reported high rate of drop-out from Universities is also not too surprising.

Student Development and Student Stress

Grayson (1989) makes the important point that the boundary between normal developmental issues and psycho pathological tendencies is not clear. Stress and development are inextricably linked with stress being due to the absence or prevention of development and the result of threats to ones' Self-Adequacy when normal development is hindered.

Conversely, maturation is a healthy process, whereby as we develop we learn to meet our needs as they arise.

The application of the relationship between stress and development for college students is readily apparent. Students who fall within the traditional age range (18-22) are in a transition between adolescence and adulthood. As I have just outlined, the formation of an adequate self is at a critical stage during late adolescence, since it is at this stage that we stand apart from our families for the first time and begin to live a life of our own. There are a number of potential crisis points we are likely to encounter during this process of attaining independence and identity formation. Such crises can be understood as threats to self-adequacy and self-worth. What's at stake (using Lazarus', 1976, terminology) for students under stress is

their sense of self, which is threatened by, and also determines, how they handle the core developmental tasks of Identity, Separation and Intimacy (see Figure 1). Student development and student stress are linked in a way that perhaps can be best summarised in the form of two key questions students have to address, namely: “Who am I?” (Erikson, 1968) and “Am I OK?”

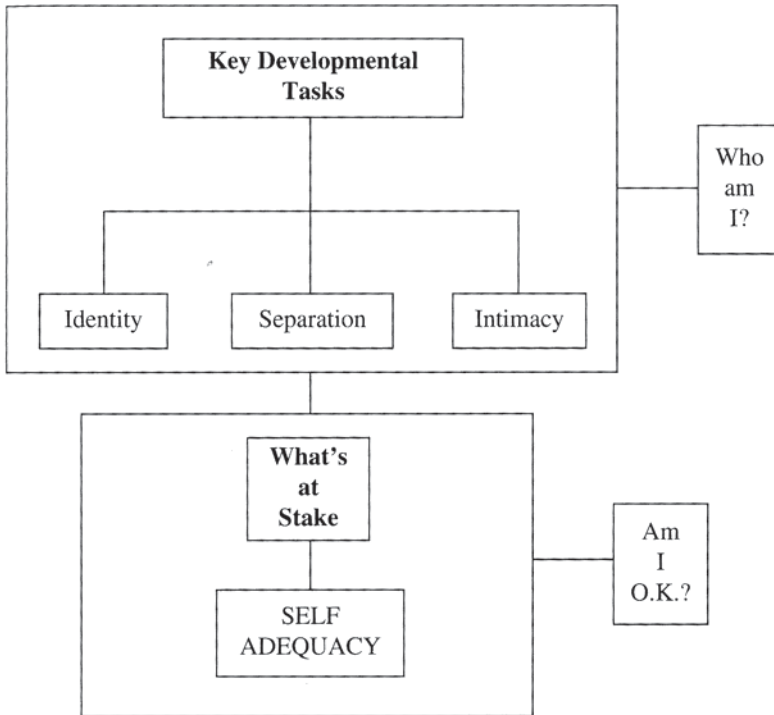


Figure 1. Student Stress and Student Development.

Based on the evidence regarding student development and stress, it is not difficult to understand why student stressors can be identified within the family, academic and social spheres. Each of the primary developmental tasks facing college students, as well as their associated threats to self, can have a particular relevance to specific areas of student stress. For example, the family presents the challenge of separation and independence which brings with it the need

for a secure family base (see Bowlby, 1988; Satir, 1972). Academic demands centre on the inherent need to achieve, as a major aspect of ones identity formation. The need to achieve is accompanied by the potential fear of failure (McClelland, 1953). Within the social area the need for intimacy and friendship is highlighted, with the accompanying risk of rejection and loneliness (Chickering, 1969).

Not all student stress can be attributed to this particular group of developmental issues. Some students may experience stress to the self as a result of need deficiencies other than identity, intimacy and separation. For example, students may experience stress whenever their more basic survival needs are under threat, e.g. lack of money to buy food or life threatening circumstances.

The present study aims to examine student stress experiences within a developmental framework in an attempt to deepen our understanding of student difficulties and give direction to improved methods of intervention by Student Counsellors.

Method

Rationale

Stress is primarily determined by the meanings perceived by individuals of their circumstances. Qualitative methodology was therefore a most appropriate method for the study of stress, since meanings are qualitative in nature.

Participants

Participants were purposefully selected (i.e. information rich cases) from UL students: 12 from the general student population and 15 who had attended the counselling service. These groups of students provided a sufficiently broad range of stressful experiences.

Design

Each student was interviewed on three occasions, at the beginning, middle and end of a ten week term. The interview format was unstructured, with the use of open ended feeling type questions, fol-

lowed by probing questions for clarification and depth of response - similar to a normal counselling consultation. The interviews were carried out by two student counsellors.

Analysis of Data

There were four stages to the analysis of data:

1. Transcribing taped interviews verbatim.
2. Editing transcripts, to include a broad range of key statements as selected by a team of editors.
3. Categorising of key statements. This puts order on the data, as well as providing a focus for the study. Categorisation was done in collaboration with a student. A follow up audit of categories was carried out by another student. These measures were to ensure the validity of the categories generated.
4. Patterns and linkages amongst categories were examined.

Results

A total of 49 categories were generated which pertained to the stress experiences of students. These categories can be conveniently grouped under four headings, namely, Academic, Social, Family and Personal (see Zitzow, 1984). See Table A for category groupings.

Table A. Categories of Demands.

Grouped into four main areas:
Academic, Family, Social and Personal
(n = number of cases containing category)

ACADEMIC:		n
(1)	To achieve standards	23
(7)	To be able to study	24
(2)	To get work done (workload/deadlines)	23
(4)	To fit in at college	19
(3)	To get work done (difficulty)	3
(5)	To pursue a chosen career	7
Total		
FAMILY:		n
(43)	To get on well with parents	18
(41)	To please parents	12
(49)	To be independent	9
(42)	Concern for parents welfare	9
(44)	To be supported by parents	12
(46)	Concern for siblings' welfare	6
(48)	To fill a role at home	5
(47)	To be as good as siblings	3
(45)	To get on with siblings	4
Total		

SOCIAL:		n
(11) To have friends / someone to turn to		19
(9) To be as good as others		12
(16) To be thought well of by others		12
(14) To be able to relate to the opposite sex		10
(8) To be accepted / to fit in		9
(13) To get on with friends		11
(10) To be with others		12
(15) To be able to get to know others		6
(17) To relate to lecturer		7
(18) To have time to socialise		12
(22) To maintain friendships		9
(20) To be sexually active		5
(12) To get on with housemates		1
(27) Peer pressure to drink		5
Total		
PERSONAL:		n
(38) To be in control		10
(39) To be able to make decisions		9
(25) To cope with the death of a family member		2
(6) To get a job		11
(24) To have money		4
(36) To play sports		4
(28) To sleep adequately		9
(33) To be healthy		7
(30) To cope with doing the interview		3
(35) To express emotion		3
(26) Fear of being attacked		2
(31) To be moral and right		5
(23) To look well		4
(29) To be occupie		4
(32) To have some meaning in life		3
(34) To cope with being caught cheating		1
(40) To cope with having something stolen		2
Total		

Patterns and linkages amongst categories

Qualitative, rather than statistical relationships, were sought between categories. Through the use of individual reports, underlying themes and patterns in the meaning of categories can be identified. Relationships between categories, which would not necessarily be highlighted using objective measures, can also be established.

A prominent feature of the categories in the present study is the large number that can be shown to be interconnected. To begin with, these categories were conveniently grouped under one of the four headings already identified as representative of the main areas of student stress, namely: Academic, Family, Social, and Personal. A complete outline of category allocation appears in Table A. The rationale for the clusters of categories follows.

Each cluster refers to a quite different aspect of students' lives and in particular to different student developmental tasks. The themes and the linkages within categories summarise a great deal of the stress experienced by the present sample of students. In discussing the four themes, particular reference is made to what is considered to be at stake for students under stress. This approach is based on a developmental model of student stress as presented (see Figure 1). Within the developmental model academic, family and social stress can be with each of the primary developmental tasks of students, namely, identity, separation achievement and intimacy. Each of these areas of development will now be discussed in some detail in the context of the categories generated above.

Academic Stress, Academic Achievement and Identity

Results from the present study support previous findings (e.g. Zitzow, 1984) which report academic stress as the single largest area of stress for students. All students make some reference to academic demands. Students' appraisal of what is at stake when they experience academic stress is indicated by the identified categories.

The three largest academic categories account for one-third of all the categorised statements. These three categories of demands

are **to achieve standards (C1), to get work done (C2) and to be able to study (C7).**

The above categories suggest that academic demands can be of three types: the threat inherent in the need to achieve academically, i.e. fear of failure; the external threat posed by an excessive workload and the threat posed by the lack of study skills, necessary to accomplish the required workload. I now wish to examine how these three demands might be related (see Figure 2).

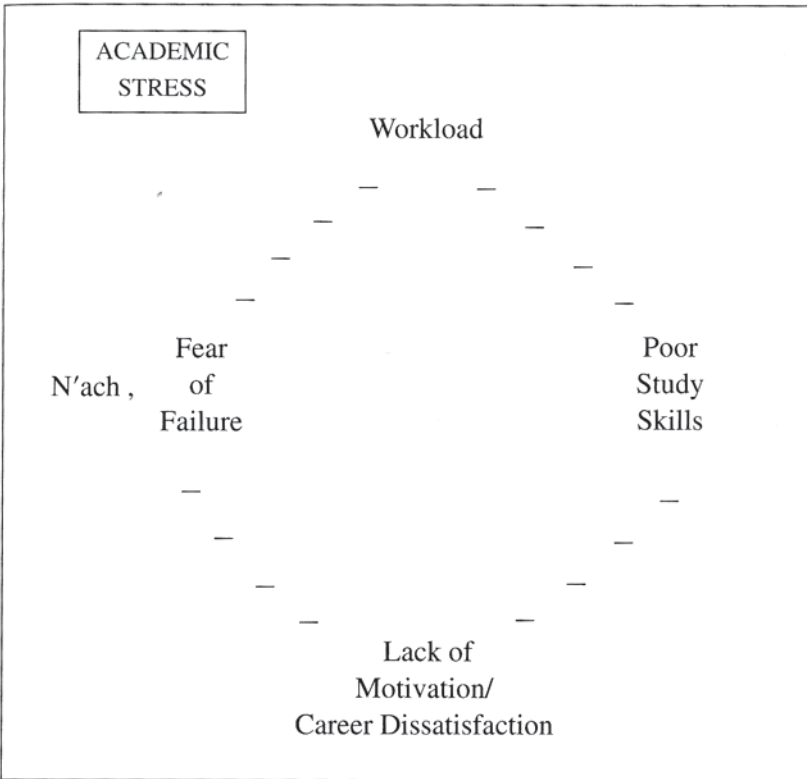


Figure 2.

Most students (n=23) in the present study who are experiencing academic stress make reference to pressure to achieve academic standards (C1). The demand **to be able to pursue a chosen career**

(C5) may also be considered as a category relating to the need to achieve. A similar amount of students report poor study skills, including a lack of motivation to study (C7). Three students also report finding the academic workload very demanding (C2). Ten of these students report difficulty with the study to be done (C3). For some students these demands overlap whereby we can postulate that because they are under so much pressure to achieve, these students are unable to study and therefore are unable to cope with the demanding workload. An alternative postulate would be to suggest that because of the demanding workload students are unable to complete the required study, resulting in a heightened fear of failure. However, since stress is based more on appraisals of threat than on objective demands such as workload, it is suggested here that it is the pressure to achieve which generates the stress.

Neither excessive workload nor poor study skills alone adequately account for the stress experienced by this group of students. It is in combination with the pressure to achieve that workload and study demands are reported in 21 out of the 27 cases. In every instance of academic stress it is the prospect of failure which is at stake and it is this appraisal that primarily determines the students' coping response (Lazarus, 1976) to workload and study.

This is not to ignore the need for workload to be regulated by course leaders, as well as the need for students to learn appropriate study skills. Coping with workload and study skills will only be properly addressed, however, when put in the context of students need to achieve. One further academic demand that needs mentioning is the demand **to fit in at college (C4)**, which is referred to by 19 students. In the light of what has been said already about the pressure to achieve and the related demotivation of students, it is easy to understand why students feel dissatisfied with being at University. However, this dissatisfaction is understood as further confirmation of the need deprivation of students rather than as a definition of student stress, as used in the goodness-of-fit interaction model of student stress.

For many students experiencing stress, there would seem to be an over-identification with one aspect of their identity, which is their academic achievement. The question "Who am I?" (Erikson,

1968) is dealt with solely in terms of academic achievement. This narrow focus of identity becomes stressful whenever academic success is threatened e.g. at exam time. Academic achievement can become the sole source of esteem and can be accompanied by and perhaps is due to, a lack of self-confidence in social circumstances.

Academic success is highly valued in modern society. Academic qualifications can provide a major boost to self-confidence. However, this kind of worth is conditional and is not based on the inherent worth of a person, regardless of their successes.

The bulk of the academic stress experiences reported by the present sample of students can be accounted for within a developmental model of student stress. Within the developmental model of student stress, the need to achieve can be viewed as a central internal demand on students, which has an important impact on their being able to study and being able to complete their workload. *What is at stake* (Lazarus, 1976) for the student should this need be threatened is the student's sense of self-worth and self-adequacy. Maslow (1970) includes the need to achieve as an ego or esteem need, that has to do with one's reputation and how one is seen by others. Similarly Chickering (1969) refers to the need for students to develop competence as part of their overall identity formation. Combs, Richards and Richards (1976) argue that the need to achieve, as with all human needs, can be subsumed under the fundamental need for self-adequacy, as the basic driving force of human nature. Threats to self-adequacy come in the form of external demands, such as academic workload, and internal demands including expectations. Poor self worth and self-adequacy, in themselves, can also be the basis for the experience of threat to self.

Family Stress and Separation

The present results highlight the importance of the role of the family in the stress experiences of students (see Figure 3).

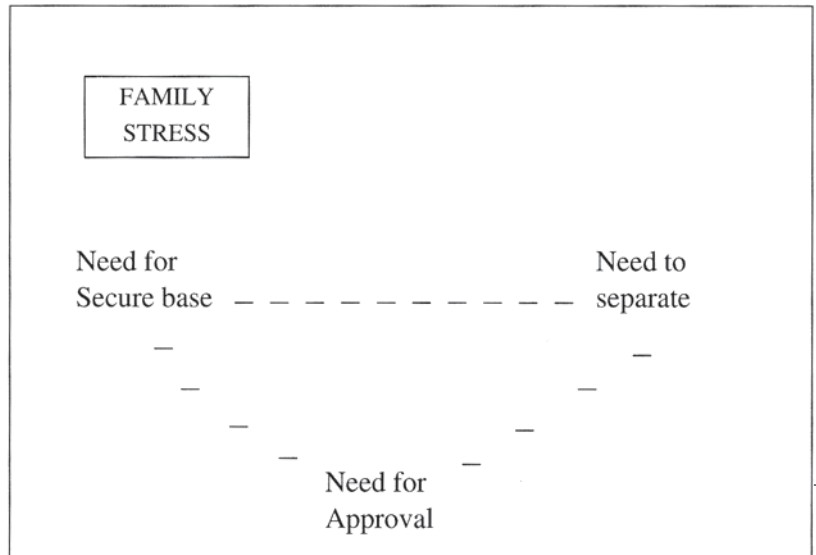


Figure 3.

The most dominant theme to emerge in relation to family demands in the present study has to do with students' relationships with their parents. The single largest family category is to get on well with parents (C43), referred to by 19 students. All students make some reference to their relationship with their parents.

The link between stress and the need for parental approval is highlighted in relation to students achievement motivation. Parents do have a big influence on students motivation and academic expectations (Davies, 1986) which is reflected here in students wanting to do well academically, so as to **please parents** (C41) and wanting **to be as good as siblings** (C47). Difficulties that students have with parents tend to be in relation to one parent in particular either because of conflict with that parent or **concern for that parents well-being** (C42) or wanting **to please that parent** (C41). These types of

family demands highlight the importance of parents in providing the secure base for the healthy development of identity and self-worth of the student (Minuchin, 1974; Satir, 1972). The home is where students first learn to feel adequate about themselves (Coopersmith, 1967; Satir, 1972). As students move out and separate from home their need to feel adequate still exists and is heavily influenced by what they have learned about themselves at home. Lopez et al., 1986, Anderson and Fleming, 1986, and Bradford and Lyddon, 1993, have all highlighted similar family difficulties to the above for college students.

It would seem that a positive identity is developed within the family where the student gets on well with parents, feels supported, approved and loved by them, thus providing the self-confidence necessary to be independent of home (Humphreys, 1993).

Independence (C49) is included as the third largest family category in the present study and is referred to by 9 students in all. Achieving independence through separation from home and the family is considered to be a primary developmental task of college students (Grayson, 1989). Students relationships with parents has been shown to have an important bearing on their separating from them and achieving independence (Ryan & Lynch, 1989). The present results confirm that indeed, students seek to be independent, but that, for many, this task is impeded due to an insecure home base caused by conflict, rejection or role commitments.

Three categories refer to students relationships with their siblings. Category C47, **to be as good as sibling**, has already been discussed as part of the theme regarding the need to achieve. The remaining two categories referring to siblings, **concern for sibling well being** (C46) and **to get on with sibling** (C45) do not appear to be directly linked with the other family categories.

Students experiencing stress in their family do so primarily in their relationship with one or other of their parents. Within a developmental framework this stress can be seen to retard the development of a positive identity necessary for separation, independent living and achieving an adequate self. In the present study there are reports of students experiencing family demands as well as demands in their academic or social lives from which it may be in-

ferred that the family has not provided the necessary secure base needed in order to achieve adequate independence.

Within a developmental model of student stress, family based stress can be understood as a threat to one's sense of safety and belongingness which underlie the development of the self-esteem necessary for achieving a healthy separation and independence (Maslow, 1970; Bowlby, 1988). In the past this aspect of student stress has been overlooked. Thankfully, there now seems to be a growing acceptance amongst researchers and practitioners that indeed a central element of student stress is due to what is happening for students within their own family. This focus on the family may detract from focusing on the contribution of the University environment to student stress. However, by taking into account the importance of the family in generating and maintaining student stress, the University can more appropriately address its own role in promoting and alleviating stress.

Social Stress and Intimacy

Social categories of demand include all those categories referring to student interaction with people apart from family members. The categories of social demand represent three distinct themes, namely the need for intimacy and the importance of relationships, the need for social approval and acceptance and the need for social skills (see Figure 4). The need for intimacy and relationships is referred to in some manner by all students. The single largest social category is **to have friends** (C11), which is referred to by 19 students in all. This is followed by the demand **to be with others** (C10), which is referred to by 12 students. Remaining categories which refer to the theme of relationships and intimacy are those referring **to getting on with others** (C12, C13, C17), and **maintaining friendships** (C22) and to be **sexually active** (C20).

The demand **to have time to socialise** (C18) is a category linking academic and social issues, and refers to the fact that, due to study, one cannot socialise. From this it can be inferred that socialising with others is valued. This category is mentioned by 12 students.

A second major social theme is that of developing the social

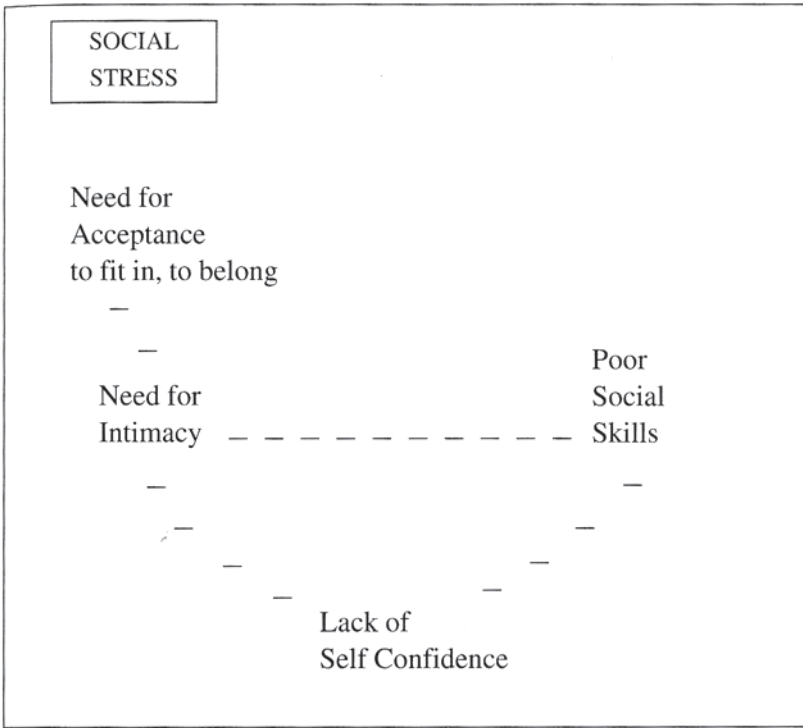


Figure 4.

skills necessary to pursue relationships. Two categories make specific reference to this demand, namely **to be able to relate to the opposite sex** (C14) referred to by 10 students and **to be able to get to know others** (C15), referred to by 6 students, 4 of whom also report difficulties relating to opposite sex. Thus, twelve students in all refer to social skills difficulties.

The final social theme to be discussed is that of social approval. Three categories can be included here and they are **to be thought well of by others** (C16) referred to by 12 students and **to be accepted and fit in** (C8) referred to by 9 students, 7 of whom also referred to the need to be thought well of [i.e. 14 students altogether make some reference to social approval]. If you include C9, to be as good as others (academically), 19 students refer to the need for social approval. Five students appear in all three categories referring to so-

cial approval, suggesting relationship between academic achievement and social approval i.e. the need for an adequate self. Other students reported no problems in any of the social areas. One common pattern amongst the students who lack the confidence to socialise is that they use study as an excuse not to go out and mix. Perhaps related to this is the fact that social acceptance and fear of rejection seems much more of a priority for some students than for others.

The development of intimacy as a task facing college students has been the subject of much debate, with opinions differing as to whether this task comes at a later stage of development or not (Gilligan, 1982). The present study confirms the need for relationships that is felt by students. Relationships can be understood to serve a number of purposes for college students, including intimacy but also serving as a source of approval and identity. As has been pointed out, for some students achieving academic success is seen as a priority, for others social acceptance and fitting in socially is dominant.

Social categories reflect three very different issues, including the need for intimacy through relationships with others, the need for approval and acceptance by others and the need for social skills. How might these demands be related? Although there are different issues involved, the demands do not occur in isolation but are linked to one another by the unifying concept of *what's at stake*, as outlined by Lazarus (1976). In this instance, it is the fear of loneliness and rejection by others that is appraised as a threat. Students who lack the intimacy of relationships also tend to lack a sense of self-adequacy and social skills necessary to form relationships. Students who feel adequate, on the other hand, tend to have social skills and do form close friendships if they wish. A number of students in the present study report feeling lonely and rejected by others as well as lacking a sense of self-adequacy and social skills.

In summary, students experiencing social stress often lack the confidence to form friendships and as a result are left feeling lonely and rejected. These results confirm the relevance of a developmental model of student stress, which maintains that social stress consists of threats to ones need for intimacy and acceptance by others.

These threats are experienced where social skills are poor and self-worth is low.

Personal Stress

The personal categories consist of a range of demands, including specific life events demands, basic survival demands and more general demands concerning personal development. Some of these categories can be related to the major themes already discussed, whilst others occur in isolation.

Four categories refer to specific life events experienced by students. Events varied from the major life trauma of the **death of a family member** (C25, see S24) to the daily **hassles of having something stolen** (C40), **being caught cheating at an exam** (C34) and **doing the research interview** (C30). Whilst there is no denying that such events are stressful, this type of category does not occur regularly for a large group of students and are not considered to be the basis for an overall model of student stress and instead are subsumed within a developmental framework. Within a developmental context these events may be considered stressful in so far as they threaten the self-adequacy of the student.

Four categories referred to basic survival demands including **getting adequate sleep** (C28), **being healthy** (C33), **getting a job** (C6) and **having money** (C24). Within the context of student development, survival needs such as these need to be satisfied before any higher order esteem needs can be addressed (Maslow, 1954).

The demand **to be in control** (C38) is referred to by 10 students, and to demand **to be able to make decisions** (C39) is referred to by 9 students. Within a developmental framework, these issues may be seen to reflect the basic need for security and the need to be independent, both of which contribute to one's overall development of a sense of identity and adequacy. These two categories however, are more general than previous categories and refer to issues across academic, social and family areas.

Two further categories relate to moral development, namely **to be moral and right** (C31) and **to have some meaning in life** (C32). Seven students refer to these categories. The remaining personal categories refer to a range of personal development items which

contribute to the formation of a confident identity. These include **looking well** (C23), **playing sport** (C36), and **expressing** emotions (C35), **fear of being attacked** (C28) and **to be occupied** (C29), each of which occurs for only a small number of students and again are not used as a basis for a model of student stress. This is not to say that such categories cannot be included in an overall model. However no pattern was apparent across this range of categories, with the more general personal categories referring to issues already accounted for within the academic, social and family spheres.

Interpretation of results in the context of a self adequacy model of student stress

There are three main areas of student stress, family, academic and social. Within each of these domains there are a number of significant factors -both internal and external- which influence the stress of the student. A summary of these factors is provided on Figures 2, 3, and 4. Academic stress involves the need to achieve, poor study skills, a heavy workload and a lack of motivation to study. Family stress involves role responsibilities, conflict with a parent, caught in triangle with both parents, wanting to please parent, separating from parents and lack of support from parents. Social stress involves a lack of self-confidence, poor social skills and the feeling of not fitting in. Based on these varieties of stress experienced by students, a range of student stress profiles have emerged from the above sample. These profiles are intended as broad guidelines for encapsulating the differences in the stresses experienced by the present sample of students.

Different profiles of students under stress

Every students experience is different and unique to their circumstances. Nonetheless, having examined the 27 cases presented in this study, it would appear that there are certain distinct types of stressed student. To begin with, it would seem that there are specific profiles of stressed students corresponding with each of the major developmental tasks which have been identified. Whilst these pro-

files are not mutually exclusive nor clearly delineated, each has its own particular emphasis. The different types of students I refer to as: the stressed academic achiever, the social misfit and the member of a dysfunctional family.

A summary of each of these types as they present within the present sample is provided below.

(1) OVERIDENTIFICATION WITH ACADEMIC SUCCESS

The student who overidentifies with academic success tends to have an accompanying lack of social skills and self-confidence. For this student the question “Who am I?” is normally answered by: I am my academic achievements (Grades).

Self adequacy for this student is achieved solely through academic achievement and intellectual competence. These students very often are the high achievers.

However the overidentification can result in a lack of motivation upon the realisation that academic success is not sufficient to be happy.

(2) NOT FITTING IN SOCIALLY

The student who does not fit in amongst his/her peers but who very much wants to fit in and to be close to somebody. For this student academic success is not as much a priority. Typically poor social skills are evident and the student will report feeling isolated. For this student Self-Adequacy can only be achieved through belonging, fitting in and being accepted by others.

(3) THE STUDENT AS A MEMBER OF A DYSFUNCTIONAL FAMILY

The student who comes from a family situation which is dysfunctional may present with extreme sibling rivalry or is involved in triangle of conflict with parents. This student will feel that Self adequacy can only be achieved through the secure base of loving and approval.

Further profiles of stressed students identified in the present sample but which do not figure as prominently as the above three include:

(4) Students who experience CAREER DISSATISFACTION with accompanying demotivation.

- (5) Students who experience A MAJOR LIFE TRAUMA - not to be considered the same as a stress, e.g. family bereavement.
- (6) Students who experience the STRAIN OF FAMILY ROLE RESPONSIBILITIES with accompanying need to be independent.

Finally there is the NON-STRESSED student who comes from a secure base of home, has adequate social skills and sees academic success as something of a challenge.

Summary and Conclusions

Summary

By examining each of the main areas of student stress and the linkages within them, most of the stress experienced by the students in this study has been addressed. However, these themes must not be considered in isolation from one another, but can be understood within a unified framework of student stress.

Three main areas of student stress have been discussed. They are academic, family and social. Each area has in turn been shown to refer to the specific developmental tasks of college students, i.e. identity, separation and intimacy respectively. The remaining categories allocated here to Zitzow's (1984) fourth heading, Personal, do not appear to represent an integrated or unified theme of demands, but rather suggest a disparate range of demands. Many of these demand categories can be addressed more specifically within the academic, family and social domains.

Factors contributing to the experience of stress amongst this group of students include: external demands (e.g. workload, having something stolen), inadequate coping responses (e.g. poor study skills, poor social skills) and the appraisal of threat to the self inherent in the experiences of stress - with appraisal being the primary determinant of the stressfulness of external demands as well as the adequacy of ones coping responses.

The developmental model of student stress (based on the theoretical considerations of Erikson, 1963, Chickering, 1969 and Grayson, 1989) can be adopted as the unifying framework within

which the categories generated by the present study can be understood. The developmental model of stress defines stress as the threat to self adequacy as developmental tasks are undertaken. This model recognises the ongoing need for esteem and adequacy (Maslow, 1954; Combs et al., 1976) without which development will not occur. Where ones feeling of self adequacy is lacking there will be a greater need for approval from the environment. This is demonstrated in the present study by students demands to be adequate academically (e.g. to achieve standards, C1) socially (e.g. to be accepted/ to fit in, C8; to be as good as others C9) and in the family (e.g. to please parents, C41; to be as good as siblings, C47). Together, these categories of adequacy and approval occur across all three major developmental areas and between them have been referred to in varying degrees by every student.

The present study has identified a common theme in the experience of student stress i.e. threat to self in the context of developmental tasks. These results also highlight how this threat is experienced in a variety of different ways by students. For example, some students experience difficulties primarily in one area of their lives be that family, social or academic (S6). For other students this threat to self can permeate through a number of areas e.g. academic and family, academic and social or social and family. There are some students for whom the threat is extensive, affecting them in all aspects of their lives, including family, social and academic. From this we can conclude that there is an underlying threat to self occurring for all students experiencing stress but that this is experienced in different ways for students depending on their most important developmental needs at that time. Future research would do well to examine these variations.

References

- Anderson, S.A., & Fleming, W.M. (1986). Late adolescents' home-leaving strategies: Predicting ego identity and college adjustment. *Adolescence*, 21, 453-459.
- Bowlby, J. (1988). *A secure base: Clinical applications of attachment theory*. London: Routledge.
- Bradford, E. & Lyddon, W. (1993). Current parental attachment: Its relation to perceived psychological distress and relationship satisfaction in college students. *Journal of College Student Development*, 34(4), 256-260.
- Chickering, A.W. (1969). *Education and Identity*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Combs, A.W., Richards, A.C., & Richards, F. (1976). *Perceptual Psychology: A Humanistic approach to the study of persons*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Coopersmith, S. (1967). *The antecedents of self-esteem*. San Francisco: Freeman.
- Davies, D.E. (1986). *Maximizing Examination Performance, A Psychological Approach*, London: Kogan Page.
- Erikson, E.H. (1963). *Childhood and Society* (2nd Ed.). New York: Norton.
- Erikson, E.H. (1968). *Identity, Youth and Crisis*. New York: Norton.
- Fisher, B. (1988). *Leaving home, homesickness and the psychological effects of change and transition*. In S. Fisher & J. Reason (Eds). *Handbook of Life Stress, Cognition and Health*. New York: Wiley.
- Gilligan, C. (1982). *The College Psychotherapy Client: An overview*. In P.A. Grayson & K. Caulenk (Eds), *College Psychotherapy*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Grayson, P. (1989). The College Psychotherapy Client: an overview. In P. Grayson & K. Caulenk (Eds.), *College Psychotherapy*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Greenberg, G. J. (1981). A study of stressors in the college student population. *Health Education*, 12, 8-12.
- Humphreys, A. (1993). *Self-esteem: The key to your child's education*. Cork.
- Lazarus, R.S. (1976). *Patterns of adjustment* (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Lopez, R.G., Campbell, V.L., & Watkins, C.E. (1986). Depression, psychological separation and college adjustment: An investigation of sex differences. *Journal of Counselling Psychology*, 33, 52-56.
- Maslow, A. (1954). *Motivation and Personality*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Maslow, A. (1962). *Toward a Psychology of Being*. New York: Van Nostrand.

- Maslow, A. (1970). *Motivation and Personality* (second edition) New York: Harper and Row.
- McClelland, D.C. (1953). *Achievement Motivation*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.
- Minuchin, S. (1974). *Families and Family Therapy*. Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.
- Ryan, R.M. & Lynch, J.H. (1989). Emotional autonomy versus detachment: Revisiting the vicissitudes of adolescence and young adulthood. *Child Development*, 60, 340-356.
- Satir, V. (1972). *People making*. Palo Alto, CA: Science & Behaviour Books Inc.
- Stone, G.L. & Archer J.A., Jr. (1990). College and university counselling centers in the 1990's: Challenges and limits. *Counselling Psychologist*, 18, 539-607.
- Whitman, N., Spendlove, D., & Clarke, C. (1984). *Student Stress: Effects and Solutions*. Ashe-Eric Higher Education Report No. 2. Washington, D.C.: Association for the study of higher education.
- Zitzow, D. (1984). The College adjustment rating scale. *Journal of College Student Personnel*, March, 160-164.

7

Interaction between Emotion, Cognition and Behaviour as a Focus for Student Counselling in Higher Education*

GERHART ROTT

Introduction

The Forum Européen de l'Orientation Académique was formally founded as an organisation in Delphi and in Athens in 1988. Its working group PSYCHE, which stands for Psychological Counselling in Higher Education, goes back to those very first days. In our meetings and conferences we established common ground among professionals working in this field. To clarify and to compare our settings and concepts we published a report on *Psychological Counselling in Higher Education: A European Overview* (Bell, McDevitt, Rott, & Valerio, 1994). The European Commission sponsored the production of this report. We sent it to all vice-chancellors, university rectors and presidents inside the European Union.

With this background in mind I thought it useful for a further extended exchange of views to take place, an exchange that might contribute elements towards a theoretical framework. This framework would concern general aspects of students' personal development in higher education. I would like to identify some features

* This article was first published in: *Contemporary Psychology in Europe: Theory, Research and Application* [edited by Georgas, J., Manthouli, M., Besevegis, E., & Kokkevi, A. (1996)]. Permission kindly granted by Hogrefe und Huber Verlag, Göttingen.

which are components of students' normal higher education and are also important in the special setting of student counselling. This might help towards an understanding of possible interlinks between both fields of action.

In psychological counselling and psychotherapy, counsellors' explicit and implicit assumptions about higher education influence their practical interventions with students. On the other hand, the student as a person clearly plays an important part in higher education. Any attempt to improve higher education should therefore relate both to theoretical explications about basic psychological structures and to the various functions of academic learning and its connections with personal development. Because of financial restrictions and economic demands, administrators are looking for ways out and asking for across-the-board reform of universities. The consultative interventions, which now increasingly influence the systems of higher education in many European countries, need in this context to have realistic views on the whole complex of personal dimensions in higher education.

The contribution I want to give here draws on three main sources. One is my own practical experience in daily work with students as the head of a counselling service. I reflect on those encounters with others in training sessions, supervision and inter-vision, and general exchange with colleagues. A second source is the European network FEDORA-PSYCHE. In both areas, I become aware of the fruitfulness of psychological events looked at with the different views of diverse theories. In FEDORA-PSYCHE colleagues with psychoanalytical and psychodynamic, behavioural, client-centred, gestalt, and other backgrounds work closely together.

This is one reason that encourages me to draw on psychological theories with very distinct theoretical backgrounds and empirical justifications. In a kind of meta-analysis, I want to identify some elements in existing theories which may be useful for grasping the psychological dimensions of higher education.

The area in which I want to do this is the interaction between cognition, emotion and behaviour. I feel that to understand this interplay is an important key to understanding the student as a person. I want to underline this interplay as a process and to define more precisely

the terminology used compared to more isolated concepts such as thoughts, affects, and behaviour. I suggest using the categories of cognition, emotion, and action in the sense that each of them interacts necessarily with the other two, and that one might even say, each overlaps or even incorporates the other two (Figure 1).

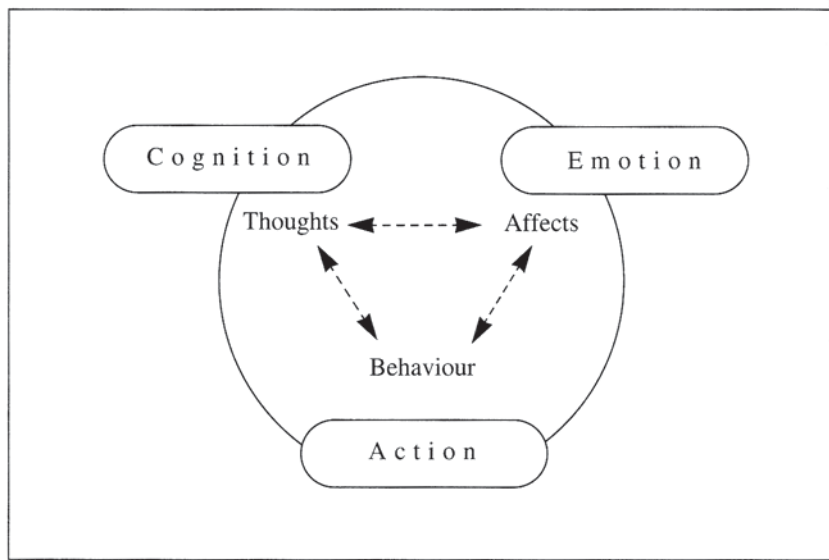


Figure 1. The Interaction between Cognition, Emotion and Action.

The important aspect here is not so much cognition, emotion, and action as such, but their mutual interaction; although I feel it is necessary to go step by step, since it is not possible to grasp the complexity without putting it into some kind of sequence. So first I will look at cognition, then at emotion, and finally at action, and try to analyse the relations between these areas while looking at each individually.

Cognition (Thoughts)

The Acquiring of Knowledge: The Relation of the Student to the Object of Study

The humanities and sciences are about gathering knowledge;

academic learning is about acquiring parts of this knowledge. Students coming to university usually have this well-established, reduced, and simplified image in mind, and this way of thinking will prove helpful in getting oneself organised with the task while studying. Many emotions and ideas might trouble students, but in the first year counselling process, students quite often put questions into a limited frame. Questions might be the following: what courses do I have to take, or what kind of examinations will I have to sit? In such a view, the body of knowledge is an object to be seized. One might suggest that university administrations as well as most university teachers probably have similar or parallel ideas in mind for the everyday structuring of teaching.

But one could have a slightly different view on this relation between the student and his course. The knowledge which lecturers teach in a course, and the students' efforts to understand, have a common origin. In this sense, one sees knowledge as a human response to understanding the surrounding world and how one might relate to it. This form of human activity is the common ground on both sides: the student and the institutionalised knowledge in his/her course. In such a view, it is more the students' task to transform their existing knowledge into a higher level of insight than to incorporate completely new and alien material into their mind. In this way we may find psychologically meaningful linkages between the process of acquiring knowledge and the knowledge itself. We might understand academic knowledge as part of the perceived or constructed world of the student.

It is a difficult task to develop a modern, empirically based theory that could clarify this psychological relationship between the learning process, the material, and the content studied. I want to elucidate some central elements of a possible theory by relying on the work of Piaget. Though he scarcely mentions higher education and the socialisation of students directly, Piaget and his colleagues of the Geneva school of developmental psychology have given very useful hints with their genetic epistemology. In fact, as far as I know, it is the most coherent psychological concept relating individual thinking and the structures of academic knowledge.

In his specific way, Piaget solves the problem of an epistemologi-

cal circle (Piaget, 1975d, p. 46, and especially 1975f, p. 171). The recognising subject knows the object only by his/her activities, but can know himself and one's activities only by relating to the object. Piaget constructed (Piaget, 1972, p. 85) an evolutionary and psychologically meaningful solution to this problem. He showed that this logical circle is an expression of the order of sciences, which themselves establish a genetic circle. This exists as a reality (Piaget, 1975d, p. 45) of differentiated yet related cognitive structures (Piaget, 1975d, p. 47). One starts with the highly formalised thinking of mathematics, goes on to physics and then on to chemistry. Then to biology, which opens up the perspective of the organism as an information processing system. Then to anthropos. This opens the perspective to the sciences of anthropos including economics, law, and the historical and philosophical disciplines (Piaget, 1972, pp. 13-103). In those fields the *object* is at the same time the *subject* of research. The analysis of the epistemological operations of the subject, to which psychogenetic research provides the means, closes the circle and comes back again to the foundations of mathematics (Piaget, 1972, p. 231).

Sometimes, to describe this inner coherence of the sciences, Piaget uses the picture of an endless spiral (Piaget, 1972, p. 85; 1975d, p. 49). This picture hints at gaps (Piaget, 1975f, p. 307) in the circle. It stresses the important point of open processes which enhance themselves (Piaget, 1975d, p. 46) in the creative development of knowledge (ibid., p. 37), and will probably never find a final limit (ibid., p. 49). Thus the psychogenetic perspective shows ways of examining knowledge as a function of its real and psychological origination (ibid., p. 19). It allows one to analyse the transitions between different fields and structures of knowledge (Piaget, 1975f, pp. 296-298).

I want to highlight five lines based on Piagetian thought, which I regard as central to the task of establishing a theoretical framework. These five lines are a cognitive anchor that provide a stable harbour, while one explores the psychological meaning of the knowledge developed, taught and acquired at universities. They help find answers to the question how knowledge relates students to their outer world. As far as I know, there is no empirical research on student development within the Piagetian framework. I think it would be very

promising to develop empirical research in all of the following five lines of thought:

- (1) The relation between the individual subject and his/her objects of thinking corresponds to the genetic circle of knowledge in the natural sciences and the humanities.
- (2) New knowledge is taken in by the individual student in the form of an interactive process constructing patterns that relate his/her inner and outer worlds to each other.
- (3) In the end, students might develop the same or similar knowledge, which is an expression of the communicative, inter-subjective, and objective character of academic learning and teaching. The genetic processes of acquiring this knowledge may be very different in individual students.
- (4) The processes of acquiring knowledge connect with the affective life. When those processes reactivate former learning experiences, they relate not only to cognitions but also to emotions which students have experienced in their past.
- (5) To gain academic knowledge may be described as an intensive and highly formalised process of *ego-decentration*.

The progressive interaction between subject and object results in the separation of the universe of the subject and the universe of the object. In this process of separation both construct each other (ibid., p. 264). This decentration is a growing process of inner consistency and logical reversibility.

Piaget describes what kind of difference for the consistency of meaning it makes whether very young children in the sensomotoric stage look at an object, grasp it, and suck it or whether they just grasp it (Piaget, 1975a, p. 129). Integration of this sort supports the first steps of relative independence towards the objective world (Piaget, 1975b). On a much higher level with the operations of thinking and with logical operations the I decenters the universe. It maps out the inner relations of its objects in an everlasting virtual (Piaget, 1975e, p. 111) and complex way (Piaget, 1975f, p. 264) which again creates an ever more complex construction of its own inner universe. These processes find their formalised cumulation in scientific knowledge. This kind of knowledge strives to go on with the

process of decentration by developing its methodology. Piaget, for example, describes the progress of mechanics as a process of decentration (Piaget, 1975e, p. 110) in the thinking of physics. In such a view one might say that studying at university is an enhancing process of discovering the reciprocities and increasing operative reversibilities between the inner universe and the universe of objects by means of methodical knowledge. The student decenters himself from the objective world and vice versa.

Process of Studying and Everyday Social Life: The Student's Relation to His/Her Environment

Students' relations to their subjects develop not only in direct contact with the ideas taught at university. Those relations advance as an integral part of their everyday personal and social life inside and outside university. On the other hand, their everyday concerns connect with the task of becoming an academically trained person.

There are primarily three overlapping psychological clusters in which this interaction between the process of studying and daily social life crystallises: decision-making, affiliations, and achievement.

Choosing a course and a university, as well as planning a higher education, is a complex personal project. It links with a great number of selective processes in which students place themselves in a physical and social environmental context (Potocnik, 1990). Inside the FEDORA-PSYCHE context, we have dealt with some central aspects of this journey undergone by students. They anticipate future events as well as project themselves into the future (Dias, 1994). Making a decision does not stop once one is enrolled in a course, but the selections of goals, the examination of alternatives and choices continually accompany the process of studying. The range and kind of those decisions about courses depend on national differences in the system of higher education (Bell et al., 1994). Choices stabilise beliefs and thoughts, and evoke new cognitions. Since decisions require limitations and are self-reflexive (Broonen, 1991), they reinforce the cognitive decentration process. They go along with specific feelings and behaviour.

This is also true for cognitions arising out of "acceptance or rejection of social encounter" (Weiner, 1986, p. 15) and out of activi-

ties related to achievement. Studying is enclosed within a context of social processes. To relate to other people and to have success are important issues. If we want to understand properly the motivation for coping with study, we have to include the implications of students' everyday life. Especially for cognitions which concern new relationships and for achievement. Theories like Weiner's *attributional theory of motivation and emotion* are useful. They help us to understand what kind of significance specific cognitions might have for students in their daily life and how these relate to emotions.

Emotions

Emotions in Everyday Student Life

Emotions play an important part in the process of structuring decisions, relating to other people, trying to achieve their aims, and acquiring new ideas taught at university. When educational authorities and teachers think about the role of a student, they might perhaps forget him or her as a person and “wish that students were simply brains on sticks” (Noonan, 1993, p. 1). In certain situations for example, when strong anxieties arise during examinations, students might have the same wish.

But it is reasonable to assume that in their daily life students have feelings, and that these are closely intertwined with their thoughts and behaviour. It is also reasonable to assume that “not all but many of them are conscious and known” (Weiner, 1986, p. 8) to the students. As Weiner says, “We may not be aware of psychological processes or of the ‘hows’ of psychology (*how* we learn, *how* we perceive, *how* we remember), but we are often aware of psychological content, or the whats of psychology (*what* we want, *what* we feel, for *what* reason we engage in an activity)” (p. 8). It is one of the merits of Weiner's theory of motivation and emotion that it tries “to address common or everyday affective states” (p. 119) and “prevalent emotional experiences” (p. 120) by explicating their different attributive contexts. The starting points of his attribution model are empirical findings. They relate the outcome to positive feelings of happiness in the case of success and to more varied reactions of sad-

ness, unhappiness, and (or) frustration in the case of non-attainment of a goal. The causal search eventually identifies the causal dimensions of locus, stability, and controllability. Significantly, the attribution of causal dimensions evoke specific feelings. Pride and self-esteem, hopelessness and hope, guilt and shame, anger, gratitude and pity relate to specific causal dimensions and expectancies.

For example, in the achievement domain, the feeling of pride will generally result if a student is successful with an examination and attributes this outcome to his/her personal effort and/or ability. This represents an internal locus of control. In the affiliate domain the same will be true in the case of ascription of success to a student's personality and/or attractiveness.

Emotions as Keys to Understanding Schemata of Affects

It seems to me that the attributional model of motivation is a helpful tool to understand actual emotions because of students' everyday relations to their university environment. Other theoretical frameworks may be useful to understand why students have basic cognitive and emotional tendencies in relating to their environment and have difficulties in changing them. Affects can be important keys to understand these tendencies, which often have their origins in important past emotional experiences.

Mr. P., a student of economics, has done fairly well in his basic course (Grundstudium) and intermediate exam (Vordiplom) but during his main course he is becoming increasingly less successful and more hopeless about his future at university, and in professional life. Anxieties and the expectancy of failure accompany him.

In counselling sessions he soon has a clear insight that he is avoiding the demands of oral presentations and personal engagement. In his economics course the basic part is done mainly by learning the facts, which are examined by written tests. In the main course lecturers put a high demand on oral participation and personal engagement. Mr. P. finds this extremely intimidating and strong feelings of shame arise in him. Until now he has kept silent in his seminar.

He had a basic experience in his adolescence. When he was fourteen years old he had been quite active in his class with two other

friends. As he perceived it, he mixed constructive oral contributions with actions of rebellion which teachers judged to be disruptive. This had consequences: one of his classmates had to leave school, another could stay but he had to change his class, and he did not feel accepted for a long time. The result was that Mr. P. had been shocked, frozen in his adolescence. To get into contact with this experience with its denied feelings of guilt and shame and to dissolve the unresolved conflicts of adolescence helped him play an active part in his course and to rearrange his studies with -and around- success.

In our mutual exchange Bell (1991) and Rott (1991, 1994) in *FE-DORA-PSYCHE*, Adamo and Valerio (1991; Adamo, Giusti, Petri, Portanova, & Valerio, 1993), who work with medical students, the French literature teacher Brutine (1991, 1994), who works with students who have had psychotic breakdowns, and Heyno (1994), who, besides her counselling work is also engaged in training counsellors within the psychodynamic framework, have brought their psychoanalytical background to bear on a better understanding of learning inhibitions. McDevitt (1994) has shown in a cross-cultural case how the implicit expectations of parents inhibit constructive study behaviour. It might be difficult for the counsellor to find out about these inhibitions, because of cultural differences between him and his client. Knigge-Illner (1994a, 1994b) analyses with a multitheoretical approach the relevance of conflicts in biographical learning histories for actual study-performance, and emotional conflicts as part of a framework for developing study-improvement courses.

Students' cognitions and behaviour seem sometimes highly influenced by affects not so much resulting from a present situation, but more as a key to past experiences. Piaget's concept of affective schemata is useful for explaining this relationship. In his genetic reconstruction of the psychoanalytical concepts of the unconscious and of symbolisation, Piaget developed a framework that constructs the relation between cognitive and affective schemata as a continuous process. It starts in early childhood and goes on through adult life. Past schemata are assimilated into new schemata. Not the affects which exist only in the present, but the schemata and their reciprocal assimilation constitute the affective continuity from the past into the present (Piaget, 1975c, p. 238).

A continuous accommodation accompanies these assimilation processes in order to adapt them to the actual conditions of the manifold and obstinate (p. 266) present. Insofar as the equilibration accomplishes a balance, a conscious regulation of the emotions is possible. Otherwise, the present will be assimilated to the past, which, as Piaget points out, may be sometimes quite necessary to survive (p. 263). Vice versa - the past is assimilated to the present. Emotions then relate to early concepts of the personality. Epstein states in a similar way that emotions are the *via regia* to the implicit assumptions of a person (1979, p. 42). They relate to the cognitions of the self-concept of a person.

Emotions and the Self

To understand some phenomena which relate to the interplay of students' cognitions and emotions, is to realise how closely the student's self is related to his/her process of studying. This comprehension provides insights into the emotional risks and opportunities of being a student.

As young adults, students review past cognitive and emotional experiences in order to become more secure of their identity and to enlarge it at the same time. They enhance "their competence to produce and to create" (Erikson, 1974, 2nd ed., p. 141). They "reach toward maturity" and "grow through learning" (Noonan, 1993, pp. 1-2). If these processes prevail, students get to know more deeply who they are and what their values are. They develop self-confidence within their specific task of assimilating new knowledge.

Remaining within the psychoanalytical framework, one might say that students strengthen the Ego functions by developing a greater coherence and separation of the Self. In this respect, Kohut's (1979, 2nd ed.) theory of narcissism provides some deep insights into the processes relevant to student development. It gives an understanding of how positive integration of archaic narcissistic images of grandeur can develop into constructive forms of self-respect and self-confidence (p. 336), and how these processes might be endangered. In his differentiation of the creativity of artists and of people in the world of science, Kohut emphasises that scientific work needs, compared to the work of the artists, much more highly neu-

tralised narcissistic energy. Science compared to art is much more dissolved from the individual (p. 349). I think one can include the specific demands on students in this thought. To reach maturity through learning at university demands a positive integration of highly neutralised energy in order to relate to the objects studied and to one's positive affiliations.

If one looks at the phenomenon Kohut describes, using the Piagetian framework, one might say that academic work requires high capacity for decentration. With his description of science as a process of ego-decentration, Piaget explains, as I have shown above, how cognitive processes relate to the production and acquisition of academic knowledge. The individual attains the assimilation of new knowledge by equilibration. This produces new cognitive and emotional schemata and increases their reversibilities. New balances between the inner and outer world will influence the self-concept of the individual, enlarge it and make it more flexible. Positive learning experience might enhance the self-concept and self-esteem both at the same time. But these processes might also evoke emotional threats, since the growth of self-esteem might be in conflict with the self-concept, as Kohut (1979, 2nd ed.) and especially Epstein (1979, p. 37) have shown. The need for consistency of the self-concept might be in conflict with the desire to enlarge self-esteem and might hinder positive study behaviour.

I want to add another vignette to illustrate the meaning of this statement:

Ms. F. wants to become a primary school teacher. Though quite successful at the beginning of her studies, she avoids the final steps of preparing for the exams for more than a year. She has low self-esteem, strong feelings of incompetence, is badly organised and in danger of becoming a dropout. Her father died when she was in the second year in primary school. There was little room in her family for openly mourning her father. Her mother tried to hide her feelings of sadness, and this made the daughter feel extremely responsible for her mother's well-being. This did not give her space to show her sadness. It was not until she could go back to this experience and accept herself as a mourning child that her self-concept allowed her to become a primary teacher and to prepare successfully for her exam.

In counselling sessions, enhancing the awareness of the organismic self, or real self as it is often referred to in client-centred therapy (Mearns and Thorne, 1988, p. 8), is a central task. The therapeutic process encourages the subject to enlarge self-concepts step by step. This may be seen as an explicit task, as in client-centred (Rogers, 1987, 3rd ed.), or in Gestalt-therapeutic (Perls, Hefferline, & Goodman, 1985) approaches, or it may be more an implicit result of other counselling approaches e.g., psychodynamic or behaviourally orientated.

Emotional security provided in counselling settings is an important device to allow students to enlarge their ability to take emotional risks and to check on their cognitive evaluations of situations.

Inside FEDORA-PSYCHE, Figge (1994) has reported on research concerning these questions - comparing the subjective and the objective outcomes of therapy. Among the colleagues of FEDORA-PSYCHE involved in clinical work, there is a common understanding that one should relate this work to the normal processes of young adults, who are in the process of confirming their independence. The adaptation of the self-concept to new demands, and the accompanying emotional conflicts, are part of normal student-life. These conflicts may be dissolved in a student's everyday action. But they may also be aggravated by the very conditions of action inside universities.

Action (Behaviour)

Delaying Action

There is a report that Albert Ellis once said, "99 percent of students procrastinate, know they procrastinate, and go on procrastinating" (Rückert, 1994, p. 130). With this statement Ellis, has implicitly elicited a structure which he probably did not have in mind. To study at university can be described as a process of delayed action. Academic studies provide a kind of moratorium which alienates students from everyday productive life. On the other hand, in comparison to secondary schools, higher education is much more closely related to "real life". In modern societies, science and the humanities play an ever increasing role in organising the productive

functions of society. Research in and outside universities is understood as an economic input. There is at least the assumption that the knowledge taught at university can be applied in the professional world or at least can be transformed into professionally useful knowledge. In these respects differences exist in the various courses, in the manifold departments and universities of each country, and in the European countries themselves (Bell et al., 1994, p. 17). But overall, one can say that students live in a rather paradoxical situation all over Europe: they relate to productive functions, but remain young adults not part of the productive world.

An expression of this paradox, is that for students in this complex and often ceremonial, but at the same time highly individualistic academic world, it is sometimes difficult to find out what kind of action is demanded.

In a psychological view in which one is considering the interplay between emotion, cognition, and action, one might look for constructive ways in which students can overcome the paradoxes in meaningful action, and one might see the necessity of encouraging them. To cope with the underlying paradoxes is, at the same time, a task for students and for psychological approaches to higher education.

Four Aspects Relating to Students' Action as Meaningful Behaviour

The Potential of Thinking as Internalised Action

As genetic Piagetian research shows, thinking originates in action and is closely related to action. Rational thinking, as Piaget says, is an arrival point, not a starting point (Piaget, 1975f, p. 259). Thinking can be perceived as an internalised and abbreviated action. In this sense, to study is a very active process. Students relate actively to the world not only while doing practical experiments and projects, but in the very activity of reconstructing theories and integrating them into their knowledge. I propose the hypothesis that the more deeper students get into a conscious relation with this side of mental knowledge, the better they can construct their knowledge. As a consequence, they are then better prepared to relate it to their own real actions e.g., preparing and passing examinations. Effort,

ability, and strategy become a transparent part in the very process of studying. To examine this hypothesis, psychological research will be necessary; but I think there is already now enough evidence to underline the significance of this aspect for good quality in higher education. University teaching should enhance the chances for students to acquire this sort of active understanding of knowledge.

Acquiring and Applying Methodological Knowledge

Methodological knowledge -I use this term here in a very broad sense- is a form in which students learn to relate their thinking and themselves to the objects they study. With their study habits, students enhance for example, their reading and writing competencies, their ability to develop, and to incorporate creative thinking in their work. Knowledge about methods organises their actions and to some extent consciously integrates emotions and thinking. Disruptions in their study habits might be a key for further cognitive appraisal and possible change of action.

Self-management in the Academic World

Students organise themselves and their relation to the academic environment. They make choices, manage their time, organise themselves for oral and written presentations, make appointments with teachers, overcome or (do not overcome) procrastination, cope with examinations and prepare for future professional life. While they engage in all these activities, they may receive and perceive feedback. They attribute outcomes and reappraise actions and emotions and regulate their action (Viebahn, 1990).

For the two overlapping aspects of study habits (including reading and creative writing) and self-management (including procrastination and preparation for examinations), student counsellors have developed elaborate instruments and conceptions. In individual counselling and in special thematic group workshops (Delhaxe, 1994; Depreeuw, 1994; Knigge-Illner & Kruse, 1994; Knigge-Illner, 1994a, 1994b; and Kalantzi-Azizi & Matsaka, 1993) -including workshops to encourage general creativity and emotional awareness and psychotherapeutic groups- skillful interventions have been developed. Inside FEDORA-PSYCHE we had an intensive discussion

of some of them at the Barcelona conference in 1994. These ideas may not only contribute to the support of students in the counselling setting, but also influence academic teaching (Depreeuw, 1994; Knigge-Illner, 1994) and institutional change.

Some programmes have been evaluated (Rickenson, 1994; Figge, 1994) but still a lot of theoretical and empirical research has to be done.

One should evaluate to what extent in and outside the counselling services the university supports and encourages orientation of students. How the university stimulates the development of constructive study habits and self-management, and how on the other side students are able to use what the university offers.

Personal Development in Successful Action

Finally, I want to mention a fourth aspect, which integrates the others. When students organise their success, they balance -they equilibrate to use the Piagetian term- in a new way their cognitive and emotional life in concrete actions. Sometimes this may be for students a painful and difficult task, as all of us who do psychological and psychotherapeutic counselling know.

Weiner observes the cases of failure, which people have attributed to stable internal causes. In those cases a change of self-concept, self-esteem and expectation of success can only be changed as a gradual process, as a "moderate growth" (Weiner, 1986, p. 234). I would like to generalise this notion. In this sense, studying is a form of personal growth in which students are aware of failures, but might sometimes be quite dramatic - students incorporate the ability to integrate academic thinking in their personal emotional and cognitive life. Higher education should encourage a process in which students feel enough emotional security to integrate new knowledge, be flexible in their self-concept and allow their self-esteem to grow.

Students who constructively relate to the social context in and outside university and who actively acquire new knowledge -including the evaluation by themselves and in feedbacks and examinations by others- engage in actions that evoke new equilibrations (Piaget, 1975c, p.340; 1975d, p.23; and 1975f, p.294), and are self-supportive.

Conclusion

The awareness of the interplay between cognition, emotion, and behaviour is a powerful tool for successful action in higher education. The enhancement of this insight is a substantial focus for both the student and professionals (teaching staff, student counsellors, administrators, institutional consultancy staff) (Figure 2).

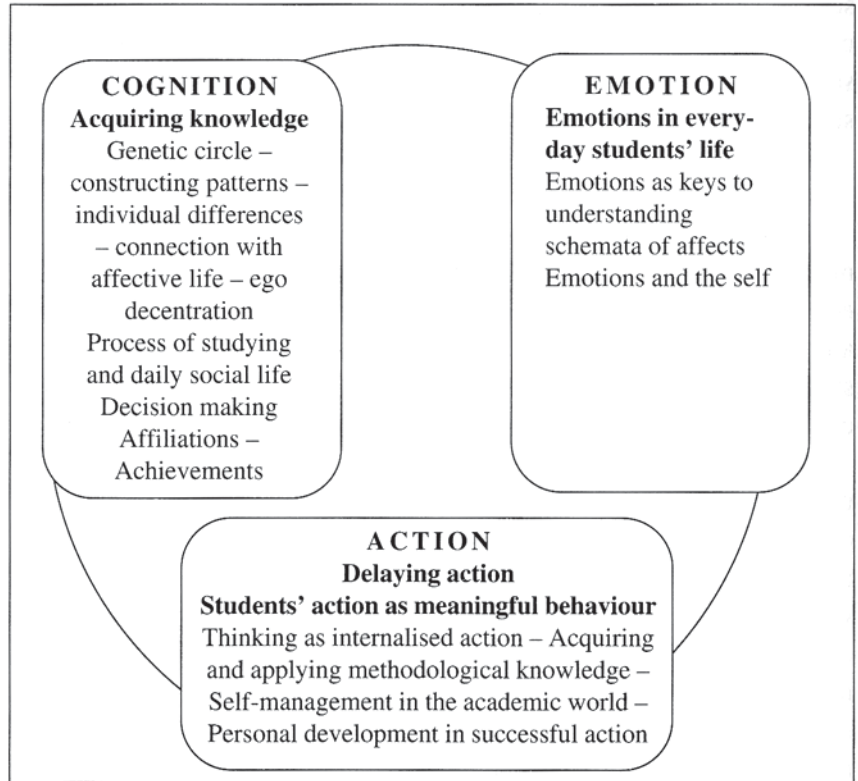


Figure 2. Interaction between Emotion, Cognition, and Action in Higher Education.

I want to add a final remark. Sometimes students and higher education are only seen as a cost-factor and a burden in economically difficult times. This might be myopic. The enormous problems of

the job market are producing dark clouds in almost all European countries. Financial restrictions and technological and economic demands are causing tremendous changes in almost all European countries. Ecological, political, social, and cultural challenges are accompanying a growing Europe. But there are risks and chances. As D. Lenarduzzi, Director of Education of the European Commission, said at the Barcelona Conference of FEDORA, in such a situation education is, "the key factor in coming developments" (Lenarduzzi, 1994, p. 115).

In such a situation, it is only wise to support students' personal and academic ability to respond to their environments, so that they can take up their responsibility. Psychological knowledge may contribute to processes which improve the supportive structure of universities, and they can do so mainly in the fields of institutional consultancy, staff development and in student counselling. For this purpose, the development of relevant theory, of empirical research, and of practical methods as well as the exchange of experiences by practitioners may have a crystallising effect.

FEDORA-PSYCHE wants to be one of the nuclei in this process and the Symposium on 'Psychological Counselling in Higher Education' to the IV European Congress of Psychology in Athens has been a further useful step into that direction.

References

- Adamo, S.M.G., Giusti, P., Petri, F., Portanova, F., & Valerio, P. (1993, June). THE TOOL-BOX psychoanalytical concepts we consider fundamental in our work as university students counsellors. *FEDORA Newsletter*, 4-5.
- Adamo, S.M.G., & Valerio, P. (1991). Psychodynamically oriented brief interventions with medical students. In Hochschulrektorenkonferenz (Ed.) *Ein Jahr davor: Studieren in Europa*. (Vol. 72, pp. 229-234). Bonn/Berlin: Dokumente zur Hochschulreform.
- Bell, E. (1991). Counselling methods and concepts. In Hochschulrektorenkonferenz (Ed.) *Ein Jahr davor: Studieren in Europa* (Vol. 72, pp. 306-317). Bonn/Berlin: Dokumente zur Hochschulreform.
- Bell, E., McDevitt, C., Rott, G., & Valerio, P. (Eds.). (1994). *Psychological counselling in higher education*. Napoli: La Città Del Sole.
- Broonen, J.P. (1991). L'auto-exploration des intérêts et des capacités: données et validité du "self-directed research" de J.L. Holland. In Hochschulrektorenkonferenz (Ed.) *Ein Jahr davor: Studieren in Europa* (Vol. 72, pp. 254-261). Bonn/Berlin: Dokumente zur Hochschulreform.
- Brutin, K. (1991). Impact émotionnel de la littérature, son utilisation au sein d'une relation de tutorat pédagogique dans le cadre d'un enseignement auprès d'étudiants souffrant de graves troubles psychiques. In Hochschulrektorenkonferenz (Ed.) *Ein Jahr davor: Studieren in Europa* (Vol. 72, pp. 292-295). Bonn/Berlin: Dokumente zur Hochschulreform.
- Brutin, K. (1994). *Psychoacademic counselling to students who have had severe breakdowns: a few suggestions to think over the role of studies in mental development*. Paper presented at the Barcelona Conference.
- Delhaxe, M. (1994). *Awareness and improvement of learning skills to help succeed in university "Guidance étude"*. Paper presented at the Barcelona Conference.
- Depreeuw, E. (1994). *Study procrastination in university students: conceptual analysis and preliminary outcome data of a group treatment programme*. Paper presented at the Barcelona Conference.
- Dias, G. F. (1994). *La projection du self dans le futur, la dépression et l'accomplissement académique. Conséquences pour le conseil psychologique*. Paper presented at the Barcelona Conference.
- Epstein, S. (1979). Entwurf einer Integrativen Persönlichkeitstheorie. In Sigrun - Heide Filipp (Ed.), *Selbstkonzept-Forschung - Probleme, Befunde, Perspektiven* (pp. 15-45). Stuttgart: Klett-Cotta.

- Erikson, E.H. (1974). *Jugend und Krise, die Psychodynamik im sozialen Wandel*. (2nd ed.). Stuttgart: Ernst Klett Verlag. Original edition (1968): *Identity Youth and Crisis*, New York: W.W. Norton and Company.
- Figge, P. (1994). *Aspects of objective therapy-outcome and subjective therapy-benefit in client-centered psychotherapy in groups*. Paper presented at the Barcelona Conference.
- Heyno, A. (1994). Psycho-dynamic counselling in practice. In Bell, E., McDevitt, C, Rott, G., & Valerio, P. (Eds.), *Psychological counselling in higher education* (pp. 233-237). Napoli: La Città Del Sole.
- Kalantzi-Azizi, A., & Matsaka, I. (1993, June). Group training of students with problems in organising study and difficulties of attention. *FEDORA Newsletter*, 8-9.
- Knigge-Illner, H. (1994a). The process of psychological counselling: An example of student counselling at German universities. In Bell, E., McDevitt, C., Rott, G., & Valerio, P. (Eds.) *Psychological counselling in higher education* (pp. 219-232). Napoli: La Città Del Sole.
- Knigge-Illner, H. (1994b). *Developmental trends in psychological counselling at universities. Characteristics of a workshop "Preparing for exam"*. Paper presented at the Barcelona Conference.
- Knigge-Illner, H., & Kruse, O. (Eds.). (1994). *Studieren mit Lust und Methode, Neue Gruppenkonzepte für Beratung und Lehre*. Weinheim: Deutscher Studien Verlag.
- Kohut, H. (1979). *Narzifismus, eine Theorie der psychoanalytischen Behandlung narzifitischer Persönlichkeitsstörungen*. (2nd ed.). Frankfurt am Main: Suhrkamp. Original edition (1971): *The analysis of the self. A systematic approach to the psychoanalytic treatment of narcissistic personality disorders*, New York: International University Press.
- Lenarduzzi, D. (1994). In FEDORA (Ed.), *Report of the 5th congress: New challenges for guidance in Europe, the present and the future - Barcelona 27-30/IV/1994*, Address to the conference (pp. 115-122). Louvain-la-Neuve.
- McDevitt, C. (1994). *Counter-transference issues in working with students from other European cultures*. Paper presented at the Barcelona Conference.
- Mearns, D., & Thorne, B. (1988). *Person-centred counselling in action*. London: Sage Publications.
- Noonan, E. (1993, April). *The student as a person*. Paper presented at the Irtac Conference on student counselling in higher education, University Bordeaux II, France.

- Perls, F.S., Hefferline, R.F., & Goodman, P. (1985). *Gestalt-Therapie, Wiederbelebung des Selbst* (3rd ed.). Stuttgart: Klett-Cotta. Original edition (1951): *Gestalt therapy, excitement and growth in the human personality*, New York: The Julian Press.
- Piaget, J. (1972). *Erkenntnistheorie der Wissenschaften vom Menschen*. Frankfurt/M: Ullstein, Berlin, Wien. Original edition (1970): *Tendances principales de la recherche dans les sciences sociales et humaines - Partie I: Sciences sociales*, edited by the UNESCO. Paris: Mouton.
- Piaget, J. (1975a). *Das Erwachen der Intelligenz beim Kinde*. Gesammelte Werke 1 Studienausgabe. Stuttgart: Ernst Klett Verlag. Original edition (1959): *La naissance de l'intelligence chez l'enfant*. Neuchâtel: Delachaux et Niestlé.
- Piaget, J. (1975b). *Der Aufbau der Wirklichkeit beim Kinde*. Gesammelte Werke 2 Studienausgabe, Stuttgart: Ernst Klett Verlag. Original edition (1950): *La construction du réel chez l'enfant*. Neuchâtel: Delachaux et Niestlé.
- Piaget, J. (1975c). *Nachahmung, Spiel und Traum, Die Entwicklung der Symbolfunktion beim Kinde*. Gesammelte Werke 5 Studienausgabe. Stuttgart: Ernst Klett Verlag. Original Edition (1959): *La formation du symbole chez l'enfant - imitation, jeu et rêve - image et représentation*. Neuchâtel: Delachaux et Niestlé.
- Piaget, J. (1975d). *Die Entwicklung des Erkennens I - Das mathematische Denken*. Gesammelte Werke 8 Studienausgabe. Stuttgart: Ernst Klett Verlag. Original edition (1950): *Introduction à l'épistomologie génétique, tome I: La pensée mathématique*. Paris: Presses Universitaires de France.
- Piaget, J. (1975e). *Die Entwicklung des Erkennens II - Das physikalische Denken*. Gesammelte Werke 9 Studienausgabe. Stuttgart: Ernst Klett Verlag. Original edition (1950): *Introduction à l'épistomologie génétique tome II: La pensée physique*. Paris: Presses Universitaires de France.
- Piaget, J. (1975f). *Die Entwicklung des Erkennens III - Das biologische Denken, das psychologische Denken, das soziologische Denken*. Gesammelte Werke 10 Studienausgabe. Stuttgart: Ernst Klett Verlag. Original edition (1950): *Introduction à l'épistomologie génétique, tome III: La pensée biologique, la pensée psychologique et la pensée sociologique*. Paris: Presses Universitaires de France.
- Potocnik, R. (1990). *Entscheidungsstraining zur Berufs-und Studienwahl, Theorie - Konzeption - Evaluierung, Trainingsmanual*. Bern, Stuttgart, Toronto: Verlag Hans Huber.
- Rickenson, B. (1994). *An integrated approach to student retention*. Paper pre-

sented at the Barcelona Conference.

- Rogers, C.R. (1987). *Der Neue Mensch*. (3rd ed.). Stuttgart: Klett-Cotta. Original edition (1980): *A way of being*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Rott, G. (1991). Counselling concepts and methods: The development of professionalism in guidance and counselling at European universities. In Hochschulrektorenkonferenz (Ed.) *Ein Jahr davor: Studieren in Europa* (Vol. 72, pp. 91-104). Bonn/Berlin: Dokumente zur Hochschulreform.
- Rott, G. (1994). The contribution of psychological counselling and psychotherapy to higher education at European universities. In FEDORA (Ed.), *Report of the 5th congress: New challenges for guidance in Europe, the present and the future - Barcelona 27-30/IV/1994* (pp.47-60). Louvain-la-Neuve.
- Rückert, H-W. (1994). Wann, wenn nicht jetzt? Über das Aufschieben. In H. Knigge-Illner, & O. Kruse (Eds.), *Studieren mit Lust und Methode, neue Gruppenkonzepte für Beratung und Lehre* (pp. 119-143). Weinheim: Deutscher Studien Verlag.
- Viebahn, P. (1990). *Psychologie des studentischen Lernens: ein Entwurf der Hochschulpsychologie, Blickpunkt Hochschuldidaktik Band 88*, Weinheim: Deutscher Studien Verlag.
- Weiner, B. (1986). *An attributional theory of motivation and emotion*. New York, Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer Verlag.

SECTION 3

**INTERVENTIONS
IN THE CONTEXT
OF STUDENT
COUNSELLING**

Counselling Students in the Short Term, Training Counsellors to Focus: One Way of Achieving Quality within Resource Restraints



JENIFER ELTON-WILSON

Introduction

These are stressful times in Higher Education. The clash between the opposing needs of financial constraints and an increasingly distressed student population is widely debated. This paper describes a successful attempt to circumvent this dilemma. The focus is on how to set up an expanded counselling network with an emphasis on professional service provision combined with the training and professional development of a network of part-time counsellors. Ethical and practical issues are explored in detail, and encouragement given to other institutions to use a similar model.

The Context

There are now three types of British Universities: the distinguished and famous really “Old” universities, which include Oxford and Cambridge; the “New Old” universities, any university established or re-named before 1992; and the “new New” universities which until very recently were Polytechnics. I have set up an expanded service for one of which, until recently it was known as Bristol Polytechnic, one of the most prestigious polytechnics in England.

All three types of these British Universities now have some form of counselling service, with many different service models available. It varies from only one part-time counsellor or up to as many as six full-time paid counsellors. The number of students in a University does not necessarily predict the number of counsellors employed by that University.

There are three professional bodies in England to which student counsellors in Britain are likely to belong, and owe their training to. These are the British Association for Counselling (B.A.C.), the United Kingdom Council for Psychotherapy (U.K.C.P.) and the British Psychological Society (B.P.S.). In Britain, only a minority of student counsellors hold a degree in psychology, and even fewer hold a higher qualification. In the past, many student counsellors were recruited from academic staff, untrained in counselling skills: It is only recently that professional qualifications have been developed in this field. B.A.C. is probably the largest and most highly organised professional influence on British student counselling in general, having a special sub-section named the Association for Student Counsellors. In the “really Old” universities, there has been a particular tendency to recruit student counsellors from one of the psychotherapy organisations under the general “umbrella” of U.K.C.P.

However, it is my view that the new B.P.S. Division of Counselling Psychology will increasingly influence the work of university student counselling services. This qualification indicates a training in counselling skills, a broad and critical understanding of a range of theoretical orientations, experience of personal therapy and, above all, a reflective practitioner-researcher approach to service delivery and evaluation.

There is a constant search for a solution to the conflict between resource constraints and the growing recognition that students need and use psychological counselling. I will attempt to describe the way in which we have attempted to solve this problem at UWE, Bristol, England.

To many people psychological counselling within institutions of higher education in Britain may seem to be well advanced, properly funded and accepted by students, academic faculties and parents. This is not entirely true. The *notion* of counselling is accepted as a

“good thing”, at least at a verbal level. However, there is still a very uneasy acceptance of counselling as a growth industry in Britain. Counselling has somewhat less stigma than the activity called “psychotherapy” but is still seen as necessary only for times when individuals are in crisis. Student counselling services are often regarded as a necessary evil, to be provided with minimal funds and to be used as an emergency service, a sort of “fire engine”, and to be blamed and criticised for any failure to fulfil this role. Setting up and running a smoothly organised and professional service with realistic parameters is not an easy task, in Britain, and in other countries.

The Service at UWE, Bristol

At UWE, there was one person appointed as student counsellor in 1976. There were then 2.450 students and this appointment demonstrated unusually forward thinking for the time. By 1989 there were 6.400 students and this same counsellor, appointed in 1976, had just left. I joined UWE in November 1989, with the task of setting up an expanded service. It was suggested that this would use part-time volunteer counsellors - perhaps interested academic staff who might be given time off for this activity. I am going to tell you of the service that I set up at that time. However, already things have changed. There are now 12.000 plus students at my university, which has changed from a typical good quality British polytechnic, characterised by student-centred, vocational, slightly parental attitudes, to a business-like, expansion-orientated and very “new New” university. The emphasis now is on efficiency and coping with government pressure to provide higher education to more students in spite of the governments own recent U-turn and the cutback on government funding for this expansion.

In 1989, I decided *not* to recruit from academic faculty staff. There were role boundary issues, the danger of different agendas and values (keeping students on their courses as a priority, for instance) and a tendency to offer benevolent parentalism rather than encouragement for students to achieve personal growth as fully individuated and responsible adults.

In Britain the rapid growth of Counselling and Psychotherapy as a profession has led to a proliferation of training courses in these subjects. There is a great lack of well-managed placements for the advanced students on these courses to fulfil the practice required of them to get their Diplomas or Masters qualifications. My simple idea has been to match my University's need for an expanded service to these trainee psychotherapists' and counsellors' need for a placement. Criteria for selection is stringent. All the part-time counsellors on our counselling network have to have completed a basic training in counselling skills and theory, to have been and to continue in personal therapy, to have worked within a "helping" profession and to have convinced us, at interview, of their maturity and suitability for the task. In spite of these criteria, we always have a list of people waiting to join the service as counsellors. They are paid no wages, but are reimbursed for travel and all incidental expenditure. All counsellors are in line for a higher professional qualification. They nearly all come from outside the University, and are training in psychotherapy or counselling at various professional institutes. In Britain, most psychotherapy training and qualification is carried out in private institutions rather than at Universities although, this situation is changing.

The "deal" which we offer to these mature and experienced counsellors is as follows: in return for a maximum of 6 hours weekly of client contact, they receive weekly supervision, professional training workshops (at least 7 days a year); all their clients assessed for suitability by one of the three Senior Counsellors; dedicated counselling rooms with comfortable chairs, tape-recorders etc; and all administration matters (appointments, letters etc.) dealt with on their behalf. This expanded service was rapidly established, and soon included 20 part-time "network" counsellors. They are never called volunteers since there is a quid-pro-quo arrangement and they are providing a professional service. There are now five weekly supervision groups, each with four people. There are three fully qualified senior counsellors, including myself in the service: two are chartered psychologists and one a registered U.K.C.P. psychotherapist.

Flow Chart I explains how the students make contact, are re-

ceived and assessed by the three senior counsellors and then referred on to part-time network counsellors. Only a very small number of students are referred outside of the service, although we keep good links with local medical and psychiatric services. Responsibility remains with the three senior counsellors at all time. Records are kept from first point of contact, and notes made of each session. Intake forms and closing forms (filled out by counsellor and client together) are retained until an evaluation form is sent to each client a year later. These three pieces of paper form a basic record for each client's experience of the service and, with identification erased, are a rich source of research material.

All student clients are given a leaflet explaining our service. In particular, very clear information is given regarding our role within the university, the confidentiality ensured, particularly with regard to queries from parents or academic tutors, as well as the *limits* of that confidentiality which involve our professional duty to maintain safety, to have a doctor's name for each client, to make notes of all sessions, and for counsellors to discuss their work with student clients within the counselling service supervision groups.

As you will see from Flow Chart I, the three full-time counsellors not only conduct assessment or "intake" sessions, but also provide short term, crisis containment work. In fact, about 50% of all the student clients are seen only by the Senior Counsellors.

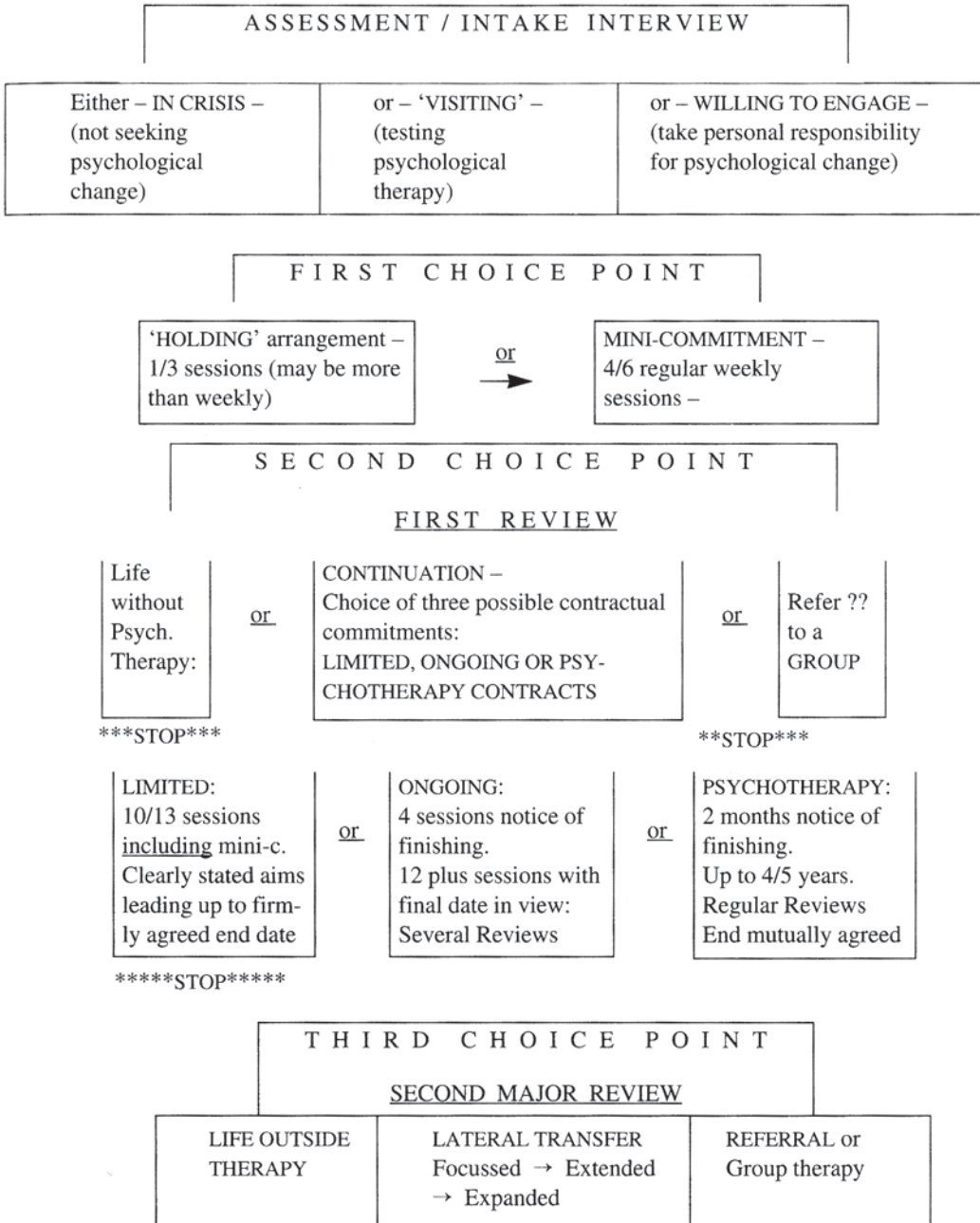
Now, how are we doing with all the changes that have taken place since 1989? There has been a rapid increase of student population, and of student clients wanting to use the service, and there are ever-narrowing resource constraints. We have managed so far. We have trained our counsellors to make clear and staged contracts, focusing on briefer work for those clients who do not need ongoing therapeutic interventions. Our statistics told us that, whether offered briefer and focused contracts or not, the majority of student clients would leave after 10 or 12 sessions. Their feedback to us on evaluation forms is that this amount of counselling was satisfactory. This finding is supported by a growing body of research regarding what has been called the "dose effect" as described by Howard, Kopta, Krause and Orlinsky (1986).

Flow Chart II and Table I show how we try to ensure that as

many students as possible receive counselling, but for only as long as they really need it. Our expanded service with its 20 part-time counsellors, all on training placement and its three full-time counsellors, offers up to 160 hours of counselling every week. By ensuring efficient and targeted time-conscious provision, we very rarely have a waiting list, and we try to ensure as part of our quality assurance, that students are seen within one week for their intake appointment - usually within two days, or sooner for an emergency. They are referred on for weekly, focused and time-conscious counselling with our part-time counsellors within two weeks, or are offered another appointment with their intake counsellor. All clients and counsellors review progress at regular intervals, and decide together, with the help and guidance of the three supervisors, whether to continue. The emphasis is on contractual commitment, clarity of focus and constant review.

This has meant that we have had to re-train our trainee psychotherapists and counsellors in the art of *focusing*, making clear *contracts*, knowing when to *refer* clients, and how to *close down* work at an agreed and satisfactory point. This model of counselling service is being copied at other universities in Britain now. The crucial combination of service provision, training and a professional placement is being seen as an ethical and appropriate response to university students' need for counselling in a financially limited climate. More is planned for the future by the UWE counselling service: increased group-work and outreach projects; the encouragement of self-help through leaflets, peer group support; and the teaching of transferable interpersonal skills to students and academic faculty. I hope you have found our model of counselling service interesting and look forward to further exchanges of information with FEDORA members, and all those engaged in the psychological counselling of students.

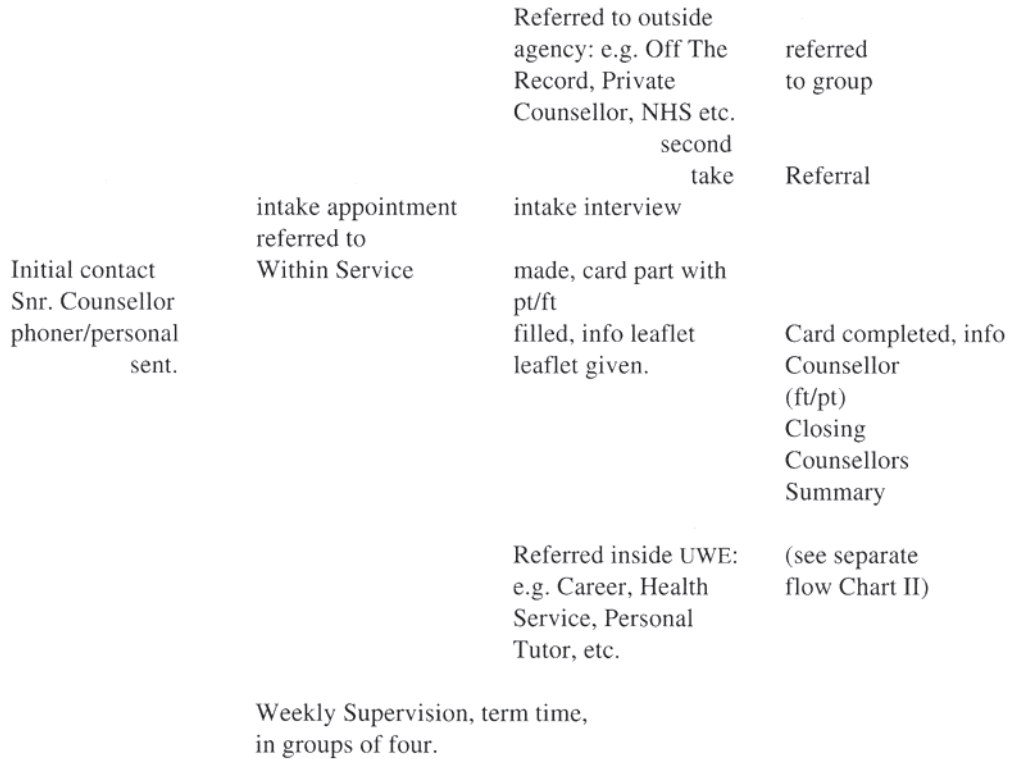
Table I: Focussed and contractual commitments



FLOW CHART ONE

University of the West of England
Counselling & Psychological Services Centre for Student Affairs

Process of Counselling Co-ordination



FLOW CHART TWO

Referral Options

	STAGE I				
	Mini Contract	R	STAGE IIa	R	CLOSING
Referral	1 session (to confirm Stage 1)	E	Limited Contract 10-12 sessions	E	SUMMARY
		V		V	
		I		I	
		W		W	
	Preliminary Contract	E	STAGE IIb	R	
		W	Ongoing sessions	E	
				V	
				I	
				E	
Psychotherapy Referral	4 - 6 weeks			W	
	Review		Continue in Psychotherapy (up to three years)		

References

Howard, K.I., Kopta, S.M., Krause, M.S. and Orlinsky, D.E. (1986), The dose-effect relationship in psychotherapy *American Psychologist*, 41, 159-164.

9

Human Relations Training and its Effects on the Personality Characteristics of Future Teachers

MARIA MALIKIOSI-LOIZOS

Foreword

This paper focuses on counselling in higher education from the point of view of training students in counselling skills and not from the point of view of offering counselling help to students per se. My belief is that, no matter what students are studying to become, knowing how to interact effectively with others will help them not only in their professional but also in their personal development. Training in basic counselling skills provides a regular and systematic approach to students' self-awareness since it involves participation in a growth group, self-disclosure and self-exploration as part of their training. It behoves third level Education to incorporate this broader dimension of personal development into its curriculum.

Introduction

Few people would deny the importance of the influence a teacher may have on the student's behaviour and personality development. Flanders' (1970) research on seven major investigations that took place during a 20-year period found that teachers attending to personal dimensions of learners produced in students higher

achievement and more positive attitudes toward school. Teachers who understand and care for students and who can communicate this to the students tend to have good relationships. Students who know that teachers care for them, tend to care about what teachers think about their behaviour. Therefore, they tend to behave in more acceptable ways when they are with teachers who care about them. In other words, students tend to reflect back to the teacher the respect that they get from the teacher.

Unfortunately, we have not always provided our teachers with the proper training in human relations that would help us to ensure that their influence on a student's personality formation is indeed in the student's best interest.

The research literature seems to indicate that some basic training in human relations (which is basically training in the core facilitative skills of counselling) should be mandatory for future teachers.

Human relations training is the development of skills that facilitate certain core conditions essential in interpersonal relationships. The core conditions (warmth, genuineness, empathy, respect, concreteness, self-disclosure, immediacy, and confrontation) are thought of as behaviours that can be integrated into a person's repertoire by systematic training.

The importance of counselling skills in education has been demonstrated by many studies (Jones, 1987; Ainscow & Florek, 1989; Thomas & Feiler, 1988). Evidence comes from as early as the '60s when, among others, Truax and Tatum (1966) studied the effects of empathy, positive regard, and genuineness communicated to preschool children by their teachers. They concluded that empathy and positive regard were significantly related to positive changes in the children's adjustment to school, to teachers, and to peers.

The core facilitative counselling skills enable support teachers to engage in constructive interaction based on accurate understanding of the pupil's perception of the classroom. The primacy of counselling skills emerges in a number of areas that preoccupy both teachers and pupils: discipline, learning, assessment, and peer relationships. Effective communication rooted in accurate listening and the ability to take the other's perspective is required on both sides.

Counselling skills are used to promote a positive climate for

learning, and realistically to promote the pupils' sense of self-worth. Wisely used, counselling skills function to enhance positive mental health which is marked by sensibly confident attitudes to oneself and realistically positive attitudes to others. Teachers should employ them to reinforce a valid conception of self-worth in their students. This goal can be reached only if teachers themselves grow through self-knowledge and self-acceptance. A number of investigations have identified characteristic behaviours exhibited by effective teachers (Aspy, 1969; Carkhuff, 1969; Gazda, 1971; Ryans, 1963). Teacher behaviours that were warm, understanding, responsible, caring, friendly, and stimulating were more often a part of the repertoire of effective teachers.

This rationale has introduced basic counselling courses in teacher education programs. It is felt that training in basic counselling skills does not only equip future teachers with the ability to reach, understand, and help their students, but also to get to know themselves better and move towards their own personal development. Such counselling courses are expected -besides teaching basic counselling skills- to provide regular and systematic approaches to self-awareness work. This means that time is specifically allocated to this work. Personal development is an essential part of any course which seeks to provide training in basic human relations. It reinforces the individual's attentional, listening, and observational skills, as well as the attitudes of empathy, non-judgmentalism, and genuineness. It challenges everyone to examine their own and others' very subtle body language, interactional patterns, defenses, strengths and thresholds; in other words, to get to know themselves.

This learning comes about mainly through interacting with other people. The quantity and quality of these interpersonal interactions greatly influences each person's unique personality development. Rogers (1951) describes the evolution of the self as follows: "As a result of interaction with the environment, and particularly as a result of evaluational interaction with others, the structure of self is formed..." (p. 498).

Goals of the present research

For many years teacher educators have been concerned with the personal growth of teacher trainees. The question, however, remains as to whether or not teacher education programs are successfully promoting the personal growth that enables trainees to move toward a more positive self-image that will help pave the way toward more constructive personal relationships with their students. This study reports the findings of pre- and post-training measures of teacher trainees on some variables thought to be related to their interpersonal communication effectiveness.

For the purposes of the present study these presumed positive effects of the personal development through group experience (identified by increased self-knowledge and positive self-structure) were measured by comparing pre- and post-training scores on levels of perceived control, social skills, loneliness, and satisfaction with life.

Numerous investigations have been conducted to determine the personality correlates of a person's interpersonal effectiveness and the question has often arisen as to whether human relations training effect personality change. To start with, it seems logical to assume that locus of control is related to counselling effectiveness (external orientation being detrimental for educators expected to encourage students to assume personal responsibility for their behaviour) as some research supports (Carlozzi et al., 1982). However, results from other studies that have examined this relationship refute this assumption (Gottfurcht, 1975; Loesch et al., 1978; Rider, 1975). It seemed interesting to study this variable in terms of training in basic counselling skills in order to determine if the training group experience would produce some change in the trainees' perceived control over their lives.

Loneliness seems to be related to locus of control, in that lonely individuals express an external locus of control since they believe that outcomes of their own behaviour are determined by luck, chance, fate, or other individuals (Solano, 1989; Peplau, Miceli, & Morasch, 1982). Loneliness is defined as a deficit of desired relational interaction (Peplau & Perlman, 1979; Peplau, Russell, & Heim, 1979; Sermat, 1980). As such, it is a state of dissatisfaction

regarding one's quality and quantity of interpersonal relationships. It is not surprising that lonely individuals tend to view themselves as less communicatively competent than non-lonely individuals (Spitzberg & Canary, 1985; Zakahi & Duran, 1982, 1985). Also, Goswick and Jones (1981) found that lonely people focused primarily on their own behaviour during a social conversation with very little attention to the behaviour and comments made by other individuals. It may therefore, be assumed that loneliness is negatively related to interpersonal communication effectiveness.

The research on social skills and loneliness suggests a therapeutic approach aimed at enhancement of conversation skills. Counselling training would also focus upon development of listening skills that teach the lonely person to attend to the behaviour and conversation of other individuals. Self-monitoring Theory (Snyder, 1974, 1987) provides a new approach to the study of social skills and the Revised Self-monitoring Scale developed by Lennox and Wolfe (1984), provides an important new personality test that assesses two factors of social skills: Factor A (Ability to Modify Self-presentation) measures the person's ability to change his/her style of interaction to match the requirements of the situation s/he is in. It is an index of how easily individuals can adapt to a variety of social situations by displaying the appropriate behaviour for each situation. In contrast, Factor B (Sensitivity to the Expressive Behaviour of Others) measures the person's self-rated ability to accurately diagnose what behaviours are appropriate for a given social situation. Individuals who have very good social skills should have high scores on both Factor A and Factor B. Self-monitoring theory would require that socially skillful people should be able to diagnose social situations accurately (Factor B) and then modify their behaviour in ways that will produce a suitable match between their behaviour and the demands of the situation (Factor A).

Hypothesis

The hypothesis made was that as a result of their training in basic counselling skills and participation in a self-awareness group students in the experimental group would tend to gain more control over their lives, feel less lonely, be more satisfied with their lives

and develop better social skills in social encounters than students in the control group who received no such training.

Methodology

Participants

Two samples of a total of 46 seniors (the first, selected, during the Fall semester of 1993-1994 and the second during the Fall semester of 1994-1995) in the Early Childhood Education Department of the University of Athens, taking an elective 12-week course in the core facilitative counselling skills (involving participation in a growth group, self-disclosure, and self-exploration) served as subjects in the experimental group. The control group consisted of two samples of a total of 62 seniors (selected during the same two Fall semesters) in the same Department, who were enrolled in another elective course on “sociology of education”. Subjects in both groups were women between the ages of 21 and 23.

Instrumentation

The measurers used in this study were chosen for two main reasons: First, because people who gain more insight through participation in personal development groups *do* tend to change towards relying more on their own resources. They develop better social skills, and show greater satisfaction with their lives. Secondly, because these scales had already been translated and tested in Greek populations (Anderson & Malikiosi-Loizos, 1992; Malikiosi-Loizos & Anderson, 1992a, 1992b, 1994). Their translation was conducted through a series of research steps that involved translation, back translation, factor analysis, item-total correlation, and computations of coefficient alpha (Cronbach, 1951).

a. *Spheres of Control*. Paulhus (1983) refined the common distinction between internal versus external locus of control by identifying three separate domains of perceived control: personal control or personal efficacy, interpersonal control, and socio-political control. For the purposes of the present study only Paulhus’ Interpersonal Control Scale was used as the index of perceived con-

trol because of its high internal reliability in Paulhus' subsequent analyses of this scale. Interpersonal control refers to a person's perceived influence in situations involving other individuals. It consists of 10 items rated on a seven-point scale with endpoints labeled *Very true or very accurate* (7) and *Very false or very inaccurate* (1). For this scale, a high score indicates high perceived interpersonal control which is equivalent to the concept of high internal locus of control. A low score indicates low perceived control or external locus of control.

b. *Revised Self-monitoring Scale* (Lennox and Wolfe, 1984). This scale is designed to contain two distinct subscales thought to be essential features of self-monitoring: Factor A (Ability to modify self-presentation) and Factor B (Sensitivity to the expressive behaviour of others). It consists of 13 items rated on a seven-step scale; scores may range from 13 to 91, a low score indicating low self-monitoring.

c. *Life Satisfaction Index*. This is a measure of global life satisfaction (Neugarten, Havinghurst, and Tobin, 1961). The scale contains 20 items, each rated on a 7-point scale. A final score for each subject is computed as a mean of all 20 items. Thus, scores can range from 7 (very satisfied with life) to 1 (very unsatisfied with life).

d. *Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale* (Russell, Peplau and Cutrona, 1980). This scale contains 20 items rated on a four-step scale. Thus, scores can range from 4 (indicating high levels of loneliness) to 1 (indicating low levels of loneliness).

Design

The nonequivalent control group design (Campbell & Stanley, 1963) was used for the purposes of the present study, having in mind that given the similarity of sex, age, field of studies between the experimental and the control group, we would be controlling for the main effects of history, maturation, testing, and instrumentation.

Experimental Group	Pre-test	Training	Post-test
	Spheres of Control	12 weeks	Spheres of control
	Self-monitoring		Self-monitoring
	Life satisfaction		Life satisfaction
	Loneliness		Loneliness
Control Group	Spheres of control		Spheres of control
	Self-monitoring	No training	Self-monitoring
	Life satisfaction		Life satisfaction
	Loneliness		Loneliness

The independent variable of this research was the exposure or non-exposure to training in basic counselling skills. The dependent variables involved pre- and post-measures on perceived control (Spheres of Control Scale), self-monitoring (Revised Self-monitoring scale), satisfaction with life (Life Satisfaction Index), and loneliness (Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale) for both groups.

Procedure

Subjects in both groups were pre- and post-tested on all the dependent variables at the beginning and at the end of the semester. The training consisted of a 12-week period and a total of 36 hours. During that period subjects were: (1) introduced into basic communication counselling skills, such as: attending behaviour, open and closed questions, encouraging, paraphrasing, reflection of feelings, and summarization, skills which aim at structuring and conducting a well-formed interview or conversation; (2) were given examples of each skill in action through videotape models; (3) asked to read about each skill; (4) practiced the skill themselves through role playing and through preparation of an audio or video taped interview; and (5) assessed their own performance (self-assessment) but received also feedback from the rest of the group on their performance. This training model was adapted from Ivey, Gluckstern, and Bradford Ivey (1974).

The group discussions that were stimulated from the evaluation

of the videotaped models and the evaluations of the role-played or individually taped interviews, involved a great deal of self-disclosure, self-exploration, and self-evaluation. This also helped promote group cohesion.

Results

Preliminary analyses of variance, do not seem to support the hypothesis of a personality change as a result of treatment. Only in the loneliness scale was there a significant pre-post effect in the experimental group, subjects showing less loneliness at the end of the training period ($p < .05$).

There was an interesting group main effect, the control group showing significantly lower scores on interpersonal control ($p < .05$), significantly lower scores on self-monitoring, both on Factor A, ability to modify self-presentation ($p < .05$), and on Factor B, sensitivity to the expressive behaviour of others ($p < .05$), less development of social skills in social situations ($p < .05$), less satisfaction with life ($p < .05$), and significantly higher scores on the loneliness scale ($p < .001$). It should be noted, however, that none of these significant differences were equal to or greater than one scale point on the seven-step scale for the Self-monitoring Scale, the Life Satisfaction Index, and the Interpersonal Control Scale. That is, the magnitude of the significant differences was very small.

Intercorrelations of the dependent variables

Interpersonal control scores were significantly correlated with life satisfaction ($r = .55$, $p < .001$) and loneliness ($r = -.56$, $p < .001$). Also, interpersonal control was significantly correlated with both self-monitoring factors. Life satisfaction was significantly correlated with loneliness (Table 1).

Table 1. Intercorrelations of the dependent variables.

Variable	Variable				
	1	2	3	4	5
(1) Interpersonal Control		.27**	.20*	.55**	-.56**
(2) Self-monitoring: Factor A				.14	-.15
(3) Self-monitoring: Factor B				.17	-.08
(4) Life Satisfaction					-.52**
(5) Loneliness					

*p<.05, **p<.001

These data strongly indicate that attributions of interpersonal control are significantly more predictive of loneliness and life satisfaction than the social skills assessed by the Revised Self-monitoring Scale.

Discussion

The present study was an attempt to investigate the effect of training in human relations on the personality of future teachers. Preliminary results failed to support the hypothesis that training in basic counselling skills and participation in a growth group would help people gain more control over their lives, be more satisfied, and develop better social skills in social situations. Only loneliness seemed to be affected by training, subjects in the experimental group scoring lower on the UCLA Loneliness Scale after the treatment.

Examination of subjects' personality revealed some differences between the two groups. There were significant between groups personality differences in the pretest, subjects in the experimental group scoring higher on interpersonal control, social skills, and satisfaction with life, and lower on loneliness than the control group. This finding may help explain partly the pre-post non-significant personality

changes in the experimental group. The two groups started unequally on these variables and this may be possibly due to a self-selection bias that operated in our research, i.e. since subjects voluntarily assigned for the human relations training course, it means that they were strongly interested in learning how to interact more effectively. Subjects in the control group chose not to assign for this elective course, showing perhaps a low interest in effective interpersonal communication. Since the subjects in the experimental group assigned freely for this course, it is not surprising that they already exhibited certain of the characteristics of an effective teacher.

As said earlier, one would expect an internally-oriented control of behaviour among educators who wish to encourage students to assume personal responsibility for their behaviour. Furthermore, since lonely individuals focus primarily on their own behaviour during a social conversation and pay very little attention to the behaviour and comments of others, one would not expect an effective interpersonal communicator to score high on loneliness. On the contrary s/he would be expected to score high on social skills and be fairly satisfied with his/her life.

This is exactly what our data showed in the pre-test between groups comparison, leading one to assume that a possible interaction effect of the volunteer status (self-selection bias) of the participants and the dependent variables may have led to the externally invalid results.

The significant pre-post loneliness measurement in the experimental group may partly be explained by the fact that many students participating in this elective course developed close friendships during the time this course lasted. Many of them professed, that this was the only course during their four years of undergraduate studies where they were given the opportunity to get to know better some of their fellow students.

The intercorrelations between the dependent variables indicated that attributions of interpersonal control were significantly related to lower levels of loneliness and high levels of life satisfaction and social skills. At the same time, neither of the two social skills subscales (Self-monitoring Factor A and Factor B) was significantly

related to the loneliness or to the life satisfaction scores. Life satisfaction was also found to be significantly related to lower levels of loneliness. These data imply that attributions of perceived control have significantly stronger relationships with loneliness and life satisfaction than do social skills. Hence, the data imply that counsellors or educators involved in the human relations training of future teachers should direct their efforts toward enhancing their sense of control over the day-to-day events in their lives. Such training would help individuals to realize they do influence many of the positive circumstances that occur to them. A sense of control can be developed by forcing individuals to take credit for their own achievements both in their personal lives and their interpersonal lives.

To conclude, and keeping in mind that the data reported do not represent the complete analyses, it is suggested that similar studies be designed with different and larger populations to see if training in human relations does effect personality change. Maybe different personality variables should be examined to get a more complete profile of the effective teacher. Also, future research should control for the self-selection bias that seemed to have influenced the data of the present study.

As a final word, we would like to stress the importance of the development of human relations training in teacher education programs based on the present-day impact of environmental, philosophical, and legislative activity on schools. Our population is no longer homogeneous, including people of different ethnic, racial, and religious backgrounds. Today, more than at any other time in educational history, the differences in characteristics between students and teachers are profound. Human relations can help bridge the gap among teachers and students. It can provide an ideological basis for education because one of its main goals is to seek “an appreciation of diversity for pluralism, and the ability to take into account the dignity and worth of others as a requisite for mutual understanding” (Colangelo, Foxley, & Dustin, 1979, p. 83).

References

- Ainscow, M. & Florek, A. (1989) (Eds). *Special Education Needs: Towards a Whole School Approach*. London: Fulton.
- Anderson, L.R. & Malikiosi-Loizos, M. (1992). Reliability data for a Greek translation of the Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale: Comparisons with data from the USA. *Psychological Reports*, 71, 665-666.
- Aspy, D. N. (1969). The effect of teacher-offered conditions of empathy, congruence and positive regard upon student achievement. *Florida Journal of Educational Research*, 11, 39-48.
- Campbell, D. T. & Stanley, J. C. (1963). *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research*. Chicago: Rand McNally and Company.
- Carkhuff, R. R. (1969). *Helping and human relations* (Vols. 1 and 2). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Wiston.
- Carlozzi, A. F., Campbell, N. J., & Ward, G. R. (1982). Dogmatism and externality in locus of control as related to counselor trainee skill in facilitative responding. *Counselor Education and Supervision*, 21, 227-236.
- Colangelo, N., Foxley, C. H., & Dustin, D. (Eds). (1979). *Multicultural nonsexist education: A human relations approach*. Dubuque, Iowa: Kendall / Hunt Publishing Co.
- Cronbach, L. J. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika*, 16, 297-334.
- Flanders, N. A. (1970). *Analyzing teacher behavior*. Mass.: Addison-Wesley.
- Gazda, G. M. (1971). Systematic human relations training in teacher preparation and inservice education. *Journal of Research and Development*, 4, 47-51.
- Goswick, R. A. & Jones, W. H. (1981). Loneliness, self-concept and adjustment. *Journal of Personality*, 107, 237-240.
- Gottfurcht, J. W. (1975). Predicting success in human relations training. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 36, 4B, 1917.
- Ivey, A.E., Gluckstern, N.B., & Bradford Ivey, M. (1974). *Basic Attending Skills*. Mass: Microtraining Associates.
- Jones, A. (1987). *Leadership for Tomorrow's Schools*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Malikiosi-Loizos, M. & Anderson, L. R. (1992a). Reliability data on a Greek translation of the Revised Self-monitoring Scale. *Psychological Reports*, 71, 544-546.
- Malikiosi-Loizos, M. & Anderson, L. R. (1992b). The Spheres of Control Scale: Reliability data for a Greek translation. *Psychologica Themata*, 5(3), 203-210 (in Greek).

- Malikiosi-Loizos, M. & Anderson, L. R. (1994). Reliability of a Greek translation of the Life Satisfaction Index. *Psychological Reports*, 74, 1319-1322.
- Lennox, R. & Wolfe, R. (1984). Revision of the self-monitoring scale. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 46, 1349-1364.
- Loesch, L. C., Crane, B. B., & Rucker, B. B. (1978). Counselor trainee effectiveness: More puzzle pieces? *Counselor Education and Supervision*, 17, 195-204.
- Newgarten, B. L., Havinghurst, R. J. & Tobin, S. S. (1961). The measurement of life satisfaction. *Journal of Gerontology*, 31, 134-143.
- Paulhus, D. L. (1983). Sphere-specific measures of perceived control. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 44, 1253-1265.
- Peplau, L. A., Miceli, M., & Morasch, B. (1982). Loneliness and self-evaluation. In L. A. Peplau and D. Perlman (Eds.), *Loneliness: A sourcebook of current theory, research, and therapy*. New York, NY: Wiley.
- Peplau, L. A. & Perlman, D. (1979). Blueprint for a social psychological theory of loneliness. In M. Cook and G. Wilson (Eds.), *Love and attraction: Proceeding of an international conference* (pp. 99-108). Oxford, England, Pergamon.
- Peplau, L. A., Russell, D., & Heim, M. (1979). The experience of loneliness. In I. H. Frieze, D. Bar-Tal, & J. S. Carroll (Eds.), *New approaches to social problems: Applications of attribution theory* (pp. 53-78). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Rider, L. H. (1975). Leader behaviour, locus of control and consultation effectiveness of school psychologists. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 35, 8A, 5135.
- Rogers, C. R. (1951). *Client-Centered Therapy: Its Current Practice, Implications, and Theory*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Russell, D., Peplau, L. A., & Cutrona, C. E. (1980). The Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale: Concurrent and discriminant validity evidence. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 39, 472-480.
- Ryans, D. G. (1963). Assessment of teacher behavior and instruction. *Review of Educational Research*, 33, 415-441.
- Sermat, V. (1980). Some situational and personality correlates of loneliness. In J. Hartog, J. R. Audy, & Y. A. Cohen (Eds.), *The anatomy of loneliness* (pp. 305-318). New York: International Universities Press.
- Snyder, M. (1974). Self-monitoring of expressive behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 30, 526-537.
- Snyder, M. (1987). *Public appearances, private realities: The psychology of self-monitoring*. New York: W. H. Freeman.

- Solano, C. H. (1989). Loneliness and perceptions of control: General traits versus specific attributions. In M. Hojat & R. Crandall (Eds.). *Loneliness: Theory, research, and applications*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Spitzberg, B. H. & Canary, D. J. (1985). Loneliness and relationally competent communication. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 2, 387-402.
- Thomas, G. & Feiler, A. (1988). *Planning for Special Needs*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Truax, C. B. & Tatum, C. (1966). An extension from the effective psychotherapeutic model to constructive personality change in pre-school children. *Childhood Education*, 42, 456-462.
- Zakahi, W. R. & Duran, R. L. (1982). All the lonely people: The relationship among loneliness, communicative competence and communication anxiety. *Communication Quarterly*, 30, 202-209.
- Zakahi, W. R. & Duran, R. L. (1985). Loneliness, communicative competence and communication apprehension: Extension and reflection. *Communication Quarterly*, 33, 50-60.

The Relationship of Temperament and Social Factors to Study Abilities

10

A. KALANTZI-AZIZI
E. C. KARADIMAS

Many of the students that are referred to the Counselling Centre for Students at the University of Athens are characterised by having difficulties with studying and achieving, as well as by having poor self-esteem.

Studying and achievement are perhaps the most important aspects of academic performance. The development and practice of effective strategies for studying and achieving are a necessity for all university students. On the other hand, the use of non-effective strategies could become an unpleasant stressor (Rott, 1996).

“Abilities for study and examinations” (or study skills) can be defined as the ways by which students confront the needs of their study and the examination demands and consequences (Kalantzi-Azizi & Karadimas, 1994).

The need for a detailed study of these issues led us to the establishment of a close collaboration with the Leuven University Counselling Centre (Katholieke Universiteit Leuven, Dienst voor Studietoelichting), in May 1994. Our purpose was to adapt to a Greek student population the “Test Concerning Abilities for Study and Examinations” (TASTE). TASTE had already been adapted to a Belgian student population (Depreeuw, 1989; Depreeuw, Eelen & Stroobants, 1990). The Greek adaptation proved TASTE to be a valid questionnaire. Many factors were common for both versions, but also some

culturally specific findings were established (Kalantzi-Azizi & Karadimas, 1996, under publication).

In order to understand the nature of study abilities we inquired into the relationship between TASTE and certain temperament characteristics. Our work was guided by Strelau's (1987) opinion that the interaction between temperament and environment results in the formation of different personality styles.

Strelau (1987) defines temperament as the "... relatively stable differences in human behaviour which might be explained in terms of biological mechanisms" (p. 107). According to Strelau, temperament should not be confused or identified with personality. There was a number of differences between these two concepts. The most important difference is that: temperament is based on biological factors, whilst personality is the result of the social process. However, we must stress that temperament and personality are not opposed but rather complementary concepts.

Temperament can become a powerful instrument in order to gain a better understanding of human behaviour. A cross-cultural study is now taking place in 9 countries (including Greece)* in order to construct a valid and reliable measure of temperament, based on the Pavlovian theory of temperament (Strelau & Angleitner, 1994).

Pavlov (1951-1952) believed that temperament consists of properties of the Central Nervous System. In other words, temperament is seen as certain neural characteristics that are inherent and, thus, quite stable.

Pavlov's theory proved to be very popular, specially among the biologically oriented scientists (i.e., Strelau, 1983; Zuckerman, 1979).

The main hypotheses of our study are as follows: (a) There are some significant correlations between study abilities and temperament. However, these correlations should not be estimated as being very strong, provided that temperament is a removed factor. With respect to behaviour formation, the influence of temperament on be-

* The data will be included in a book entitled "The Pavlovian Temperament Survey (PTS): An International Handbook" [J. Strelau, A. Angleitner & B. H. Newberry (Eds.), in process].

haviour must be regarded as given. (b) Study abilities are determined by various demographic factors such as gender and socio-economic status.

Method

Five hundred and fifty-six (556) students from the School of Philosophy and the School of Physics at the University of Athens (156 males and 399 females) served as participants in our study. Their average age was 21.44 years ($SD= 2,11y$).

Each subject anonymously completed a package of questionnaires including: (a) the "Test Concerning Abilities for Study and Examinations" (TASTE), a 122-item questionnaire, developed by Dr. Depreeuw and his colleagues (Depreeuw, 1989; Depreeuw, Eelen & Stroobants, 1990), (b) the "Pavlovian Temperament Survey" (PTS), a 60-item questionnaire, developed by Strelau and Angleitner and their colleagues (Strelau & Angleitner, 1994; Strelau, Angleitner, Bantelmann, & Ruch, 1990) and adapted to a Greek adult population (Kalantzi-Azizi, Christakopoulou & Mylonas, 1996), (c) questions about various socio-economic issues.

The PTS (previous name: STI-R) is based on the Pavlovian concept of the Central Nervous System (CNS) properties (Pavlov, 1951-1952) and it assesses three temperament characteristics: (a) *Strength of Excitation* defined as the functional capacity of the CNS to endure intense or long lasting stimulation without passing into protective inhibition (e.g. "I readily accept the challenge of a risky undertaking"), (b) *Strength of Inhibition* defined as the ability to maintain a state of conditioned inhibition, such as extinction or delay, and conditioned inhibition in its narrow meaning (e.g. "If it is appropriate, I can refrain from talking"), and (c) *Mobility of Nervous Processes* that refers to the ability of the CNS to respond adequately as soon as possible to continuous changes in the environment (e.g. "I can easily readjust to meet an unexpected visitor"). Each scale of the Greek version consists of 20 items. The α -coefficient on the three characteristics ranged from 0,80 to 0,88 (Cronbach α) and the test-retest reliability ranged from 0,59 to 0,82 (Pearson r) (Kalantzi-Azizi et al., 1996).

A principal factor extraction with varimax rotation that was performed on TASTE for the whole sample, revealed 5 stable factors (Kalantzi-Azizi & Karadimas, 1996, under publication), namely: (I) *Anxiety and psychosomatic complaints*, that refers to the physical and psychological symptoms arising when a student is faced with a stressor like examinations (e.g. “The night before taking an important test/examination I can’t get enough sleep”), (II) *Study avoidance*, which measures the tendency to avoid study effort (procrastination) as well as the lack of attention and daydreaming (e.g. “I’m engaged in unimportant matters instead of studying”), (III) *Pessimistic ability - appraisal*, which refers to a negative appraisal of personal study abilities as well as to an anticipatory cognitive appraisal of the failure probability in an upcoming examination (e.g. “Other students study faster and more efficiently than I do”), (IV) *Study evaluation*, that assesses students’ evaluation of their studies, consequence expectancies in relation to failure, and actions undertaken towards success (e.g. “A certificate or graduation is one of the most important foundations for my further life”), and (V) *Study devotedness*, that assesses an obvious achievement motivation reflecting what is socially desirable for students with items such as: “I enjoy studying more and more”. The α -coefficient on the 5 factors ranged from 0,65 to 0,86 (Cronbach α).

Results

The means and the standard deviations as well as the inter-correlations among the five study abilities and among the three temperament characteristics are presented in Tables 1 and 2, respectively.

I. Study abilities and temperament

Between the temperament characteristics and the study abilities, there are 11 significant correlations (Pearson r) out of 15 (Table 3).

All of the three temperament characteristics are negatively correlated to both anxiety and pessimistic ability - appraisal. Study avoidance is negatively correlated to strength of inhibition. Study evaluation is moderately and negatively related to strength of exci-

Table 1. Inter-correlations (Pearson r), means (M) and standard deviations (SD) of the study abilities.

	5	4	3	2	1
1) Anxiety	0,41**	0,10	0,21*	0,54**	1,00
2) Ability-appraisal	0,14*	-0,18**	0,39**	1,00	
3) Study avoidance	-0,03	-0,34**	1,00		
4) Study devotedness	0,25**	1,00			
5) Study evaluation	1,00				
M	3,20	2,92	2,88	2,76	2,87
SD	0,58	0,69	0,76	0,63	0,74

*p < 0,005, **p < 0,001

Table 2. Inter-correlations (Pearson r), means (M) and standard deviations (SD) of the temperament characteristics.

	3	2	1
1) Str. of Excitation	0,46**	0,15**	1,00
2) Str. of Inhibition	0,15*	1,00	
3) Mobility of Nervous Processes	1,00		
M	2,87	2,69	2,28
SD	0,50	0,39	0,41

*p < 0,005, **p < 0,001

tation. Study devotedness is positively related to strength of excitation and strength of inhibition, but at a low level.

These relationships were further investigated by stepwise multiple regression analyses, with study abilities serving as the dependent variable: With regard to anxiety and psychosomatic complaints, strength of excitation and strength of inhibition entered into the equation and accounted for the significant proportion of 18% of the variance, with strength of excitation as the most powerful predictor of anxiety ($\alpha_{\text{strength of excitation}} = -0,72$, $\alpha_{\text{strength of inhibition}} = -0,24$). With pessimistic ability - appraisal as dependent variable, all three

Table 3. Correlations (Pearson r) between study abilities and temperament characteristics.

	Str. of Excitation	Str. of Inhibition	Mobility of Ner. Processes
Anxiety	-0,40***	-0,19***	-0,20***
Ability-appraisal	-0,38***	-0,22***	-0,30***
Study avoidance	-0,09	-0,38***	0,01
Study devotedness	0,11*	0,15**	0,04
Study evaluation	-0,18***	0,06	0,04

*p < 0,05, **p < 0,005, ***p < 0,001

temperament characteristics entered into the equation and accounted for almost 20% of the variance, with strength of excitation as the most significant predictor (α strength of excitation = -0,43, α strength of inhibition = -0,23, α mobility of nervous processes = -0,25). For both study avoidance and study devotedness, strength of inhibition was the sole predictor (α = -0,78 and 0,25, respectively) and accounted for almost 16% and 2% of the variance, respectively. With regard to study evaluation, strength of inhibition (α = -0,30) and mobility of the nervous processes (α = 0,15) accounted for 4% of the variance.

II. Study abilities and social factors

A series of oneway ANOVAs was performed on study abilities, in order to clear up the existing relationships between study abilities and socio-economic factors. The analyses revealed significant differences between males and females in tendencies toward anxiety and psychosomatic complaints, $F(1, 529) = 61,96$, $p < 0,001$, as well as toward personal study ability - appraisal, $F(1, 535) = 13,51$, $p < 0,001$. Males scored lower than females on both variables, that is, males are less anxious and more optimists about their study abilities than females. With respect to the other study abilities, no gender differences were noticed (Table 4).

Subjects coming from the School of Philosophy were more anxious, $F(1, 529) = 10,46$, $p < 0,005$, and scored lower on the study evaluation subscale, $F(1, 533) = 7,23$, $p < 0,01$, than those coming from the School of Physics (Table 5).

Table 4. Mean of the study abilities for gender.

	Males	Females	F- test
Anxiety	2,48	3,02	61,96***
Ability-appraisal	2,60	2,82	13,51***
Study avoidance	2,86	2,89	0,14
Study devotedness	2,92	2,92	0,00
Study evaluation	3,14	3,23	2,40

*p < 0,01, **p < 0,005, ***p < 0,001

Table 5. Mean of the study abilities for School.

	Sc. Phil.	Sc. Phys.	F- test
Anxiety	2,93	2,68	10,46**
Ability-appraisal	2,78	2,67	2,99
Study avoidance	2,85	2,98	2,73
Study devotedness	2,90	3,01	2,38
Study evaluation	3,17	3,33	7,23*

*p < 0,01, **p < 0,005, ***p < 0,001

The educational level of the father exerted influence on study devotedness, $F(3, 538) = 5,18$, $p < 0,005$: as lower the level is, so higher the devotedness (Table 6). Finally, a significant place of study (that is a distinction between those who have a place to study undistracted, and those who don't have such a place) main effects were identified for pessimistic study - appraisal, $F(1, 532) = 8,46$, $p < 0,005$, as well as for study avoidance, $F(1, 534) = 7,41$, $p < 0,01$: students that had a place to study undistracted, scored lower on both pessimistic ability - appraisal ($M = 2,73$) and avoidance ($M = 2,85$) subscales than those who had such a place ($M = 2,99$, and $3,13$, respectively).

The ANOVAs also yielded a significant place of study \times educational level of the father interaction with anxiety and psychosomatic complaints, $F(3, 3) = 3,61$, $p < 0,05$, showing that those of the stu-

Table 6. Mean of the study abilities for the educational level of the father and the mother.

	Father				
	Elementary School	Gymnasium	Lyceum	University	F-test
Anxiety	2,90	3,02	2,79	2,87	1,20
Ability-appraisal	2,78	2,78	2,75	2,75	0,97
Study avoidance	2,83	2,77	2,85	2,94	1,06
Study devotedness	3,06	2,62	2,89	2,92	5,18*
Study evaluation	3,13	3,22	3,17	3,26	1,36
	Mother				
	Elementary School	Gymnasium	Lyceum	University	F-test
Anxiety	2,92	2,96	2,81	2,86	0,89
Ability-appraisal	2,80	2,73	2,79	2,68	1,10
Study avoidance	2,86	2,92	2,80	2,97	1,29
Study devotedness	3,00	3,00	2,87	2,86	1,78
Study evaluation	3,16	3,24	3,21	3,22	0,46

* $p < 0,005$

dents who don't have a place to study in private, and whose fathers are of low educational level, are more anxious than all the other groups (Figure 1). Also, a gender educational level of the father significant interaction with study evaluation was identified, $F(3, 3) = 3,33$, $p < 0,05$, showing that males whose fathers are of a medium educational level are more likely to evaluate their studies higher than males whose fathers have either little educational experience (elementary school) or much experience (university) (Figure 2). Finally, a School \times educational level of the father, $F(3, 3) = 2,59$, $p < 0,005$, and a School \times educational level of the mother interaction with study avoidance, $F(3, 3) = 3,26$, $p < 0,05$, were yielded: Study avoidance was higher among students coming from the School of Physics and, at the same time, had parents of a higher educational level (Figures 3 and 4).

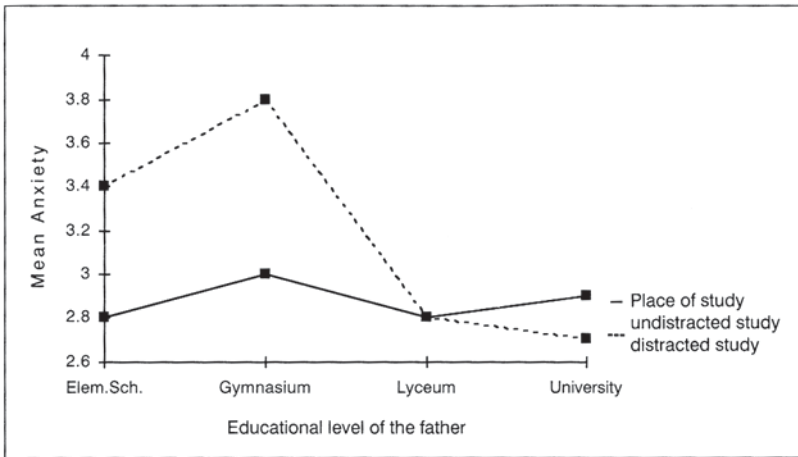


Figure 1. Mean of anxiety and psychosomatic complaints for place of study and educational level of the father.

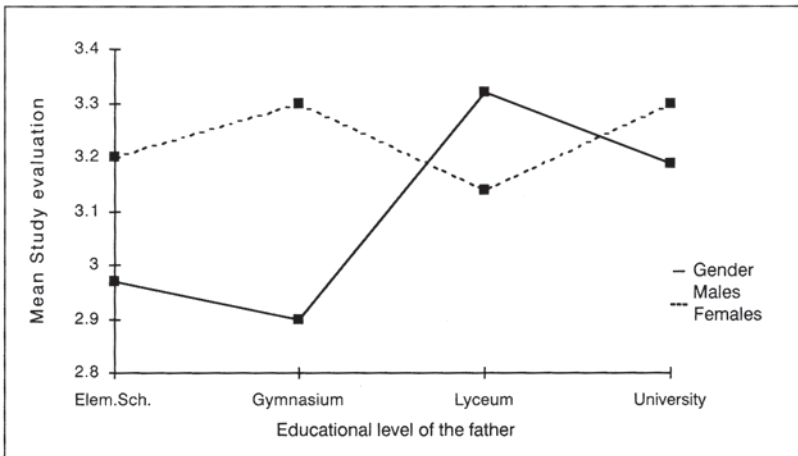


Figure 2. Mean of study evaluation for students' gender and educational level of the father.

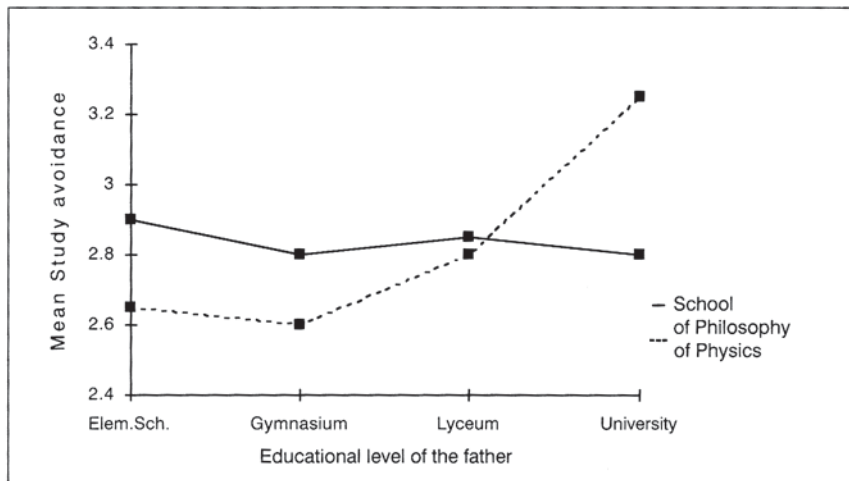


Figure 3. Mean of study avoidance for School and educational level of the father.

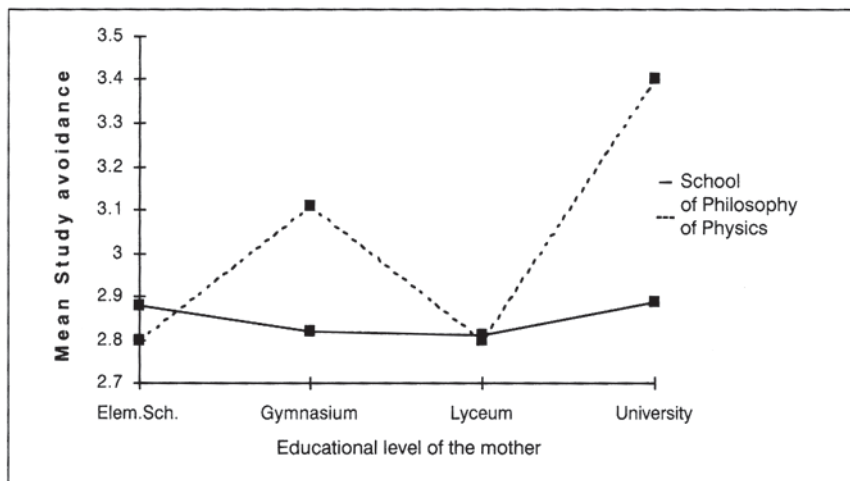


Figure 4. Mean of study avoidance for School and educational level of the mother.

Discussion

The results of our study provided us with some “temperament profiles” for each ability for study and examinations: (a) anxiety and psychosomatic complaints are characterised by low levels of strength of excitation and strength of inhibition, a finding similar to those of other studies (e.g. Kreitler, Kreitler, & Weissler, 1993), (b) pessimistic ability - appraisal is marked by low levels of strength of excitation, strength of inhibition and mobility of nervous processes, (c) study avoidance is negatively correlated to strength of inhibition. Temperament characteristics accounted for 16-20% of the variance of these three abilities. On the contrary, temperament accounted for just 4% and 2% of the variance with regard to study evaluation and study devotedness, respectively. Study evaluation is negatively correlated to strength of excitation and positively to mobility of nervous processes. Study devotedness is correlated positively to strength of inhibition. This finding leads us to the conclusion that both of these study abilities are culturally defined. Temperament has little to do with them.

Each study ability is also determined by a different set of demographic factors.

Girls were more likely than boys to report more anxiety and pessimism about their abilities when confronted with a stressor such as study or examinations. Generally, there are several indications that females appear to be more vulnerable to stressors since they report more anxiety and other negative psychological symptoms than males (Kessler & McLeod, 1984).

The availability of a place for undistracted study also seems to be important for achieving a good performance. However, this availability is confounded by the socio-economic status of each student.

It is of interest that those of the students that were coming from the School of Physics and whose fathers have a university degree scored higher on the study avoidance subscale. Study avoidance (procrastination) is a very complicated and multivariate defined phenomenon that exerts great influence on the students' emotional well-being (Rothblum, Solomon, & Murakami, 1986). Procrastina-

tion is perhaps a variable determined by temperament characteristics as well as by cultural factors, in a complementary way. However, the full understanding of the procrastination elements is essential in favour of developing effective treatment approaches (Depreeuw, 1996).

The main aim of a Counselling Centre, like ours at the University of Athens, is to establish methods of intervention for dealing with problems, such as study anxiety, procrastination, and pessimistic self-appraisal.

The study of temperament could enhance our attempts to understand certain aspects of behaviour. However, it is a stable factor, which once structured is difficult to change. Temperament is the platform on which the most fundamental elements of behaviour are based. These elements are the result of the interaction between temperament and environment. In a similar fashion, these basic patterns of behaviour interact incessantly with the environment, in order to produce new and more specific attitudes and behaviours, such as procrastination and anxiety. With respect to this process, human cognitive appraisal is of vital interest as it “transforms” both the environment and the person altogether.

The preliminary results of another study of ours, supports this thesis: In the Counselling Centre for Students at the University of Athens, a group therapy programme was performed with students that (a) had reduced self-efficacy expectations regarding their abilities to confront real life problems and, (b) were suffering from minor physical and/or mental problems (Kalantzi-Azizi & Karadimas, 1996). The aim of that programme was to enhance self-efficacy expectations and, at the same time, minimise psychosomatic ailments. In order to achieve this, we tried a series of behavioural-cognitive exercises. The outcome was very encouraging: both physical and psychological symptoms were diminished whilst self-efficacy was strengthened. However, there was not any change regarding temperament characteristics, as measured by the PTS, before and after the intervention.

The use of cognitive-behavioural techniques is the key for effective and long lasting treatment of undesirable behaviours, even if the core (that is, temperament) does not change.

This, however, does not mean that the concept of temperament is irrelevant to efforts for intervention. On the contrary, temperament could serve as an “X-ray” by revealing the stable behaviour patterns (or dispositions) behind specific attitudes, wishes and so on. In this way, any psychologist or counsellor in practice could have a clear picture of the client’s fundamental aspects of character and behaviour in order to design a more realistic intervention programme. The therapeutic goals could be placed in concrete frames that do not exceed client’s strengths.

Finally, we would like to stress the need for the establishment of constant cooperation between European Counselling Centres for Students. We are all preoccupied with the same issues and problems. These problems, that are related to post-puberty, are plotted with the needs of the life in the Universities and the pressures for academic achievement. The improvement of counselling in Higher Education and the resolution of these problems can be the outcome of a productive dialogue between Counselling Centres throughout Europe. Federations or other organisations (such as FEDORA, and especially the PSYCHE-Group) should take the lead for such efforts in favour of the counsellors and the students as well.

References

- Deppreuw, E. (1996). Procrastination: Just laziness and lack of motivation or is the challenge for counsellors more complex? *Paper presented in the 25th Annual General Meeting of the Association for Student Counselling*. University of Sussex, England.
- Deppreuw, E.A., Eelen, P., & Stroobants, R. (1990). *Test concerning abilities for study and examinations-TASTE*. University of Leuven: Counselling Centre, Belgium.
- Kalantzi-Azizi, A. & Karadimas, E.C. (1994). The adaptation of the "Test Concerning Abilities for Study and Examinations" to a Greek student population and the relationship of temperament to procrastination. *Presentation at the 24th Congress of the European Association for Behavioural and Cognitive Therapies*, Corfu, Greece.
- Kalantzi-Azizi, A., & Karadimas, E.C. (1996). Improving health condition through self-efficacy expectations enhancement. *Presentation at the 5th Panhellenic Congress of Psychological Research*, Patra, Greece (in Greek).
- Kalantzi-Azizi, A., & Karadimas, E.C. (1996, in press). Measuring students' study abilities: The adaptation of the Taste Concerning Abilities for Study and Examinations (TASTE) to a Greek student population and cross-cultural validity. *Psychologia* (in Greek).
- Kalantzi-Azizi, A., Christakopoulou, S., & Mylonas, K. (1996, in press). Assessment of temperament in adults by the Pavlovian Temperament Survey. Preliminary findings for the Greek version and cross-cultural validity. *Psychologia* (in Greek).
- Kessler, R.C., & McLeod, J.D. (1983). Sex differences in vulnerability to undesirable life events. *American Sociological Review*, 49, 620-631.
- Kreitler, S., Kreitler, H., & Weissler, K. (1993). Psychological correlates of the three variables in the Strelau Temperament Inventory. *European Journal of Personality*, 7, 159-176.
- Pavlov, I.P. (1951-1952). *Complete works* (2nd edition). Moscow: USSR Academy of Sciences (in Russian).
- Rothblum, E.D., Solomon, L.J., & Murakami, J. (1986). Affective, cognitive and behavioral differences between high and low procrastinators. *Journal of Counselling Psychology*, 33, 387-394.
- Rott, G. (1996). Interaction between emotion, cognition and behaviour as a focus for Higher Education and in student counselling. In J. Georgas, M. Manthouli, E. Besevegis, & A. Kokkevi (Eds.). *Contemporary psychology*

- in Europe: Theory, research, and application. Proceedings of the IVth European Congress in Psychology.* Göttingen: Hogrefe & Huber Publishers.
- Strelau, J. (1983). *Temperament - Personality - Activity.* London: Academic Press.
- Strelau, J. (1987). The concept of temperament in personality research. *European Journal of Personality*, 1, 107-117.
- Strelau, J., & Angleitner, A. (1994). Cross-cultural studies on temperament: Theoretical considerations and empirical studies based on the Pavlovian Temperament Survey (PTS). *Journal of Personality and Individual Differences*, 36, 331-342.
- Strelau, J., Angleitner, A., Bantelmann, J. & Ruch, W. (1990). The Strelau Temperament Inventory-Revised (STI-R): Theoretical considerations and scale development. *European Journal of Personality*, 4, 209-235.
- Zuckerman, M. (1979). *Sensation seeking: Beyond the optimal level of arousal.* Hillsdale, N.J.: Erlbaum.

11

University Students in Athens: Mental Health and Attitudes toward Psychotherapeutic Intervention

A.L. CHRISTOPOULOS, M. KONSTANTINIDOU,
V. LAMBIRI, M. LEVENTIDOU, T. MANOU,
K. MAVROIDI, V. PAPPAS, L. TZOUMALAKIS

Introduction

The psychological well-being of university students is a source of interest and concern to mental health professionals and educators for a variety of reasons. The university years constitute a unique developmental phase with specific tasks that simultaneously pose a challenge and a strain on a young person (Grayson and Cawley, 1989). These tasks include psychological (and often physical) separation from parents and home; identity formation, achievement of intimacy with peers, stabilisation of character structure; and commitment to a set of life goals (Arnstein, 1984; Erickson, 1950). Academic opportunities are additional sources of stimulation and pressure for this population. It is thus not surprising that psychological difficulties frequently arise during this time period and that previously existing problems become exacerbated. Though there is some disagreement concerning the prevalence of psychopathology in the university student population, various studies suggest that the incidence of psychological disturbance ranges from 6% to 25% (Offer and Spiro, 1987; Whitaker et al., 1990).

The resolution or lack of resolution of psychological difficulties and crises during this developmental phase can have far-reaching consequences in the later life of the university student. Psychologi-

cal problems that are left untreated can lead to interruption of studies, academic drop out (with all its implications regarding future career) and to serious problems such as drug addiction or even suicide. Conversely, proper treatment of psychological problems may enable a student to complete his/her studies and thus establish a successful professional life as well as to achieve satisfying interpersonal relationships with peers and significant others. The establishment of mental health services for students internationally attests to the awareness of the paramount importance of such services. However, utilisation of such services is equally critical. In this regard, considerable clinical and empirical inquiry has focused on the factors involved in students seeking and using mental health services available to them (Calhoun and Selby, 1974; Cook et al., 1984; Gupta & Bonnell, 1993; Halgin, Weaver, Edell, & Spencer, 1987; Hummers & De Volver, 1979; Johnson, 1977; Niemi, 1988; Wilkinson, 1983).

However, despite the substantial research effort investigating the multitude of issues involved in the area of students mental health, there is a serious dearth of such work to date with respect to the Greek student population. Only one study to date has investigated the mental health of Greek University students (Alexandris, Hatjichristou, Stogiannidou, & Papadatos, 1989), which purposely focused on students who were living at a notable geographic distance from their families. Similarly, investigations on attitudes toward various mental health issues that included student samples found that student's attitudes regarding mental health issues were found to be more progressive than other segments of the Greek population and were found to change over time in accordance with changes in the general culture (Koutrelakos, Gedeon, & Struening 1978; Koutrelakos & Zarnari, 1983; Madianos, Madianou, Vlahonikos, & Stefanis 1987). However, these findings must be considered tentative, at best, in view of some serious methodological restrictions such as small size and sampling of very limited faculties of study.

The purpose of the present investigation was to assess several basic issues regarding the psychological adjustment of Greek University students. More specifically, the aims of the study were to assess the mental health of Greek University students in various faculties/departments of the University of Athens, as well as the attitudes

of the students toward various dimensions of mental health. Student attitudes toward seeking professional help were of particular interest. This study was the first part of a larger epidemiological investigation to be conducted at all the University campuses across Greece.

Method

Subjects

The sample consisted of 235 undergraduate students enrolled in various faculties/departments at the University of Athens (English literature, Law, Political and Social Studies, Engineering). 94 males and 139 females completed questionnaires on a voluntary and anonymous basis during class time. The mean age of the students was 21.6 years. The majority of the students (66%) were originally from Athens and (71%) lived with their parents at home. Most students (77%) did not work and were unmarried (95%). The educational level of the parents was of interest: approximately 50% of the fathers had education beyond high school, as did 26% of the mothers? The majority of parents (88.5%) were married.

Instruments

The General Health Questionnaire (Goldberg, 1978, 1988) a self-administered instrument that screens for psychiatric illness, was used to assess the mental health of the students. The 28-item version of this instrument has been translated and standardization did not include a student sample.

Students attitudes toward mental health issues was assessed with the Opinions on Mental Illness (OMI) scale (Cohen & Sruening, 1962, 1963). This 55 item scale assessing attitudes toward various mental health issues such as the mentally ill, psychiatric hospitals, causes of mental illness, social policy toward the mentally ill etc., has been translated into Greek and used in studies with various Greek samples (Koutrelakos, Gedeon, & Struening 1978; Koutrelakos & Zarnari, 1983, Madianos et al., 1987).

The Attitudes toward Seeking Professional Help Scale (Fischer

& Turner, 1970) was used to assess students attitudes toward seeking psychotherapy. This scale was translated into Greek for the purposes of the present study using the method of reverse translation.

A questionnaire assessing various demographics such as age, gender, department/faculty, year of study, place of origin, residence, employment, family status, education of mother, education of father, father's employment, mother's employment, parents family status, number and gender of siblings was also given.

Results

Student Mental Health

A factor analysis with orthogonal rotation was applied to data collected from the General Health Questionnaire. Three factors, accounting for 44% of the variance emerged and are described below.

1. Somatic symptoms/anxiety and insomnia (14 items). This factor is composed of two dimensions:
 - a) the sense of somatic or physical well being as well as somatic symptoms such as pains and aches, and
 - b) symptoms of anxiety and insomnia such as feeling scared of panicky, feeling edgy and bad tempered, having difficulty staying asleep, etc.
2. Social dysfunction (7 items). The basic concept has to do with how well one is functioning in day to day life and how much enjoyment one derives from every day activities.
3. Severe depression (7 items). This factor assesses symptomatology related to severe depression such as feeling that one is worthless, that life is hopeless and not worth living.

A comparison of these results with those of Goldberg (1978, 1979) and of Kolaitis (1979) indicate that the factor structure yielded by the current sample is in some ways similar to and in some ways different from the previous two studies. More specifically, analyses of variance (ANOVA's) were conducted on the three factors, as well as the total score of the General Health Questionnaire and a number of demographic variables. The results are presented in

Table 1. A significant main effect for gender was found for the Total GHQ score $F(1,222)=5.48$, $p<.05$ and for the Factor I (somatic symp-

Table 1. Analyses of variance demographic variables and mental health.

SOURCE	GHQ FACTORS						TOTAL GHQ SCORE	
	I SOMATIC SYMPTOMS ANXIETY/INSOMNIA				II SOCIAL DYSFUNCTION		III SEVERE DEPRESSION	
	DF	F	DF	F	DF	F	DF	F
Gender	1.222	8.30*	1.222	.026	1.222	1.46	1.222	5.48**
School/ Department	5.217	2.06	5.217	3.06**	5.217	.465	5.217	1.94
Year of study	3.211	2.54	3.211	1.33	3.211	1.94	3.211	2.06
Origin	1.214	.03	1.214	.54	1.214	.14	1.214	.04
Live with parents	1.223	.646	1.223	.02	1.223	.48	1.223	.612
Education of Father	2.220	2.12	2.220	.16	2.220	4.68*	2.220	1.78
Education of Mother	2.221	1.07	2.221	.55	2.221	.90	2.221	.42
Profession of Father	8.210	.34	8.210	.77	8.210	.72	8.210	.41
Profession of Mother	8.216	.75	8.216	1.80	8.216	1.03	8.216	.97

* $p<.01$, ** $p<.05$

toms/anxiety-insomnia) $F(1,222)=8.30$, $p<.01$. The means for males and females on each factor and the total score are presented in Table 2 and show that women have higher total GHQ scores than men and score higher on the somatic symptoms/anxiety-insomnia factor.

A significant main effect for department/faculty and Factor II (social dysfunction) was also found $F(1,222)=3.06$, $p,.05$. Inspection of the means for the different faculties/departments in Table 2 indicate that students in the Panteion University of Political Studies score more highly on this factor than do students in other faculties.

Finally a significant main effect was found for the fathers educational level and Factor III (severe depression) $F(2,220)=4.68$, $p,.05$. Inspection of the means for the three different educational levels as shown in Table 2 shows that as levels of fathers education increases, levels of depression in students also increase.

Attitudes toward Mental Health Issues

A factor analysis with orthogonal rotation was applied to data collected from the Opinions about Mental Illness Questionnaire. Four factors, accounting for 28.4% of the variance, emerged and are described below:

1. Social discrimination-Authoritarianism: This factor depicts the mentally ill as different from and inferior to “normals”, as well as generally untrustworthy and possibly dangerous, and advocates limiting the rights of the mentally ill.
2. Mental health treatment ideology - Custodialism: This factor represents a pessimistic view regarding hospital treatment efficacy and endorses a custodial (vs. Therapeutic) position toward psychiatric care and hospitalization. Also is included a punitive attitude toward behaviour of psychiatric patients.
3. Familiar factors in etiology of mental illness. This factor represents the idea that the cause of mental illness has to do with the quality of parent-child relationships early in the life of the individual, and that important factors include the parents' interest in and care for the child, the parents' own mental health and the parents' mental status (discovered vs. Intact marriage).

Table 2. Means for demographic variables and general health questionnaire.

SOURCE		Somatic symptoms -anxiety, insomnia	FACTORS	Severe Depression	TOTAL GHQ Score
G E N D E R	Males	11,12	2,32	5,93	19,39
	Females	14,25	2,67	6,30	22,72
D E P A R T M E N T / S C H O O L	1. Mixed (psychology) elective course)	13,38	2,83	6,42	22,64
	2. English literature	10,64	1,85	5,79	18,28
	3. Law School	15,31	1,95	6,77	24,04
	4. Pantion University	12,95	4,39	5,21	22,57
	5. School of Theology	11,22	1,00	6,11	18,33
	6. Polytechnic	11,33	1,40	5,85	18,59
E D U C A T I O N O F F A T H E R	1. Elementary School	11,53	2,53	5,17	19,23
	2. Secondary School	14,76	2,43	6,29	23,49
	3. Higher Education	12,51	2,26	6,52	21,31

4. "Popular" notions are daily life factors in etiology of psychiatric illness. This factor represents commonly held ideas by the general public regarding the everyday factors that are important causes of mental illness. Such factors include hard work, certain types of professional activities, the individual's lack of will and the individual's desire to avoid hard work.

A comparison of these findings with those of previous studies using the OMI scale with US samples (Cohen & Struening, 1962) and Greek samples (Koutrelakos et al., 1983; Madianos et al., 1987) indicates that the factor structure of the current study has fewer factors and a different factor structure than that of previous studies. The results are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Options about mental health - Comparisons of four studies.

Cohen & Struening 1962	Koutrelakos et al. 1983	Madianos et al. 1987	University of Athens 1994
1. Authoritarianism	1. Authoritarianism	1. Social discrimination	1. Social discrimination
2. Benevolence	2. Custodialism	2. Social integration	2. Mental health treatment ideology-custodialism
3. Mental health Hygiene ideology	3. Stigma	3. Social Care	3. Familial factors in etiology
4. Social Restrictiveness	4. Humanitarianism	4. Social restriction	4. "Popular" notions daily life factors.
5. Interpersonal ideology	5. Family ties	5. Etiology	

Analyses of variance using various demographic variables were conducted for each of the four factors of the OMI. No significant main effect emerged.

Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Help

A factor analysis with orthogonal rotation was applied to the data collected from Fishcher and Turner's Attitudes toward Seeking Professional Help Scale. Four factors, accounting for 37% of the

variance, emerged and are described below.

1. Value of psychotherapy. This factor represents faith and confidence in the mental health system in all its forms (such as mental health clinics and hospitals, practitioners such as psychologists and psychiatrists), as well as personal endorsement and use of the mental health system and recommendation of the mental health system to friends and others.
2. Stigma tolerance. This factor represents the idea that mental illness is associated with shame and expresses the need to “cover up” such problems so that they do not become known.
3. Interpersonal openness. This factor represents how open one generally is about oneself and how easy it is to talk about one’s own and one’s family problems.
4. Preference for other solutions. The central idea is a preference for solutions other than psychotherapy as a way to cope with psychological problems. Included are ideas such as that there is no need for psychotherapy, there are other means to deal with problems and it is best if the individual solves the problems alone.

These factors are almost identical to the four factor solution reported by Fischer and Turner with their sample.

Analyses of variance (ANOVA’s) were performed with various demographic variables for each of the four factors and for the total score of the scale. The results are presented in Table 4. A significant main effect for gender was found for the total score $F(1,211)=7.01$, $p<.01$ and for Factor I (Value of Psychotherapy) $F(1,211)=6.65$, $p<.05$. The means for males and females for each factor and the total score are shown in Table 5. Women tend to have higher total scores, indicating more positive attitudes towards psychotherapy than males, and to score higher on the Value of Psychotherapy factor than males do.

A significant main effect for years of study was found for total score $F(3,202)=2.78$, $p<.05$ and for Factor II (Stigma Tolerance) $F(3,202)=2.72$, $p<.05$ was also found. Inspection of the means shown in Table 5 indicates that the total score tends to decrease as year of study increases and that stigma tolerance also decreases as year of study increases.

Table 4. Demographic variables and attitudes toward mental health services.

SOURCE	FACTORS								TOTAL SCORE	
	I VALUE OF PSYCHOTHERAPY		II STIGMA TOLERANCE		III INTERPERSONAL OPENNESS				IV PREFERENCE OTHER SOLUTIONS	
	DF	F	DF	F	DF	F	DF	F	DF	F
Gender	1.211	6.65**	1.211	.66	1.211	1.91	1.211	3.49	1.211	7.01*
School/ Department	5.206	2.14	5.206	1.30	5.206	.63	5.206	1.40	5.206	1.78
Year of Study	3.202	1.65	3.202	2.72**	3.202	2.16	3.202	.39	3.202	2.78**
Origin	1.203	.75	1.203	0.62	1.203	0.25	1.203	.18	1.203	1.18
Live with Parents	1.212	.05	1.212	.30	1.212	.07	1.212	.77	1.212	.129
Education of father	2.209	.58	2.209	.59	2.209	.11	2.209	1.81	2.209	.80
Education of mother	2.210	.28	2.210	.88	2.210	.61	2.210	.40	2.210	.35
Profession of father	8.199	1.43	8.199	.75	8.199	1.45	8.199	1.37	8.199	1.92
Profession	8.205	.41	8.205	.33	8.205	.39	8.205	1.53	8.205	.71

* p<.01

**p<.05

Table 5. Means for demographic variables and attitudes toward mental health services.

SOURCE		Value of Psychotherapy	Stigma tolerance	FACTORS Interpersonal openness	preference for other solutions	TOTAL SCORE
G E N D E R	Males	28,67	10,41	23,08	10,68	73,15
	Females	31,09	10,79	23,92	11,50	77,50
Y E A R	1	30,77	11,50	24,69	11,47	78,44
	2	31,25	10,42	23,14	11,17	76,00
	3	31,43	10,63	23,58	11,37	77,02
	4	28,96	9,90	22,87	10,90	72,66

Discussion

The results of the current study indicate that Greek University students are a particular and distinctive group, similar in some ways to University student populations world-wide as well as to the Greek population in general, yet different from these groups in other respects.

The incidence of psycho pathology in the Greek University sample is consistent with findings from studies world-wide, though toward the lower end on the continuum. Approximately 8% of the Greek University students sampled appear to be at high risk for psychopathological disorders in comparison to student populations internationally which are estimated to range between 6% to 25% (Kimmer, Halikas, & Schukit, 1982; Offer & Spiro 1987; Whitaker et al., 1990).

However, in terms of mental health, the Greek student sample was both similar and different from the general adult Greek population and from adult populations internationally. Greek students report symptoms of social dysfunction and severe depression much as other populations do. However, unlike other groups who distinguish between somatic complaints, symptoms of anxiety and insomnia, Greek students tend to see these as a single unity. This finding in the Greek student sample is interesting, though somewhat puzzling. To be sure, somatic symptoms, and symptoms of anxiety and insomnia have certain similar characteristics insofar as they are manifested or experienced through bodily experience and sensation, and can thus be distinguished from symptoms relating to affective experience (e.g. depression) or to daily dysfunction (social dysfunction).

However, why general adult populations distinguished between somatic symptoms of anxiety and insomnia while the Greek student population does not is not clear. It would appear that students tend to organize symptoms and sensations experienced somatically as a general entity. It is impossible to know at present whether this finding is generally representative of this particular developmental phase because factor analytic studies with the instrument in question have not been done with university samples. However, the results of the present study warn against assuming that mental health and symptomatology is organized similarly for all groups, and indicate that factori-

al analyses must be performed with student populations prior to other statistical analyses in order to ensure the validity of the latter.

The relationships found between certain demographic variables and students mental health were also of interest. That females report more psychological difficulties than males, particularly with respect to somatic symptoms and symptoms of anxiety and insomnia is consistent with the literature on gender differences and reported incidence of psycho pathology (Fisher & Hood, 1988; Offer et al., 1991; Whitaker et al., 1990). However, the results of the present study and those of previous work to date continue to raise the question as to whether there is an *actual* difference in psycho pathology between genders or a *reported* one, based on social factors such as the acceptability of acknowledging psychological symptomatology.

The relationship between level of father's education and the degree of reported depression is an especially interesting one. It may be that students feel the need to do as well their fathers have educationally and that this results in considerable psychological strain for the students. Parents too, especially fathers, may exert pressure on their children to do as well as they themselves have. Why this sort of pressure, whether self or outer imposed, should result in symptoms of severe depression rather than other symptoms (e.g. anxiety) is not clear. Perhaps the sense of needing to live up to father's standards and the comparison of oneself to his achievements deleteriously affects self-esteem which is directly related to depression. It is also possible that the relationship between fathers' level of education and students' level of severe depression is mediated by other variables such as fathers' unit of authoritarianism, which may be associated with fathers' level of education.

The finding that students' attitudes toward the mentally ill tend to be organized in particular ways, both similar and different from general adult Greek and non Greek population underscores that this particular group has certain unique patterns of experiencing and perceiving the world. This finding, along with the results regarding the organization of experience regarding one's own mental health, previously discussed above, suggest the need to view the student population as a specific subgroup of the population at large that cannot be assumed to be similar in all respects to the larger societal group.

Findings regarding students' attitudes toward seeking of professional help were also of interest and concern. The finding that the female students were found to have more positive attitudes toward seeking professional help, and tend to value psychotherapy more, to have more faith in its efficacy and in mental health practitioners, is consistent with previous findings (Cook et al., 1984; Fischer & Turner, 1970; Hummers & De Volver, 1979; Tedeshit & Wilis, 1993). More surprising was the finding that year of study is associated with attitudes toward seeking profession help and with stigma tolerance in particular, such that as year of study increases, attitudes toward seeking professional help become less positive, with a decrease in students tolerance of the stigma associated with seeking help. It appears that as students get older and or have increased exposure to the University environment and perhaps even the world at large, their attitudes toward seeking psychological help become more negative because they become more aware there is considerable stigma attached to seeking psychotherapy. This finding is particularly useful for planning and organizing mental health programs (such as outreach, information dissemination etc.).

The finding that reported level of social dysfunction varied as a function of department, with students from the school of Political and Social studies showing higher levels of dysfunction was certainly unexpected and difficult to explain. Whether these are certain characteristics of students at this particular faculty are somehow related to greater reported social dysfunction or whether the results of the present study are based on chance sampling characteristics cannot be ascertained at present. Further investigation of this issue is clearly needed with a larger sample that includes more departments and faculties.

In summary, the results of the present study indicate that the Greek University population is unique, in many ways, similar yet different from the general Greek population, and from student populations world-wide with specific characteristics and attitudes regarding various aspects of mental health. Clearly further work is needed to investigate these and other dimensions in greater depth so as to better understand and service this population.

References

- Alexandris, V., Hadjichristou, C., Stogiannidou A., & Papadatos, Y. (1989). *Epidemiological study of university students mental health*. Manuscript in preparation.
- Arnstein, R.L. (1984). Developmental issues for colleges students. *Psychiatric Annals*, 14, 647-652.
- Bhurga, D. (1989). Attitudes toward Mental Illness: A review of the literature. *Acta Psychiatrica Scandinavica*, 80, 1-12.
- Cohen, J. & Struening, E.L. (1967). Opinions about mental illness: Hospital differences in attitude for eight occupational groups. *Psychological Reports*, 17, 25-26.
- Cook, E. P., Park, W., Williams, G.T., Webb, M., Nicholson, B., Schneider, D., & Bassman, S. (1984). Students' perceptions of personal problems, appropriate help sources and general attitudes about counselling. *Journal of College Student Personnel*, 25, 139-145.
- Douvan, A., & Andelson, P. (1966). *The adolescent experience*. New York: Wiley.
- Erikson, E.H., (1950). *Childhood and Society*. New York: Norton,
- Fischer, E.H. & Turner, J.B. (1970). Orientation to seeking professional help: Development and research utility of an attitude scale. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 35, 1, 79-90.
- Fisher, S., & Hood, B. (1988). Vulnerability factors in the transition to university: self-reported mobility history and sex differences as factors in psychological disturbance. *British Journal of Psychology*, 79(3), 309-320.
- Goldberg, D.P. & Hillyer, V. (1979). Scaled version of the General Health Questionnaire. *Psychological Medicine*, 9, 139-145.
- Grayson, P. & Cawley, K. (1989). *College Psychotherapy*. New York: Basic Books.
- Gupta, A., & Bonnell, P. (1993). Opinions about mental illness among college students. *Journal of Personality and Clinical Studies*, 9 (1-2), 63-68.
- Halgin, R.P., Weaver, D.D., Edell, W.S., & Spencer, P.G. (1987). Relation of depression and help-seeking history to attitudes toward seeking professional psychological help. *Journal of Counselling Psychology*, 34(2), 177-185.
- Hummers, J., & DeVolver, J.P. (1979). Comparisons of male and female students' use of a university counselling centre. *Journal of College Student Personnel*, 20, 243-249.
- Johnson, H.N. (1977). A survey of students attitudes toward counselling at a predominantly black university. *Journal of Counselling Psychology*, 24(2), 162-164.

- Kolaitis, G.T. (1990) in Greek. General Health Questionnaire-G.H.Q.
- Koutrelakos, J., Gedeon, S., & Struening, E. (1978). Opinions about mental illness: A comparison of American and Greek professionals and laymen. *Psychological Reports*, 43, 915-923.
- Koutrelakos, J., & Zarnari, O. (1983). Opinions about mental illness: A comparison of American and Greek social work students in 1969 and 1979. *Psychological Reports*, 53, 71-80.
- Madianos, M.G., Madianou, D., Vlachonicos, S., Stefanis, C.N. (1987). Attitudes toward mental illness in the Athens area: Implications for community mental health intervention. *Acta Psychiatrica Scandinavica*, 75, 158-165.
- Niemi, T. (1988). Problems among students seeking mental health care. *College Health*, 36, 353-354.
- Offer, D. & Spiro R.D. (1987). The disturbed adolescent goes to college. *Journal of American College Health*, 35, 209-214.
- Rabkin, J. G. (1972). Opinions about mental illness: A review of the literature *Psychological Bulletin*, 77(3), 153-171.
- Rimmer, G.D., Halikas, J.A., Schuchit, M.A., & McClure, J.N. (1978). A systematic study of psychiatric illness in Freshmen college students. *Comprehensive Psychiatry*, 19(3), 249-251.
- Shurka, E. (1983). Attitudes of Israeli Arabs towards the mental illness. *International Journal of Social Psychiatry*, 29, 108.
- Tedeshi, G. J., & Willis, F.N. (1993). Attitudes toward counselling among Asian International and native Caucasian students. *Journal of College Student Psychotherapy*, 7(4), 43-54.
- Whitaker, A., Johnson, J., Shaffer, D., Rapoport, J.L., & Kalikow, K. (1990). Uncommon troubles in young people: Prevalence estimates of selected psychiatric disorders in a nonreferred adolescent population. *Archives of General Psychiatry*, 47, 487-496.
- Wilkinson, Toone, & Greer (1983). Medical Students' attitudes to psychiatry at the end of the clinical curriculum. *Psychological Medicine*, 13, 655-658.

APPENDIX

Summary of further conference papers

1. Counselling Centre for Students at the University of Athens

MARILIA LEVINTIDOU, University of Athens, Greece.

This paper outlines the reasons for establishing the centre as well as its operating procedures. The centre was founded in 1990 on the principles of community health. It is run by professional psychologists and caters for a total student population of 84.000 students. It advertises its services through the use of posters and pamphlet campaigns. Activities at the centre come under 3 headings: Counselling, Research and Training. Counselling is both individual and group, with the emphasis on a cognitive-behavioural treatment approach. Problems dealt with at the centre include depression, study difficulties, relationship problems, eating disorders, phobias, obsessive compulsive disorders, lack of assertiveness and low self-esteem. The centre also deals with students with special needs and is actively involved in both Helios and Horizon programs.

The centre lays a strong emphasis on the importance of researching relevant issues as part of its function. Ongoing skills training as well as training in the use of psychometric tests is also provided.

2. Peer Group Counselling with teenagers

MONIKA SERFOZO, Lorand Eotvos University, Budapest, Hungary.

This paper reported on a program aimed at helping the decision making and preparation for future careers of secondary school students. This program was run by psychology students. The group started initially as a self-help group. Their function is preventative. Members of the group have been trained in basic counselling skills. The types of problems they deal with include: school conflicts, teacher - student conflict, loneliness, relationships

difficulties, value conflicts, feelings of loss of goals in life, conflict with parents, health problems, unwanted pregnancy, sexuality issues, learning problems, career choice.

Specific issues concerning third level education include:

Should they go to third level, what career to choose, what are they capable of, which college and which subjects to choose, preparing for exams, what's it like to be a University student, what's it like to live in dormitories, how to cope with independent living and separation, how to deal with financial problems.

The Centre operates as an information centre, disseminating information required. It also runs preparatory courses and acts a support group.

3. Peer Counselling

VERONIKA TOTH, Eötvös Lorand University, Budapest, Hungary.

Students will often prefer to talk to their peers than to professional counselors. This paper describes how a group of psychology students work at a peer counselling unit. Basically this is an information centre on syllabus related matters for students but acts as a support and listening service when students begin to talk about personal and family issues. The example is given of a student who comes to enquire about her collegiate options. During the discussion it transpired that she lives away from home, they don't keep in touch and she has very little finance. Another student was interested in the social supports available, as she has a baby. This student went on to talk about the difficulties in raising a child as a student. The students running the centre are in regular supervision and have ongoing training.

4. Psychosocial factors that affect the Students performance in their course of studies

GEORGIOS KISSAS, University of Athens.

A sample of 93 students at the Philosophical School of the Athens University, were divided into 4 groups - those who terminate their studies, those who finished them in 6 years, those who delayed their completion more than 6 years and those who never really terminate but neither do they get their degree. Two questionnaires were given in order to compare some of the group's psychological and social factors. How much those factors that had to do with the termination or delay of studies and, which of them could anticipate that phenomenon, were examined. It was found that the high grades in the first year, the frequent contact with the teachers, the few hours of work

and the satisfaction of their expectations for knowledge and education, lead the students to quicker and successful completion of their studies. On the other hand, many hours of work, a marriage and less satisfaction of their expectations from the university, lead to a long term delay of their studies and postponement of their completion. Finally the father's strong influence as to the choice of the candidate, low marks in the last grade of High School and the first year in university, lack of communication with the professors, success in entering a school that wasn't the first choice of the candidate, leading to expectations not being met, were found to lead to a temporary termination of their studies. Those findings are discussed and ways of intervention are suggested for the prevention or the facing of the problem.

5. In between existence as a possibility for coping with parents

NADINKA RAJNAI, Lorand Eötvös University, Budapest, Hungary.

This paper describes the experience for students of being in-between being a family member and being an independent adult. During this period family relationships will loosen, yet new intensive, safe relationships will not have been developed. This in-between existence will often be manifested by feelings of solitude and isolation for the student. Isolation is created in situations where students, in the process of becoming independent, do not want to share their problems with their parents or siblings. It is difficult for students to cope with the fact that they do not depend on somebody.

The in-between existence of students creates what Erikson referred to as a social moratorium in the development of these young adults. It provides the opportunity for the young person to experience his/her own personal strengths and can be alone without the feeling of solitude and separateness. University life, with its effervescent but not permanent conditions, offers an optimal framework and an excellent training opportunity for all of this to happen. All young people are in need of bringing themselves into a situation of being alone and yet tolerating the transitory tension of such situations.

6. A case study of agoraphobia with test anxiety and panic attacks.

DIANA HARILA, University of Athens, Greece.

This paper outlines in detail the cognitive behavioural treatment of a student with agoraphobia. In this case the student presented with exam panic attacks as well as anxiety when away from home, when in public places and when using public transportation. A detailed social history of the student was obtained in which the poor relations which existed between the student and her

parents was noted. Basically the student felt that her parents underestimated her capabilities and she felt rejected by them. The student had one sister with whom she got on well. Her first panic attack occurred shortly after she had begun to have a steady boyfriend.

A full cognitive behavioural analysis was provided. A systematic assessment of the problem behaviour and its consequences was carried out. The problematic behaviour is described at three levels: the physiological-somatic response, the cognitive responses and the behavioural responses. Following the assessment, therapeutic targets were set with the client. See Table 1 for details. This paper provides an excellent conceptualisation of the problem using this framework and then follows through with a coherent cognitive behavioural treatment package over 8 sessions. Two follow up sessions were also involved. See Table 2 for details.

In this case, the therapeutic target could have focused on Mary's relations with her family and the dynamics of the family. However, because the consequences of her symptoms were really dramatic for her and affected many aspects of her life, the elimination of these was decided to be the first priority in the therapeutic process.

In the context of mental health services such as the counselling centre for students in the University of Athens, therapeutic models such as the cognitive-behavioural one, are very effective, because they bring short-term effects, they eliminate the symptoms, as well as the consequences of them, which they enhance the clients self-efficacy. The use of cognitive-behavioural techniques gave direct and fast effects, so that Mary overcame the problem of test anxiety and panic attacks and did not miss a third exam period. She started attending the University again and this event increased her self confidence if her return to normal student life was delayed any longer, more problems might have been created.

In many cases, the psychological difficulties students face have a direct impact on their academic progress and that consists of a series of negative consequences for them which give rise to other problems. For this reason, the therapeutic priorities should be determined by the demands of the clients i.e. what they want to modify.

Table 1. Cognitive-Behavioural Analysis.

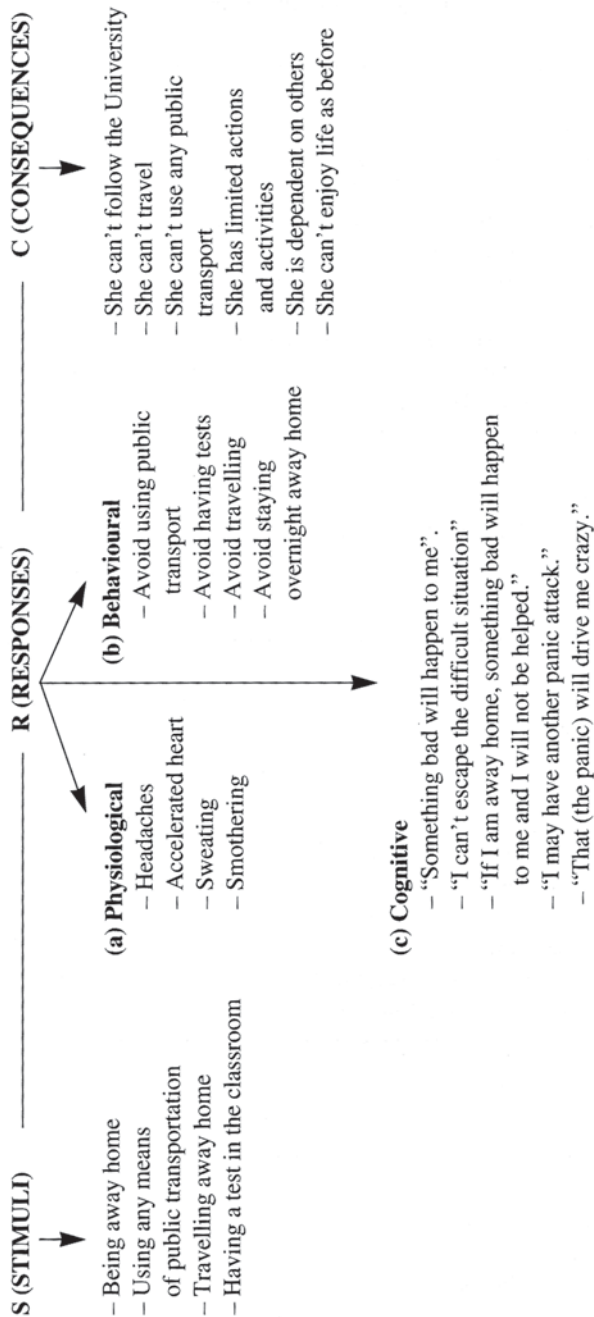


Table 2. Therapy Stages.

SESSION 1 Initial Interview
SESSION 2 Brief explanation of the behavioural-cognitive model Determination of the anxiety-provoking situations
SESSION 3 Systematic desensitisation with muscle relaxation Identification of the thoughts related to anxiety-provoking situations Cognitive Solving-problem technique
SESSION 4 Less anxiety Cognitive work on the self view Use of Imagery Practice of positive thought Exposure technique
SESSION 5 Use of bus Modelling technique Breathing technique Teaching of cognitive coping skills Analysis of thoughts Work on the client-family relationships
SESSION 6 Have exam successfully Use of public transportation except metro Practice of some coping skills in vivo
SESSION 7 Being away home Use of metro
SESSION 8 Have exams in the University Face mother Restructuring of thinking

General References

- Adamo, S.M.G. & Valerio, P. (1990). Counselling Psicodinamico con studenti universitari. Acquisizioni e prospettive di ricerca. In: P. Valerio & S.M.G. Adamo (eds), *Psicologi e Medici. Esperienze e ricerche in ambito istituzionale* (pp. 83-94). Napoli: Idelson.
- Adamo, S.M.G., & Valerio, P. (1991). Psychodynamically oriented brief interventions with medical students. In Hochschulrektorenkonferenz (Ed.) *Ein Jahr davor: Studieren in Europa*. (Vol. 72, pp. 229-234). Bonn/Berlin: Dokumente zur Hochschulreform.
- Adamo, S.M.G., Bosinelli, M., & Valerio, P. (1994). Psychological Counselling in Higher Education: an Italian Overview: In: E. Bell, C. Mc Devitt, G. Rott, & P. Valerio (Eds.), *Psychological Counselling in Higher Education: A European Overview* (pp. 161-184). Napoli: La Città del Sole.
- Adamo, S.M.G., Giusti, P., Petri, F., Portanova, F., & Valerio, P. (1993, June). THE TOOL-BOX psychoanalytical concepts we consider fundamental in our work as university students counsellors. *FEDORA Newsletter*, 4-5.
- Adamo, S.M.G., Valerio, P., & Giusti, P. (1992). Psychodynamically Oriented Brief Interventions with Medical Students: An Italian Experience. *Journal of College Student Psychotherapy*, 7, 2, 35-45.
- Ainscow, M. & Florek, A. (1989) (Eds). *Special Education Needs: Towards a Whole School Approach*. London: Fulton.
- Alexandris, V., Hadjichristou, C., Stogiannidou A., & Papadatos, Y. (1989). *Epidemiological study of university students mental health*. Manuscript in preparation.

- Alloy, I.R., Acocella, J., & Bootzin, R.R. (1996). *Abnormal psychology: Current perspectives*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Anderson, L.R. & Malikiosi-Loizos, M. (1992). Reliability data for a Greek translation of the Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale: Comparisons with data from the USA. *Psychological Reports*, 71, 665-666.
- Anderson, S.A., & Fleming, W.M. (1986). Late adolescents' home-leaving strategies: Predicting ego identity and college adjustment. *Adolescence*, 21 453-459.
- Arnstein, R.L. (1984). Developmental issues for colleges students. *Psychiatric Annals*, 14, 647-652.
- Aspy, D. N. (1969). The effect of teacher-offered conditions of empathy, congruence and positive regard upon student achievement. *Florida Journal of Educational Research*, 11, 39-48.
- Bauer, M., Fredtoft, T., Malm, M., & Poulsen, S. (1996). *Dependency and Perfectionism: Short-term dynamic Group Psychotherapy for University Students*, Copenhagen. (This article will be published in *Psychodynamic Counselling*, Routledge, London, november 1996).
- Bell, E. (1991). Counselling methods and concepts. In Hochschulrektorenkonferenz (Ed.) *Ein Jahr davor: Studieren in Europa* (Vol. 72, pp. 306-317). Bonn/Berlin: Dokumente zur Hochschulreform.
- Bell, E. (1996). *Counselling in Further and Higher Education*. Buckingham, Philadelphia: Open University Press.
- Bell, E., Mc Devitt, C., Rott, G., & Valerio, P. (1994). Introduction. In: E. Bell, C. Mc Devitt, G. Rott, & P. Valerio (Eds.), *Psychological Counselling in Higher Education: A European overview* (pp. 11-26). Napoli: La Città del Sole.
- Bell, E., McDevitt, C., Rott, G., & Valerio, p. (Eds.). (1994). *Psychological counselling in higher education*. Napoli: La Città Del Sole.
- Belschner, W., Hoffmann, M., Schott, F. & Schulze, C. (1975). *Verhaltenstherapie in Erziehung und Unterricht*. (3rd ed.). Stuttgart, Berlin, Köln, Mainz: Verlag W. Kohlhammer (1973).
- Berry, J.W. (1984). Towards a universal psychology of cognitive competence. *International Journal of Psychology*, 19, 335-361.
- Bhurga, D. (1989). Attitudes toward Mental Illness: A review of the literature. *Acta Psychiatrica Scandinavica*, 80, 1-12.
- Blos P. (1979). *The Adolescence passage. Developmental Issues*. New York: International Universities Press.
- Blos, P. (1962). *On adolescence. A psychoanalytic Interpretation*. New York: Free Press.
- Bosonis, G. (1995). Platonic psychology as self-knowledge. Paper presented in

- the IV European Congress of Psychology. Athens, Greece.
- Bowlby, J. (1988). *A secure base: Clinical applications of attachment theory*. London: Routledge.
- Bradford, E. & Lyddon, W. (1993). Current parental attachment: Its relation to perceived psychological distress and relationship satisfaction in college students. *Journal of College Student Development*, 34(4), 256-260.
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1991). L'auto-exploration des intérêts et des capacités: données et validité du "self-directed research" de J.L. Holland. In Hochschulrektorenkonferenz (Ed.) *Ein Jahr davor: Studieren in Europa* (Vol. 72, pp. 254-261). Bonn/Berlin: Dokumente zur Hochschulreform.
- Brutin, K. (1991). Impact émotionnel de la littérature, son utilisation au sein d'une relation de tutorat pédagogique dans le cadre d'un enseignement auprès d'étudiants souffrant de graves troubles psychiques. In Hochschulrektorenkonferenz (Ed.) *Ein Jahr davor: Studieren in Europa* (Vol. 72, pp. 292-295). Bonn/Berlin: Dokumente zur Hochschulreform.
- Brutin, K. (1994). *Psychoacademic counselling to students who have had severe breakdowns: a few suggestions to think over the role of studies in mental development*. Paper presented at the Barcelona Conference.
- Campbell, D. T. & Stanley, J. C. (1963). *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research*. Chicago: Rand McNally and Company.
- Canestrari, R. (1989). Recent Research in the transition from adolescence to adulthood. In: M. Bosinelli & M. Giusberti (Eds). *The age of adolescence and youth and the psychosocial profile of the university student* (pp. 15-22). Bologna: Editrice CLUEB.
- Carkhuff, R. R. (1969). *Helping and human relations* (Vols. 1 and 2). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Wiston.
- Carlozzi, A. F., Campbell, N. J., & Ward, G. R. (1982). Dogmatism and externality in locus of control as related to counselor trainee skill in facilitative responding. *Counselor Education and Supervision*, 21, 227-236.
- Chamboredon, J.C. (1985). Adolescence et postadolescence: La Jeunilisation. Notes sur les récents changements des limites et de la définition sociale de la jeunesse. In (AA. VV.) *Adolescence terminée, adolescence interminable*. Paris: Presses Universitaires de France.
- Chartokolis, P. (1989). *Eisagogi stin psichiatriki*. [In Greek] [Introduction in Psychiatry]. Athens: Themelio.
- Chickering, A.W. (1969). *Education and Identity*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Christophilopoulou, A. (1991). *Byzantini Istoría*. [In Greek] [Byzantine history]. Athens:
- Cohen, A.P. (1994). *Self consciousness: An alternative anthropology of identity*.

- London and New York: Routledge.
- Cohen, J. & Struening, E.L. (1967). Opinions about mental illness: Hospital differences in attitude for eight occupational groups. *Psychological Reports*, 17, 25-26.
- Colangelo, N., Foxley, C. H., & Dustin, D. (Eds). (1979). *Multicultural nonsexist education: A human relations approach*. Dubuque, Iowa: Kendall / Hunt Publishing Co.
- Combs, A.W., Richards, A.C., & Richards, F. (1976). *Perceptual Psychology: A Humanistic approach to the study of persons*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Cook, E. P., Park, W., Williams, G.T., Webb, M., Nicholson, B., Schneider, D., & Bassman, S. (1984). Students' perceptions of personal problems, appropriate help sources and general attitudes about counselling. *Journal of College Student Personnel*, 25, 139-145.
- Coopersmith, S. (1967). *The antecedents of self-esteem*. San Francisco: Freeman.
- Cronbach, L. J. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika*, 16, 297-334.
- Danassis-Afentakis, A.K. (1985). *Eisagogi stin paidagogiki*. [In Greek] [Introduction in education]. Athens: University of Athens Press.
- Danon-Boileau, H. (1984). *Les études et l'échec. De l'adolescence à l'âge adulte*. Paris: Payot.
- Davies, D.E. (1986). *Maximizing Examination Performance, A Psychological Approach*, London: Kogan Page.
- de Wolff, Ch. (1992). Developments in Applied Psychology. In *Applied Psychology* (Vol. 42, pp. 54-57). Hove, East Sussex: Erlbaum, Taylor and Francis.
- Delhaxe, M. (1994). *Awareness and improvement of learning skills to help succeed in university "Guidance étude"*. Paper presented at the Barcelona Conference.
- Deppreuw, E. (1996). Procrastination: Just laziness and lack of motivation or is the challenge for counsellors more complex? *Paper presented in the 25th Annual General Meeting of the Association for Student Counselling*. University of Sussex, England.
- Deppreuw, E. (1994). *Study procrastination in university students: conceptual analysis and preliminary outcome data of a group treatment programme*. Paper presented at the Barcelona Conference.
- Deppreuw, E.A., Eelen, P., & Stroobants, R. (1990). *Test concerning abilities for study and examinations-TASTE*. University of Leuven: Counselling Centre, Belgium.
- Dias, G. F. (1994). *La projection du self dans le futur, la dépression et l'ac-*

complissement académique. Conséquences pour le conseil psychologique.

Paper presented at the Barcelona Conference.

- Dilling, H., Mombour, W., Schmidt, M.H. (1991). *Internationale Klassifikation psychischer Störungen, ICD 10 Kapitel V (F)*. Bern, Göttingen, Toronto, Seattle: Verlag Hans Huber Authorised German Edition. Original Edition: World Health Organisation (1991) Tenth Revision of the International Classification of Diseases, Chapter V (F): Mental and Behavioural Disorders (including Disorders of Psychological Development) Clinical Descriptions and Diagnostic Guidelines. World Health Organisation.
- Douvan, A., & Andelson, P. (1966). *The adolescent experience*. New York: Wiley.
- Drenth, P. J. D. (1996). Psychology as a science: Truthful or useful? In Georgas, J., Manthouli, M., Besevegis, E. & Kokkevi, A. (Eds.) *Contemporary Psychology in Europe: Theory, Research, and Application*, Proceedings of the IVth European Congress of Psychology (pp. 23-40). Seattle, Toronto, Göttingen, Bern: Hogrefe & Huber Publishers.
- Earwaker, J. (1992). *Helping and Supporting Students*. London: S.R.H.E. and Open University Press.
- Eifert, G. H. & Lauterbach, W. (1995). Das Wissenschaftler-Praktiker Modell zur Ausbildung von klinischen Psychologen/Psychotherapeuten: Erfahrungen und Vorschläge aus amerikanischer Sicht. In *Zeitschrift für Klinische Psychologie: Forschung und Praxis* (Vol. 24, 3, pp. 209-215). Göttingen, Bern, Toronto, Seattle: Hogrefe, Verlag für Psychologie.
- Epstein, S. (1979). Entwurf einer Integrativen Persönlichkeitstheorie. In Sigrun - Heide Filipp (Ed.), *Selbstkonzept-Forschung - Probleme, Befunde, Perspektiven* (pp. 15-45). Stuttgart: Klett-Cotta.
- Erikson, E. H. (1968). *Childhood and Society*, W. W. Norton & Co.
- Erikson, E.M. (1968). *Identity, Youth and Crisis*. New York: Norton Company.
- Erikson, E.H. (1974). *Jugend und Krise, die Psychodynamik im sozialen Wandel*. (2nd ed.). Stuttgart: Ernst Klett Verlag. Original edition (1968): *Identity Youth and Crisis*, New York: W.W. Norton and Company.
- Eysenck, H.J. (1990). Clinical psychology in Europe and in the United States: Development and future. In P.J.D. Drenth, J.A. Sergeant, & R.J. Takens (Eds.): *European perspectives in psychology* (vol. 2). London: Wiley.
- Figge, P. (1991). Die Ansprechbarkeit von Studierenden für Beratung. In Hochschulrektorenkonferenz (Ed.) *Ein Jahr davor: Studieren in Europa* (Vol. 72, pp. 210-215). Bonn/Berlin: Dokumente zur Hochschulreform.
- Figge, P. (1994). *Aspects of objective therapy-outcome and subjective therapy-benefit in client-centered psychotherapy in groups*. Paper presented at the

Barcelona Conference.

- Figge, P., Kaiphas, W., Knigge-Illner, H. & Rott, G. (1995). *Psychologische Studienberatung an deutschen Hochschulen: Eine empirische Studie zu Kontext, institutionellen Bedingungen und Aufgaben*. München: Lexika Verlag.
- Filingim, R.B., & Blumenthal, J.A. (1993). The use of aerobic exercise as a method of stress management. In P.M. Lehrer, & R.L. Woolfolk (Eds.): *Principles and practice of stress management*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Fischer, E.H. & Turner, J.B. (1970). Orientation to seeking professional help: Development and research utility of an attitude scale. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 35, 1, 79-90.
- Fisher, B. (1988). *Leaving home, homesickness and the psychological effects of change and transition*. In S. Fisher & J. Reason (Eds). *Handbook of Life Stress, Cognition and Health*. New York: Wiley.
- Fisher, S., & Hood, B. (1988). Vulnerability factors in the transition to university: self-reported mobility history and sex differences as factors in psychological disturbance. *British Journal of Psychology*, 79(3), 309-320.
- Flanders, N. A. (1970). *Analyzing teacher behavior*. Mass.: Addison-Wesley.
- Fowler, R. D. (1996). The future of psychology as a health care profession. In Georgas, J., Manthouli, M., Besevegis, E., & Kokkevi, A. (Eds.) *Contemporary Psychology in Europe: Theory, Research, and Application*, Proceedings of the IVth European Congress of Psychology (pp. 80-87). Seattle, Toronto, Göttingen, Bern: Hogrefe & Huber Publishers.
- Freud, S. (1967). *Gesammelte Werke, Neue Folge der Vorlesungen zur Einführung in die Psychoanalyse* (Vol. XV, 4th ed.). Frankfurt am Main: S. Fischer Verlag.
- Gazda, G. M. (1971). Systematic human relations training in teacher preparation and inservice education. *Journal of Research and Development*, 4, 47-51.
- Giddens, A. (1991). *Modernity and Self-Identity*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Gilligan, C. (1982). *The College Psychotherapy Client: An overview*. In P.A. Grayson & K. Caulenk (Eds), *College Psychotherapy*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Golderg, D.P. & Hillyer, V. (1979). Scaled version of the General Health Questionnaire. *Psychological Medicine*, 9, 139-145.
- Goswick, R. A. & Jones, W. H. (1981). Loneliness, self-concept and adjustment. *Journal of Personality*, 107, 237-240.
- Gottfurcht, J. W. (1975). Predicting success in human relations training. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 36, 4B, 1917.
- Grayson, P. (1989). The College Psychotherapy Client: an overview. In P.

- Grayson & K. Caulenk (Eds.), *College Psychotherapy*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Grawe, K. & Braun, U. (1994). Qualitätskontrolle in der Psychotherapiepraxis. In *Zeitschrift für Klinische Psychologie* (Vol. XXIII, 4, pp. 242-267). Göttingen: Hogrefe-Verlag.
- Grawe, K., Donati R., & Bernauer, F. (1994). *Psychotherapie im Wandel, Von der Konfession zur Profession* (4th ed.). Göttingen: Hogrefe, Verlag für Psychologie.
- Green, A. Parker, L., & Patten, M. (1995/1996). (Association for Student Counselling - Research sub committee: Categorization of Client Issues - Questionnaire and papers-) (unpublished). Available from Lesly Parker University of Hertfordshire - Hatfield Herts.
- Greenberg, G. J. (1981). A study of stressors in the college student population. *Health Education*, 12, 8-12.
- Greve, W. (1993). Ziele therapeutischer Intervention: Probleme der Bestimmung, Ansätze der Beschreibung, Möglichkeiten der Begründung und Kritik. In *Zeitschrift für Klinische Psychologie* (Vol. XXII, 4, pp. 347-373). Göttingen, Bern, Toronto, Seattle: Hogrefe, Verlag für Psychologie.
- Gupta, A., & Bonnell, P. (1993). Opinions about mental illness among college students. *Journal of Personality and Clinical Studies*, 9 (1-2), 63-68.
- Halgin, R.P., Weaver, D.D., Edell, W.S., & Spencer, P.G. (1987). Relation of depression and help-seeking history to attitudes toward seeking professional psychological help. *Journal of Counselling Psychology*, 34(2), 177-185.
- Heppner, P.P., Kivlighan Jr., D.M., & Wampold, B.E. (1992). *Research Design in Counselling*. Pacific Grove, California: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.
- Heyno, A. (1994). Psycho-dynamic counselling in practice. In Bell, E., McDevitt, C, Rott, G., & Valerio, P. (Eds.), *Psychological counselling in higher education* (pp. 233-237). Napoli: La Città Del Sole.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Howard, K.I., Kopta, S.M., Krause, M.S. and Orlinsky, D.E. (1986), The dose-effect relationship in psychotherapy *American Psychologist*, 41, 159-164.
- Hui, C.H., & Triandis, H.C. (1986). Individualism - collectivism: A study of cross-cultural researchers. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 17, 225-248.
- Hummers, J., & DeVolver, J.P. (1979). Comparisons of male and female students' use of a university counselling centre. *Journal of College Student Personnel*, 20, 243-249.
- Humphreys, A. (1993). *Self-esteem: The key to your childs education*. Cork.
- Ivey, A.E., Gluckstern, N.B., & Bradford Ivey, M. (1974). *Basic Attending Skills*.

- Mass: Microtraining Associates.
- Johnson, H.N. (1977). A survey of students attitudes toward counselling at a predominantly black university. *Journal of Counselling Psychology*, 24(2), 162-164.
- Jones, A. (1987). *Leadership for Tomorrow's Schools*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Kalantzi-Azizi, A. & Karadimas, E.C. (1994). The adaptation of the "Test Concerning Abilities for Study and Examinations" to a Greek student population and the relationship of temperament to procrastination. *Presentation at the 24th Congress of the European Association for Behavioural and Cognitive Therapies*, Corfu, Greece.
- Kalantzi-Azizi, A., & Karadimas, E.C. (1996, in press). Measuring students' study abilities: The adaptation of the Taste Concerning Abilities for Study and Examinations (TASTE) to a Greek student population and cross-cultural validity. *Psichologia* (in Greek).
- Kalantzi-Azizi, A., & Karadimas, E.C. (1996). Improving health condition through self-efficacy expectations enhancement. *Presentation at the 5th Panhellenic Congress of Psychological Research*, Patra, Greece (in Greek).
- Kalantzi-Azizi, A., & Matsaka, I. (1993, June). Group training of students with problems in organising study and difficulties of attention. *FEDORA Newsletter*, 8-9.
- Kalantzi-Azizi, A., Christakopoulou, S., & Mylonas, K. (1996, in press). Assessment of temperament in adults by the Pavlovian Temperament Survey. Preliminary findings for the Greek version and cross-cultural validity. *Psichologia* (in Greek).
- Kantor, J.R. (1963). *The scientific evolution of psychology*. I. Chicago, Illinois: The Principia Press.
- Kessler, R.C., & McLeod, J.D. (1983). Sex differences in vulnerability to undesirable life events. *American Sociological Review*, 49, 620-631.
- Klaus, J. (1991). University guidance systems in Europe. In Hochschulrektorenkonferenz (Ed.) *Ein Jahr davor: Studieren in Europa* (Vol. 72, pp. 83-90). Bonn/Berlin: Dokumente zur Hochschulreform.
- Knigge-Illner, H. (1994a). The process of psychological counselling: An example of student counselling at German universities. In Bell, E., McDevitt, C., Rott, G., & Valerio, P. (Eds.) *Psychological counselling in higher education* (pp. 219-232). Napoli: La Città Del Sole.
- Knigge-Illner, H. (1994b). *Developmental trends in psychological counselling at universities. Characteristics of a workshop "Preparing for exam"*. Paper presented at the Barcelona Conference.
- Knigge-Illner, H., & Kruse, O. (Eds.). (1994). *Studieren mit Lust und Methode*,

- Neue Gruppenkonzepte für Beratung und Lehre.* Weinheim: Deutscher Studien Verlag.
- Kohut, H. (1979). *Narzifismus, eine Theorie der psychoanalytischen Behandlung narzifitischer Persönlichkeitsstörungen.* (2nd ed.). Frankfurt am Main: Suhrkamp. Original edition (1971): *The analysis of the self. A systematic approach to the psychoanalytic treatment of narcissistic personality disorders,* New York: International University Press.
- Kohut, H. (1988). *The Restoration of the Self.* New York: Brunner/Mazel.
- Kolaitis, G.T. (1990) in Greek. General Health Questionnaire-G.H.Q.
- Koutrelakos, J., & Zarnari, O. (1983). Opinions about mental illness: A comparison of American and Greek social work students in 1969 and 1979. *Psychological Reports, 53,* 71-80.
- Koutrelakos, J., Gedeon, S., & Struening, E. (1978). Opinions about mental illness: A comparison of American and Greek professionals and laymen. *Psychological Reports, 43,* 915-923.
- Kreitler, S., Kreitler, H., & Weissler, K. (1993). Psychological correlates of the three variables in the Strelau Temperament Inventory. *European Journal of Personality, 7,* 159-176.
- Lazarus, R.S. (1976). *Patterns of adjustment* (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Landy, F.J. (1992). Basic Applied Psychology: Which is the Cart and Which is the Horse? In *Applied Psychology* (Vol. 42, pp. 49-51). Hove, East Sussex: Erlbaum, Taylor and Francis.
- Lauwers, J. (1984). Les Belges et le travail. In R. Rezsóhy & J. Kerkhofs (Eds.), *L'univers des Belges. Valeurs anciennes et valeurs nouvelles dans les années 80.* Louvain-la-Neuve: CIACO, pp. 189-215.
- Lenarduzzi, D. (1994). In FEDORA (Ed.), *Report of the 5th congress: New challenges for guidance in Europe, the present and the future - Barcelona 27-30/IV/1994,* Address to the conference (pp. 115-122). Louvain-la-Neuve.
- Lennox, R. & Wolfe, R. (1984). Revision of the self-monitoring scale. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 46,* 1349-1364.
- Leung, K., & Bond, M.H. (1989). On the empirical identification of dimensions for cross-cultural comparisons. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 20,* 2, 133-151.
- Levy-Leboyer, C. (1992). The Chicken and the Egg: Which Came First. In *Applied Psychology* (Vol. 42, pp. 52- 54). Hove, East Sussex: Erlbaum, Taylor and Francis.
- Lipovetsky, G. (1990). Virage cultural, persistence du moi. *Le Débat, 60,* 264-269.
- Lipset, S.M. (1990). *Continental divide.* New York: Routledge.

- Loesch, L. C., Crane, B. B., & Rucker, B. B. (1978). Counselor trainee effectiveness: More puzzle pieces? *Counselor Education and Supervision*, 17, 195-204.
- Lopez, R.G., Campbell, V.L., & Watkins, C.E. (1986). Depression, psychological separation and college adjustment: An investigation of sex differences. *Journal of Counselling Psychology*, 33, 52-56.
- Louw, J. (1992). The history of psychology, applied psychology, and professionalisation. In *Applied Psychology* (Vol. 42, pp. 54-57). Hove, East Sussex: Erlbaum, Taylor and Francis.
- Lunt, I. (1996). Competent to practise in psychology? In Georgas, J., Manthouli, M., Besevegis, E., & Kokkevi, A. (Eds.) *Contemporary Psychology in Europe: Theory, Research, and Application*, Proceedings of the IVth European Congress of Psychology (pp. 43-54). Seattle, Toronto, Göttingen, Bern: Hogrefe & Huber Publishers.
- Madianos, M.G., Madianou, D., Vlachonicos, S., Stefanis, C.N. (1987). Attitudes toward mental illness in the Athens area: Implications for community mental health intervention. *Acta Psychiatrica Scandinavica*, 75, 158-165.
- Mahoney, M. (1991). *Human change processes*. New York: Basic Books.
- Malikiosi-Loizos, M. & Anderson, L. R. (1992a). Reliability data on a Greek translation of the Revised Self-monitoring Scale. *Psychological Reports*, 71, 544-546.
- Malikiosi-Loizos, M. & Anderson, L. R. (1992b). The Spheres of Control Scale: Reliability data for a Greek translation. *Psychologica Themata*, 5(3), 203-210 (in Greek).
- Malikiosi-Loizos, M. & Anderson, L. R. (1994). Reliability of a Greek translation of the Life Satisfaction Index. *Psychological Reports*, 74, 1319-1322.
- Maranto, C.D. (1993). Music therapy and stress management. In P.M. Lehrer, & R.L. Woolfolk (Eds.): *Principles and practice of stress management*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Maslow, A. (1954). *Motivation and Personality*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Maslow, A. (1962). *Toward a Psychology of Being*. New York: Van Nostrand.
- Masterson, J. F. (1988). *The Search for the Real Self*.
- McClelland, D.C. (1953). *Achievement Motivation*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.
- McDevitt, C. (1994, April). *Counter-transference issues in working with students from other European cultures*. Paper presented at the 5th Congress of the European Forum for Student Guidance, Barcelona.
- Mearns, D., & Thorne, B. (1988). *Person-centred counselling in action*. London: Sage Publications.

- Meichenbaum, D. W. (1979). *Kognitive Verhaltensmodifikation*. München, Wien, Baltimore: Urban und Schwarzenberg.
- Melotti, V. (1993). L'adolescenza: un'analisi antropologica. In: R. Brancalenti (Ed). *L'adolescenza: gli anni difficili* (pp. 11-20). Napoli: Alfredo Guida Editore.
- Melucci, A (1992). L'ascolto del disagio quotidiano dei giovani. In: S.M.G. Adamo & P. Valerio (Eds). *Servizi Psicologici per studenti universitari: percorsi e metodologie a confronto*, Quaderni di Counselling Psicodinamico per Studenti Universitari, 1, 1 (pp. 17-23), Suppl. Riv. Diritto allo studio, Scafati: Industria Grafica Giglio.
- Mizokawa, D.T., & Ryckman, D.B. (1990). Attributions of academic success and failure: A comparison of six Asian-American ethnic groups. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 21, 4, 434-451.
- Minuchin, S. (1974). *Families and Family Therapy*. Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.
- Newgarten, B. L., Havinghurst, R. J. & Tobin, S. S. (1961). The measurement of life satisfaction. *Journal of Gerontology*, 31, 134-143.
- Niemi, T. (1988). Problems among students seeking mental health care. *College Health*, 36, 353-354.
- Noonan, E. (1993, April). *The student as a person*. Paper presented at the Irtac Conference on student counselling in higher education, University Bordeaux II, France.
- Noonan, E. (1988). The impact of institution on psychotherapy. In: R. May (Ed.), *Psychoanalytic psychotherapy in a college context* (pp. 57-100). New York: Praeger.
- Offer, D. & Spiro R.D. (1987). The disturbed adolescent goes to college. *Journal of American College Health*, 35, 209-214.
- Patsis, H.S. (1981). *Paedeia, agogi kai morfosi stin archaia Athina*. [In Greek] [Paedeia, education and learning in ancient Athens]. Article in the New Big Hellenic Encyclopaedia. Athens: Patsis Publishing Co.
- Paulhus, D. L. (1983). Sphere-specific measures of perceived control. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 44, 1253-1265.
- Pavlov, I.P. (1951-1952). *Complete works* (2nd edition). Moscow: USSR Academy of Sciences (in Russian).
- Peplau, L. A. & Perlman, D. (1979). Blueprint for a social psychological theory of loneliness. In M. Cook and G. Wilson (Eds.), *Love and attraction: Proceeding of an international conference* (pp. 99-108). Oxford, England, Pergamon.
- Peplau, L. A., Miceli, M., & Morasch, B. (1982). Loneliness and self-evaluation. In L. A. Peplau and D. Perlman (Eds.), *Loneliness: A sourcebook of current*

- theory, research, and therapy*. New York, NY: Wiley.
- Peplau, L. A., Russell, D., & Heim, M. (1979). The experience of loneliness. In I. H. Frieze, D. Bar-Tal, & J. S. Carroll (Eds.). *New approaches to social problems: Applications of attribution theory* (pp. 53-78). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Perls, F.S., Hefferline, R.F., & Goodman, P. (1985). *Gestalt-Therapie, Wiederbelebung des Selbst* (3rd ed.). Stuttgart: Klett-Cotta. Original edition (1951): *Gestalt therapy, excitement and growth in the human personality*, New York: The Julian Press.
- Phalet, K., & Claeys, W. (1993). A comparative study of Turkish and Belgian Youth. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 24, 3, 319-343.
- Piaget, J. (1972). *Erkenntnistheorie der Wissenschaften vom Menschen*. Frankfurt/M: Ullstein, Berlin, Wien. Original edition (1970): *Tendances principales de la recherche dans les sciences sociales et humaines - Partie I: Sciences sociales*, edited by the UNESCO. Paris: Mouton.
- Piaget, J. (1975a). *Das Erwachen der Intelligenz beim Kinde*. Gesammelte Werke 1 Studienausgabe. Stuttgart: Ernst Klett Verlag. Original edition (1959): *La naissance de l'intelligence chez l'enfant*. Neuchâtel: Delachaux et Niestlé.
- Piaget, J. (1975b). *Der Aufbau der Wirklichkeit beim Kinde*. Gesammelte Werke 2 Studienausgabe, Stuttgart: Ernst Klett Verlag. Original edition (1950): *La construction du réel chez l'enfant*. Neuchâtel: Delachaux et Niestlé.
- Piaget, J. (1975c). *Nachahmung, Spiel und Traum, Die Entwicklung der Symbolfunktion beim Kinde*. Gesammelte Werke 5 Studienausgabe. Stuttgart: Ernst Klett Verlag. Original Edition (1959): *La formation du symbole chez l'enfant - imitation, jeu et rêve - image et représentation*. Neuchâtel: Delachaux et Niestlé.
- Piaget, J. (1975d). *Die Entwicklung des Erkennens I - Das mathematische Denken*. Gesammelte Werke 8 Studienausgabe. Stuttgart: Ernst Klett Verlag. Original edition (1950): *Introduction à l'épistomologie génétique, tome I: La pensée mathématique*. Paris: Presses Universitaires de France.
- Piaget, J. (1975e). *Die Entwicklung des Erkennens II - Das physikalische Denken*. Gesammelte Werke 9 Studienausgabe. Stuttgart: Ernst Klett Verlag. Original edition (1950): *Introduction à l'épistomologie génétique tome II: La pensée physique*. Paris: Presses Universitaires de France.
- Piaget, J. (1975f). *Die Entwicklung des Erkennens III - Das biologische Denken, das psychologische Denken, das soziologische Denken*. Gesammelte Werke 10 Studienausgabe. Stuttgart: Ernst Klett Verlag. Original edition (1950): *Introduction à l'épistomologie génétique, tome III: La pensée biologique, la pensée psychologique et la pensée sociologique*. Paris: Presses

Universitaires de France.

- Pines, M. (1996). From patriarchy to partnership in psychotherapy. In Georgas, J., Manthouli, M., Besevegis, E., & Kokkevi, A. (Eds.) *Contemporary Psychology in Europe: Theory, Research, and Application*, Proceedings of the IVth European Congress of Psychology (pp. 378-385). Seattle, Toronto, Göttingen, Bern: Hogrefe & Huber Publishers.
- Potocnik, R. (1990). *Entscheidungstraining zur Berufs- und Studienwahl, Theorie - Konzeption - Evaluierung, Trainingsmanual*. Bern, Stuttgart, Toronto: Verlag Hans Huber.
- Rabkin, J. G. (1972). Opinions about mental illness: A review of the literature *Psychological Bulletin*, 77(3), 153-171.
- Reinert, G. & Wittling, W. (1980). Klinische Psychologie, Konzepte und Tendenzen. In Werner Wittling (Ed.) (1980) *Handbuch der Klinischen Psychologie Vol.I: Methoden der klinisch-psychologischen Diagnostik* (pp. 14-80), Hamburg: Hoffmann und Campe.
- Rickenson, B. (1994). *An integrated approach to student retention*. Paper presented at the Barcelona Conference.
- Rider, L. H. (1975). Leader behaviour, locus of control and consultation effectiveness of school psychologists. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 35, 8A, 5135.
- Rimmer, G.D., Halikas, J.A., Schuchit, M.A., & McClure, J.N. (1978). A systematic study of psychiatric illness in Freshmen college students. *Comprehensive Psychiatry*, 19(3), 249-251.
- Rogers, C. R. (1951). *Client-Centered Therapy: Its Current Practice, Implications, and Theory*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Rogers, C. R. (1976). *Entwicklung der Persönlichkeit - Psychotherapie aus der Sicht eines Therapeuten*. Stuttgart: Ernst Klett Verlag. Original Edition (1961) *On becoming a Person. A Therapist's View of Psychotherapy*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Rogers, C.R. (1987). *Der Neue Mensch*. (3rd ed.). Stuttgart: Klett-Cotta. Original edition (1980): *A way of being*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Rothblum, E.D., Solomon, L.J., & Murakami, J. (1986). Affective, cognitive and behavioral differences between high and low procrastinators. *Journal of Counselling Psychology*, 33, 387-394.
- Rott, G. & Wickel, W. (1996). Student counselling in Germany: An overview. In *International Journal for the Advancement of Counselling* 18: 1-18. Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Rott, G. (1986). Challenges to the Counsellor in a Changing World - the Impact of Environmental Changes in Universities on the Concepts of Student

- Counselling. In *International Journal for the Advancement of Counselling* 9: 237-249. Netherlands: Martinus Nijhoff Publishers, Dordrecht.
- Rott, G. (1991). Counselling concepts and methods: The development of professionalism in guidance and counselling at European universities. In Hochschulrektorenkonferenz (Ed.) *Ein Jahr davor: Studieren in Europa* (Vol. 72, pp. 91-104). Bonn/Berlin: Dokumente zur Hochschulreform.
- Rott, G. (1993). The focus of FEDORA-PSYCHE: the work with the student as a person, *FEDORA Newsletter*, June, 2-3.
- Rott, G. (1994). The contribution of psychological counselling and psychotherapy to higher education at European universities. In FEDORA (Ed.), *Report of the 5th congress: New challenges for guidance in Europe, the present and the future - Barcelona 27-30/IV/1994* (pp.47-60). Louvain-la-Neuve.
- Rott, G. (1996). Interaction between emotion, cognition and behaviour as a focus for Higher Education and in student counselling. In J. Georgas, M. Manthouli, E. Besevegis, & A. Kokkevi (Eds.). *Contemporary psychology in Europe: Theory, research, and application. Proceedings of the IVth European Congress in Psychology*. Göttingen: Hogrefe & Huber Publishers.
- Rott, G. (1996). Psychologische Studierendenberatung im Europäischen Vergleich; Schnittflächen zur allgemeinen Studienberatung. In *Symposium, Studentenberatung in Österreich 28.-29.9.1995* (pp. 59-69). Wien: Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft, Verkehr und Kunst.
- Ryan, R.M. & Lynch, J.H. (1989). Emotional autonomy versus detachment: Revisiting the vicissitudes of adolescence and young adulthood. *Child Development*, 60, 340-356.
- Ryans, D. G. (1963). Assessment of teacher behavior and instruction. *Review of Educational Research*, 33, 415-441.
- Rückert, H-W. (1994). Wann, wenn nicht jetzt? Über das Aufschieben. In H. Knigge-Illner, & O. Kruse (Eds.), *Studieren mit Lust und Methode, neue Gruppenkonzepte für Beratung und Lehre* (pp. 119-143). Weinheim: Deutscher Studien Verlag.
- Russell, D., Peplau, L. A., & Cutrona, C. E. (1980). The Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale: Concurrent and discriminant validity evidence. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 39, 472-480.
- Sahikian, W.S. (1976). *Psychotherapy and Counselling, Techniques in Intervention* (2nd ed.). Chicago: Rand Mc Nally College Publishing Company.
- Salzberger Wittenberg, I., Henry Polacco, G., & Osborne, E. (1983). *The emotional experience of learning and teaching*. London: Routledge and Kegan.

- Sarafins, E.P. (1990). *Health Psychology: Biopsychosocial interactions*. New York: Wiley.
- Satir, V. (1972). *People making*. Palo Alto, CA: Science & Behaviour Books Inc.
- Schmidt, L. R. (1978). Klinische Psychologie - Definitionen, Tätigkeitsfelder, Geschichte, Ausbildung und berufsständische Situation. In Schmidt, L. R., *Lehrbuch der klinischen Psychologie* (pp. 3-28). Stuttgart: Ferdinand Enke Verlag.
- Schönpflug, W. (1992a). Applied Psychology-Newcomer with a long Tradition. In *Applied Psychology* (Vol. 42, pp. 5-30). Hove, East Sussex: Erlbaum, Taylor and Francis.
- Schönpflug, W. (1992b). Practical and Theoretical Psychology: Singles with Wedding Rings? In *Applied Psychology* (Vol. 42, pp. 58-66). Hove, East Sussex: Erlbaum, Taylor and Francis.
- Schulte, D. (1993). Wie soll Therapieerfolg gemessen werden? In *Zeitschrift für Klinische Psychologie* (Vol. XXII, 4, pp. 374-393). Göttingen, Bern, Toronto, Seattle: Hogrefe Verlag für Psychologie.
- Schuster, B., Forsterlung, F., & Weiner, B. (1989). Perceiving the causes of success and failure: A cross-cultural examination of attributional concepts. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 20, 2, 191-213.
- Schutz, A. (1954). Concept and theory formation in the social sciences. In *Journal of Philosophy* (Vol. 51, pp. 257-73). Lancaster: Lancaster Press Inc.
- Schwartz, S.H. (1990). Individualism-collectivism: Critique and proposed refinements. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 21, 139-157.
- Semmer, N. (1992). Differentiation between Social Groups: The Case of Basic and Applied Psychology. In *Applied Psychology* (Vol. 42, pp. 40-46). Hove, East Sussex: Erlbaum, Taylor and Francis.
- Sermat, V. (1980). Some situational and personality correlates of loneliness. In J. Hartog, J. R. Audy, & Y. A. Cohen (Eds.). *The anatomy of loneliness* (pp. 305-318). New York: International Universities Press.
- Shiepek, G. (1994). Der systemwissenschaftliche Ansatz in der Klinischen Psychologie. In *Zeitschrift für Klinische Psychologie* (Vol. XXIII, 2, pp. 77-92). Göttingen, Bern, Toronto, Seattle: Hogrefe Verlag für Psychologie.
- Shurka, E. (1983). Attitudes of Israeli Arabs towards the mental illness. *International Journal of Social Psychiatry*, 29, 108.
- Snowman, D. (1977). *Britain and America*. New York: Alfred Knopf.
- Snyder, M. (1974). Self-monitoring of expressive behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 30, 526-537.
- Snyder, M. (1987). *Public appearances, private realities: The psychology of self-monitoring*. New York: W. H. Freeman.

- Sodowsky G.R., Taffe R.C., Gutkin T.B., & Wise S.L. (1994). Development of the Multicultural Counselling Inventory: A Self-Report Measure of Multicultural Competencies. *Journal of Counselling Psychology*, 41, 2, 137-148.
- Solano, C. H. (1989). Loneliness and perceptions of control: General traits versus specific attributions. In M. Hojat & R. Crandall (Eds.). *Loneliness: Theory, research, and applications*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Spitzberg, B. H. & Canary, D. J. (1985). Loneliness and relationally competent communication. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 2, 387-402.
- Stern, D. (1985). *The interpersonal World of the Infant*, Basic Books, Inc.
- Stone, G.L. & Archer J.A., Jr. (1990). College and university counselling centers in the 1990's: Challenges and limits. *Counselling Psychologist*, 18, 539-607.
- Strelau, J. (1983). *Temperament - Personality - Activity*. London: Academic Press.
- Strelau, J. (1987). The concept of temperament in personality research. *European Journal of Personality*, 1, 107-117.
- Strelau, J., & Angleitner, A. (1994). Cross-cultural studies on temperament: Theoretical considerations and empirical studies based on the Pavlovian Temperament Survey (PTS). *Journal of Personality and Individual Differences*, 36, 331-342.
- Strelau, J., Angleitner, A., Bantelmann, J. & Ruch, W. (1990). The Strelau Temperament Inventory-Revised (STI-R): Theoretical considerations and scale development. *European Journal of Personality*, 4, 209-235.
- Sugiman, T. (1992). Applied and Basic Psychology: Towards a Dynamic, Bi-directional Relationship. In *Applied Psychology* (Vol. 42, pp. 39-46). Hove, East Sussex: Erlbaum, Taylor and Francis.
- Tedeshi, G. J., & Willis, F.N. (1993). Attitudes toward counselling among Asian International and native Caucasian students. *Journal of College Student Psychotherapy*, 7(4), 43-54.
- Thomas, G. & Feiler, A. (1988). *Planning for Special Needs*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Triandis, H.C. (1989). The self and social behaviour in differing cultural contexts. *Psychological Review*, 96, 3, 506-520.
- Triandis, H.C. (1994). *Culture and social behaviour*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Triandis, H.C., Bontempo, R., Betancourt, H., Bond, M., Leung, K., Brenes, A., Georgas, J., Hui, C.H., Marin, G., Setiadi, B., Sinha, J.B.P., Verma, J., Spangenberg, J., Touzard, H., & de Montmollin, G. (1986). The measurement of etic aspects of individualism and collectivism across cultures. *Australian Journal of Psychology* 38, 257-267.
- Triandis, H.C., Bontempo, R., Villareal, M.J., Asai, M., & Lucca, N. (1988). Individualism and collectivism: Cross-cultural perspectives on self-ingroup relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 54, 323-338.

- Triandis, H.C., Leung, K., Villareal, M.J., & Clack, F.L. (1985). Allocentric versus idiocentric tendencies: Convergent and discriminant validation. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 19, 395-415.
- Truax, C. B. & Tatum, C. (1966). An extension from the effective psychotherapeutic model to constructive personality change in pre-school children. *Childhood Education*, 42, 456-462.
- Valerio, P. & Adamo, S.M.G. (1995). Psychodynamic Counselling in a university setting: a space for thinking together over emotional problems. *Psychodynamic Counselling*, 1, 4, 576-586.
- Valerio, P. & Giusti, P. (1994). Medical Students' difficulties in continuing their university studies. *Journal of College Students Psychotherapy*, 8, 4, 55-70.
- Valerio, P. (1993). Il Counselling Psicologico per Studenti Universitari. In: R. Fischetti & F. Milano (Eds), *Lo psicoterapeuta ed i suoi sistemi di riferimento impliciti ed espliciti* (pp. 576-590). Quinto di Treviso: Pagus Edizioni.
- Valerio, P., Ciannella, C, Minutillo, L., & Pavone, A. (1992). Indagine Psicosociale sugli studenti iscritti al primo anno della Facoltà di Medicina. In: P. Valerio & S.M.G. Adamo (Eds), *Servizi Psicologici per studenti universitari: percorsi e metodologie a confronto* (pp. 121-153). Quaderni di Counselling Psicodinamico per Studenti Universitari, I, 1, 107-119, Suppl. Riv. "Diritto allo studio". Scafati: Industria Grafica Giglio.
- Viebahn, P. (1990). *Psychologie des studentischen Lernens: ein Entwurf der Hochschulpsychologie, Blickpunkt Hochschuldidaktik Band 88*, Weinheim: Deutscher Studien Verlag.
- von Mayerhauser, R. T. (1992). Applied Dualism: An Old Deception in New Employment. In *Applied Psychology* (Vol. 42, pp. 30-37), Hove, East Sussex: Erlbaum, Taylor and Francis.
- Weiner, B. (1986). *An attributional theory of motivation and emotion*. New York, Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer Verlag.
- Whitaker, A., Johnson, J., Shaffer, D., Rapoport, J.L., & Kalikow, K. (1990). Uncommon troubles in young people: Prevalence estimates of selected psychiatric disorders in a nonreferred adolescent population. *Archives of General Psychiatry*, 47, 487-496.
- Whitman, N., Spendlove, D., & Clarke, C. (1984). *Student Stress: Effects and Solutions*. Ashe-Eric Higher Education Report No. 2. Washington, D.C.: Association for the study of higher education.
- Wilkinson, Toone, & Greer (1983). Medical Students' attitudes to psychiatry at the end of the clinical curriculum. *Psychological Medicine*, 13, 655-658.
- Wundt, W. (1950). *Einführung in die Psychologie*. Bonn: Verlag der Dürrschen Buchhandlung.

- Zakahi, W. R. & Duran, R. L. (1982). All the lonely people: The relationship among loneliness, communicative competence and communication anxiety. *Communication Quarterly*, 30, 202-209.
- Zakahi, W. R. & Duran, R. L. (1985). Loneliness, communicative competence and communication apprehension: Extension and reflection. *Communication Quarterly*, 33, 50-60.
- Zilboorg, G., & Henry, G.W. (1941). *A history of medical psychology*. New York: Norton.
- Zitzow, D. (1984). The College adjustment rating scale. *Journal of College Student Personnel*, March, 160-164.
- Zuckerman, M. (1979). *Sensation seeking: Beyond the optimal level of arousal*. Hillsdale, N.J.: Erlbaum.
- Zwillingmeier, K. (1981). *Stufen des Ich. Bewusstseinsentwicklung der Menschheit in Gesellschaft und Kultur*. Fellbach: Bonz.

FEDORA's publications on Psychological Counselling in Higher Education

1. Bell, E., McDevitt, C., Rott, G., & Valerio, P. (Eds.) (1994). *Psychological Counselling in Higher Education: A European Overview*. Napoli: La Città Del Sole.
2. Rott, G. (1994). The Contribution of Psychological Counselling and Psychotherapy to Higher Education at European Universities. In: FEDORA (Ed.). *Report of the 5th Congress. New Challenges for Guidance in Europe. The Present and the Future* - Barcelona 27-30/IV/1994, Louvain-la-Neuve, 47-60.
3. Conference Papers from The 25th Annual Training Event and Conference, Association for Student Counselling, "Culture and Psyche in Transition: A European Perspective on Student Psychological Health", Brighton: British Association for Counselling - FEDORA.

James Georgas, Marina Mauthoulis,
Elias Besevegis, & Anna Kokkevi (Editors)

Contemporary Psychology In Europe

Theory, Research, and Applications

Proceedings of the
IVth European Congress of Psychology



Hogrefe & Huber Publishers
Seattle • Toronto • Göttingen • Bern

386 pages, softcover, 1996
ISBN 0-88937-158-X
US \$49.00 / DM 69.00

This book represents a distillation of the many streams of current psychology in Europe, in terms of theory, research, and application. The authors of the carefully selected and edited articles are either presidents or the chosen representatives of European psychological associations or societies. Since nearly all major national societies and international subject-specific societies or associations are represented, this book projects the distinctness of European psychology in all its aspects, and gives a panoramic view of current psychology practice and research in today's Europe.

From the contents

The Aristotle Lecture in Psychology — Psychology as a science: Truthful or useful?

Presidential Addresses — Competent to practice in psychology? • Future of psychology as a health care profession

Theory and Research in Psychology — Reflections on the scientific status and perspectives of personality • Stress, emotions and health in critical life transitions • Quality of the environment and quality of life

Applied Psychology — Work and organizational psychology at the crossroads • Teaching students self-regulated learning

Hogrefe & Huber Publishers

Order Form

USA: PO Box 2487 • Kirkland, WA 98083-2487 • ☎ (425) 820-1500 • Fax (425) 823-8324
Germany: Rohrschweg 25 • D-37085 Göttingen • ☎ (+49 551) 49609-0 • Fax (+49 551) 49609-88

Yes, I would like to order ___ Georgas: *Psychology in Europe*
@ US \$49/DM 69 + Postage *\$4/DM5 for 1st book; \$1/DM2 for each add'l book = Total _____

Name / address: _____

[] Check enclosed Credit Card: [] VISA [] MC [] AmEx

Card # _____ Expires _____ Signature _____

Phone _____ Fax _____

For more details on this publication and other books, journals, and psychological texts of Hogrefe & Huber Publishers, please review our Web page at <http://www.hhpub.com>.

«... Both the practical experience and the research reports demonstrate that there is an *intrinsic* relevance to understanding the psychology of students in higher education. The reports also demonstrate their *contributive* relevance for all those who are concerned with decision making in the politics of higher education. This symposium has contributed to the fulfilment of these tasks at an adequate theoretical and practical level. It has helped to define constructively the relation between professional knowledge, scientific knowledge and professional competence (Lunt, 1996) in the field of student counselling on a European scale. We are aware of the fact that our work is a first step which others have to follow. Sometimes first steps are the most important...»



FEDORA is an association for those involved in all aspects of student guidance in institutions of higher education in Europe.

Legally incorporated in Belgium, FEDORA is run by an elected Executive Committee of 12 members - one from each EC member state.

FEDORA PSYCHE

FEDORA-PSYCHE, the Psychological Counselling in Higher Education working group, was established by the Forum Européen de l'Orientation Académique (FEDORA). The work started in 1989 and PSYCHE has collected information from the EU members States about the field of Psychological Counselling. Practitioners feel the need to exchange ideas about special methodological problems, theoretical understanding and to examine their professional practices. PSYCHE's work can be broadened by strong links with other FEDORA work groups where there can be a fruitful integration of ideas and concepts. PSYCHE has a continuous task to promote in academic institutions of all European countries the idea that successful academic learning is not only a process of acquiring knowledge but also implies personal growth and development. A more complex educational environment which is created by the increased opportunity for students to study in European countries rather than their own will facilitate and widen the possibility of personal growth.



9 789603 443117

ISBN 960-344-311-5