Under Stress: The Concerns and Coping Strategies of Teacher Education Students

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How Teacher Education Students Cope with Practicum Concerns

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Abstract

The topic of student teacher stress in the practicum has generated interest across teacher education programs. However, there is very little research on the sources of support students draw on that help them cope with practicum stresses. Of particular interest in this study was seeking data on this issue directly from the students. That is, to represent the students’ perspective. Information was sought from students who undertook two tasks in providing information on their coping. They ranked their five most important sources of support for coping, and they noted the strategies they used to cope with practicum stresses. The critical importance of the student/supervising teacher relationship for student success in the practicum emerged from the students’ reports that seeking support from the teacher was their principal coping strategy. Differences emerged between the most and least stressed students in terms of their reported use of coping strategies. Implications of the findings for teacher education programs are addressed in the discussion.

Introduction

It is inevitable that, along with the rewarding and satisfying aspects of the teaching practicum, student teachers will also encounter a range of stressful experiences. “Teaching is considered to be among the professions in which employees are subject to high levels of stress...and is capable of exposing student teachers to situations that are similarly, if not more stressful than those experienced by practicing teachers” (Black-Branch & Lamont, 1998, p. 183). The novice status of the student teacher is such that the range of stressors with which they must cope will necessarily differ from the stressors that negatively impact on practising teachers. Their dual roles of student and novice teacher require that consideration be given to how students cope in both roles.

Fontana and Abouserie (1993) note that definitions of stress range from simple, single word statements such as ‘tension’ or ‘pressure’ to complex physiological and psychological explanations that are given for responses to certain stimuli. Their own definition refers to the “demand made upon the adaptive capacities of the mind and body, a demand which, if continued beyond the ability of these capacities to respond, leads to the physical and psychological exhaustion and possibly ultimate collapse referred to by Seyle” (Fontana & Abouserie, 1993, p. 261).

The significance of the need to respond to the problem of student teacher stress lies in the evidence that stress affects teacher behaviour and this in turn reduces classroom effectiveness, particularly in relation to effects of lower pupil/teacher rapport, reduced pupil achievement and increased levels of pupil anxiety.

Teacher stress is an enduring, complex problem that has been well documented in the literature, a literature that also proposes ways of managing, or coping with stressors inherent in teaching. More recently, the relationship between student teacher stress and teacher stress is being recognized with statistics to suggest that coping with the stress of teaching needs to be addressed at the preservice stage of a teacher’s career in order to help retain capable teachers who are leaving the profession because they find their work environment too stressful. Black-Branch &
Lamont (1998) report that as few as 50 per cent of teacher trainees enter and remain in the US school system for longer than three years with many leaving to find less-stressful careers. They argue that teacher education programs have at least an ethical, if not a legal and professional responsibility, to provide support for student teachers who are under high levels of stress during their teaching practicum. Student teacher attrition rates were identified as a concern also, in Australian research on stress in the practicum (Murray-Harvey, Slee, Lawson, Silins, Banfield, & Russell, 1999). By understanding the ways students cope with the stresses of learning to teach teacher educators may be better informed about how to assist students to become more resilient teachers.

With regard to the substantially different situated experience of student teachers and practising teachers, it is important to differentiate between the two groups in attempts to make meaningful interpretations of the literature. Therefore, this paper refers primarily to the research on student teacher stress with less reference to research on teacher stress.

The body of research on student stress in the practicum identifies and describes sources of practicum stress and examines differences between students in their experience of stress related to variables such as gender (D'Rozario & Wong, 1996; Morton, Vesco, Williams, & Awender, 1997; Murray-Harvey et al., 1999) and age (Bowers, Eichner & Sacks, 1983; Morton et al., 1997; Murray-Harvey et al., 1999); dispositions, anxiety/depression (Morton et al., 1997); grade-level taught; type and length of the school placement; and, practice-teaching effects (Capel, 1997). Their findings have been based on student data obtained predominantly through questionnaires and surveys. In addition, other researchers have drawn upon data from interviews, narratives, and journal accounts of students’ teaching experiences (Jelinek, 1986; MacDonald, 1993; Sumison & Thomas, 1995).

However, unlike the research on student stress where conclusions have been drawn directly from the student data, the research on how students cope with stress has largely ignored the students’ perspectives. For the most part suggestions for coping have been inferred by drawing connections between the reported stresses and a range of coping strategies that more generally have been found to provide a buffer against the effects of stress. In other words, few studies have sought information directly from students on the strategies actually used to cope with the stresses they encountered in the teaching practice context.

Knowledge of how students cope with practicum stresses would have the benefit of informing teacher education programs of the most effective ways of providing support. So, one aim of this research was to draw upon the coping strategies that teacher education students report and examine these in relation to their perception of stress during the practicum. In addition, recognizing that “responses to potentially stressful situations can vary greatly from individual to individual” (Fontana & Abouserie, 1993, p. 261), it was also of interest to look specifically at the responses of individuals for the ways they coped with practicum stresses.

Effective coping strategies have been found to ameliorate the effects of stress. While little research is available that informs us of what these effective coping strategies are for teacher education students, there is evidence that in-service courses for practising teachers “aimed at improving teachers’ professional skills and competencies to meet the demands of teaching ...(such as) developing professional skills and understanding to identify sources of stress, learning how to deal with the demands of being a teacher, and recognizing and using effective coping strategies and techniques,” were generally more effective than techniques aimed at reducing the experience of stress. (Black-Branch & Lamont (1998, p. 201) Kalker (1984) in the
same context, emphasized that while palliative coping strategies may alleviate symptoms of stress, in order to effectively manage stressful situations teachers should learn to employ cognitive strategies to help them avoid negative self-talk and feelings of helplessness. Both Forman (1982) working with teachers, and Payne and Manning (1990) working with students, report successfully used cognitive restructuring and self-instruction to significantly decrease self-reported stress.

Several writers (Capel, 1997; Elkerton, 1984; Sumison & Thomas, 1995) have suggested a combination of cognitive and palliative strategies in their focus on developing student teachers’ personal coping skills for the self-management of anxiety, including: raising awareness of stress as a common aspect of the practicum experience; providing information on stress management techniques; encouraging students to identify and develop a range of personal coping strategies including self-reflection, lesson planning and rehearsal techniques, and forming support networks. Another area that has received considerable attention is the importance of developing students’ interpersonal relationship skills. The perspective of these authors is generally a self-managing one (Elkerton, 1984; Morton, et al., 1997).

MacDonald (1993) is one author who sought the students’ perspective on ways they coped with practicum stresses. In MacDonald’s study students reported that they coped by using strategies that were categorized as: Communication (e.g. talking to the teacher); Conformity (e.g. fitting in); showing Initiative; Goal-setting; and, Relaxation techniques (e.g. socialising, sports, recreation, meditation). It is clear that students employ both general self-managing strategies such as relaxation and goal-setting, and particular task-handling strategies such as conformity, communication and showing initiative, strategies that are clearly context (practicum) specific.

The students in MacDonald’s (1993) study acknowledged that there would always be external stresses and the key to coping was the ability to control the internal stresses. Interestingly, while these students recognized that they must learn to cope at a personal (self-managing) level, they also suggested strategies at the institutional level, such as use of non-graded rather than graded evaluations, lighter assignment loads, and use of longer practicum placements which would reduce concerns related to the teaching practice.

Morton et al. (1997) also recognize that changes may be enacted at the institutional level as well. Institutional level strategies for reducing stress that have been suggested include: developing an evaluation model over which students have some control to reduce evaluation anxiety (Morton, et al., 1997); training of cooperating teachers to develop a collaborative supervisory style (McJunkin, et al., 1998) and use of non-threatening supervisory and evaluation skills. (Bowers, et al., 1983)

The brief review of the literature to date has left several questions unanswered and these provided the impetus for the research reported in this paper: (1) What strategies do students employ to help them cope with practicum stresses and which of these do they regard as most important? (2) Are some strategies more effective than others in helping students cope with practicum stresses? The term coping strategies is used here to describe the ways that student teachers manage the events or situations they regarded as stressful.
Teacher Education at Flinders University  
At the time of this study Flinders University offered two undergraduate and four graduate-entry Bachelor of Education degrees. The two undergraduate degrees - Junior Primary/Primary and Upper Primary/Lower Secondary were also available as graduate-entry degrees. The specialist Secondary teaching and Special Education degrees were available only to graduate-entry students.

The professional development component of the teacher education program is concentrated into the final two years (four semesters) of the four year undergraduate degree and represents the full B.Ed program for graduate students who enter with a completed university degree. Within this two-year program, the students in this study undertook two 8-week practicum placements. Both placements required full-time commitment of students in schools. The first practicum extended over two weeks in Semester One and six weeks in Semester Two in the same school; the second placement was an eight week block in Semester One of the students’ final year.

The Study  
Students completed the Perceptions of Teaching Survey on two occasions. First, on completion of their first practicum and again after their second, and final teaching block. This questionnaire comprised three sections. The first section reproduced the Survey of Practicum Stresses (SPS). D’Rozario and Wong (1996) developed the SPS to examine areas of stress experienced by first year teacher education students in Singapore. The questionnaire consists of 29 items representing experiences related to the practicum that students may find stressful, for example: managing the class and enforcing discipline; coping with the overall workload; being evaluated by their supervisor; and, fear of failing the practicum. Students’ responses indicate how often the experience may have stressed them on a 5-point Likert scale, where 0 = Not applicable, 1 = Never stressed me, 2 = Stressed me some of the time, 3 = Stressed me most of the time, and 4 = Stressed me all the time. The possible range of responses to the 29 items on the questionnaire was from a minimum score of 29, indicating that the student experienced no stress on any item (score = 1) to a maximum score of 116, indicating that the student was always stressed (score = 4) in relation to every item.

In the second section space was provided for students to answer the question “What coping strategies did you use to cope with any stress that you may have encountered during the practicum?” From analysis of a previous cohort’s responses to the same question, nine broad strategy categories emerged (See Table 1). These were listed in the third section of the survey for students who were asked (in addition to identifying their own coping strategies), to rank the five strategies that were the most important for them. Responses from the same students were obtained for both practicums.
Participants
In total, survey responses for Practicum 1 were obtained from 173 students and for Practicum 2 from 182 students. Undergraduate and Graduate Entry students were reasonably evenly represented in the responses at 53.7 per cent and 46.3 per cent, respectively. The majority of students (73.2%) were female. Students’ school placements ranged across all levels of schooling from Junior Primary through Upper Secondary, and across the Government, Independent and Catholic school sectors in South Australia with approximately 90 per cent of placements in Practicum 1 and 81 per cent of placements in Practicum 2 being in Government schools. Data on stress and coping were not obtained from students who withdrew from the program. Thus, the findings of the research relate only to the students who completed the practicum.

Student Teacher Practicum Coping Strategies
From students’ written responses to the question “What coping strategies did you use to cope with any stress that you may have encountered during the practicum?” their coping strategies were categorized to obtain a picture of the range of strategies that help them cope with practicum stresses. After the first practicum 162 students provided information on their coping strategies; after the second practicum 169 students responded to this request. The categorization of coping strategies included data from both sets of responses.

In addition, students also ranked the five strategies (from a list of nine) that were the most important for them. From these data it was possible to identify which strategies students regarded as the most and least important sources of support.

Stress and Coping
Based on the total SPS stress score for practicum one (which overall was significantly more stressful than practicum two), students with the highest and lowest scores were assigned to one of two groups: high stress or low stress, respectively. The high stress group (n = 16) comprised students whose total stress scores were greater than 70 indicating that they were most of the time or always stressed for over two-thirds of the items. The low stress group comprised students with scores less than 40 indicating that they were never stressed for over two-thirds of the items. As there were 20 students in this group, the 16 least stressed cases were selected to equalize the numbers in each group. The profile of the high stress group depicts a marginal over-representation of older, female, graduate-entry students. The small number in each group did not permit meaningful comparisons.

Identifying the coping strategies of the most and least stressed students had to account for cases in which students who were allocated to high and low stress groups had provided data for both the first and second practicums. When this occurred, the practicum 2 strategies were excluded from the analysis. An examination was made then of the coping strategies of students in the high and low stress groups to detect whether there were any differences between the groups.

Results
Student Teacher Practicum Coping Strategies
The NUD*IST program (QSR, 1994) was employed for qualitative analysis of students’ written comments. Four main categories of coping strategies were identified: Personal, Professional, Social, and Institutional. A number of subcategories were associated with these main categories. Included in Figure 1 are descriptions of the main categories and subcategories, along with descriptions of the specific strategies that formed them.
Personal Coping Strategies

Five specific strategies were identified under the category of Personal coping strategies. Personal coping was represented in:

(1) Cognitive strategies such as positive thinking, setting realistic expectations, pragmatism, and blocking the negative, and included comments like: “I concentrated on the positive aspects more than the negative” and “telling myself that I am not an experienced teacher and cannot expect to perform like one”.

(2) Physical strategies, some of which were active (recreation, sport and general exercise) while others were passive (listening to music, watching TV, reading or simply relaxing or taking “long hot baths” at the end of a day).

(3) Behavioural strategies. These included the reported practice of engaging in routines, like housework, that did not require thought. Eating and drug-taking (e.g. alcohol, tobacco, caffeine) were also behaviours that some students consciously or habitually used: “I coped with stress by having a can of coke and a biscuit at recess times.”

(4) Emotional strategies included use of self-deprecation, a capacity of students to laugh at themselves: “If you make a mistake, like writing a word incorrectly in front of the class, it shows you are human” and trying not to be hard on themselves “I just did the best that I could.”

Finally (5) Rational/Time Organization strategies were identified by students in the way they clearly defined their priorities for work and free time “Having a balance between work and social life” and “On weekends I spent some time not thinking about anything involved with teaching.” Students commonly stressed the importance of making time for themselves during the teaching practicum. Finding the time to relax, either passively or in a physically active way, was a widely reported strategy.

Professional Coping Strategies

Being well prepared for lessons as well as for the general responsibilities associated with life as a school teacher were seen as important strategies in avoiding stress. Three specific Professional coping strategies were identified.

(1) Knowledge of the curriculum and what they were expected to teach and knowing the structure, organisation and culture of the school helped students feel comfortable in that environment.

(2) Use of self-management skills such as preparation, planning and organizational skills were reflected in comments like “I tried to be well organised to prevent a last minute panic. I used detailed lesson plans and programmed the day in detail. On the home front I also tried to be better organised.” Some students used self-reflection “I’m here to learn to be better so I have to face all challenges” while others reported techniques for managing school related problems “Taking deep breaths and counting to ten” and some described teaching strategies “Harassment between students was a problem at times. I developed a few lessons to deal with these problems (role plays etc).”

(3) Professional qualities were classified as strategies where they were clearly adaptive “At least one lesson a week I would plan something I enjoyed as much as the kids e.g. music and drama.” Students generally did not emphasis the role that a sound grasp of the curriculum or an awareness of school organization and culture might have as coping strategies. However, it might be that these are assumed elements of ‘being prepared’.
**Social Coping Strategies**

Turning to family and friends in times of crisis or simply for conversation and reflection was widely reported as a significant coping strategy. Involvement in social events such ‘partying’ and general socialising away from their practicum school were seen by the students as important. Thus, Social coping included

1. Discussion with people who were identified as friends and family: “I never had any stress. I made sure of this by socialising with staff and other students at a cafe after school” and
2. Involvement in social events: “After school socialising, general socialising and partying.”

**Institutional Coping Strategies**

Within this category were human and system-related strategies involving both the School and the University. Considerable emphasis was given to the importance of talking to, and learning from, supervising teachers. Having other student teachers in the school with whom to share experiences was also significant.

1. At the school level, the support of the students’ supervising teacher, other teachers and student teacher peers provided a human contact in times of stress. A system-related school strategy was exemplified by use of non-instructional time that provided ‘breathing space’ in a hectic week.
2. At the University level, the University supervisor provided a human point of contact while contact with the University Teaching Experience Office was identified as a system-related coping strategy

**Coping strategy use**

Table 1 presents percentage responses for 120 students indicating which strategies were the most important, that is, strategies that were ranked either 1 or 2. Also, for each category the ‘not important’ column indicates the percentage for this category that was not ranked as one of the five important strategies.

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For both Practicum 1 and Practicum 2 the most important strategy (coping resource) was regarded by students as their supervising teacher. Student responses highlighted the supportive role of the teacher: In the main responses focussed on the opportunity to “debrief with the teacher” and “talk through problems”, comments that reinforce the qualitative statements reported earlier.

The greatest variation between the practicums was the increased importance in Practicum 2 of the support from the university supervisor. This change is likely to be a reflection of the much closer working relationship established between the university supervisor and students in the on-campus preparation for Practicum 2. Of note also is the reduced need for support in terms of Behaviour Management strategies in Practicum 2. Detailed analysis of behaviour management issues was not covered prior to the Practicum 1 placement but was a major study component for all students before they undertook Practicum 2.

Overall, there is considerable continuity from one practicum to the next in relation to coping with support from the classroom teacher identified as the most significant source. Such a finding would highlight the importance of students establishing an effective working relationship with their teaching supervisor. This raises the issue of how much emphasis is given in the teacher
education program to communicating the significance of the practicum relationship to the supervising teacher. The other strategies that clustered more closely in terms of importance were generally considered by far fewer students than was support from the classroom teacher.

**Coping strategy differences between high and low stress student groups**

In terms of the four main categories of strategies identified in the study - Personal, Professional, Social, and Institutional, differences between the high and low stress groups were located within the Personal, Professional and Institutional categories. The specific Personal strategies that differentiated between the groups were the cognitive strategies (e.g., positive self-talk, having realistic expectations) used by students in the low stress group that were largely absent in high stress students’ reports. Within the Institutional category, the use by low stress students of support available in the school - principally talking to the staff, was clearly evident. The coping strategies of high stress students were more often classified within the Social category indicating that these students sought support from a network of family and friends outside the school. Within the Professional category, the strategy of Reflection was reported more often by low stress students. The differences in strategy use between the two groups are presented graphically in Figure 2.

As a group, high and low stress students generally reported the same range of strategies. That is, there was little variation at the group level between the types of strategies used by students. However, at the level of the individual, students in the low stress group articulated a greater number of strategies \( (N = 63; M = 4.9) \) than high stress individuals \( (N = 47; M = 3.6) \). Without interview data it can only be inferred from the frequency of responses that there may be a relationship between greater use of coping strategies and less stress.

Students in the low stress group compared with the high stress group reported talking more to their cooperating teacher and other teachers in the school. Talking to peers, family, and friends was mentioned more by students in the high stress group. Reports of relaxing and sleeping were similar between the groups while socializing and taking time out were mentioned more often by high stress students. There was little difference between the groups with regard to the strategies of being organized and acting on advice.

The two activities that showed marked variation between the groups were the cognitive (mainly self-talk) and reflective practice strategies. The high stress group reported use of these strategies only twice compared to at least nine reports from the low stress group.

**Discussion**

The literature that deals with student teacher stress acknowledges that support for students on practicum is not only a desirable, but an essential component of the teacher education program. While the support of peers, family, friends, and especially the cooperating teacher are recognised as vital sources of support, the teacher education program itself is advocated (Black-Branch & Lamont, 1998) as the principal provider of support for students. In recognition of this role, this study sought student teachers’ views on important sources of support for coping with practicum stresses.
What strategies do students employ to help them cope with practicum stresses and which of these do they regard as most important?

Students’ reported coping strategies point to the importance of social support networks in developing and maintaining coping strategies while on teaching practicum. Such networks may be newly established (in the case of supervising teachers) or existing (such as family and friends). The quality of those strategies, measured against success in the practicum is not clear from the data. However, some issues emerging from the findings have implications for practicum placements. The first is the possibility of social isolation where a student might be the only one placed in a school. For example, in country school placements where there are no family or friends in the area, students could be denied opportunities to draw on effective coping strategies. Secondly, given the importance students placed on being able to talk with other student teachers during their practicum, this suggests that multiple placements in single school would be desirable. Finally, the quality of the supervising teacher emerged as a key component for success in the practicum. This finding is not surprising given that students move from the familiarity of the university setting into the new social and learning environment of the school, one in which they are novices and uninitiated. The supervising teacher is their major point of reference and advice in this new situation. For this reason alone, teachers need to be made aware of the high status granted to them by their students. It behoves the teacher education institution to address the issue as part of the teacher education program.

Among Capel’s (1997) suggestions for alleviating student concerns is a reminder that supervisors also need to take account of the impact of their presence on students. In previous research (Murray-Harvey, et al., 1999), the reduced level of student concern about being observed and evaluated by the supervisor in the second practicum was most likely due to the opportunity provided for a closer relationship to be established between student, the supervisor, and the cooperating teacher. The elevated status of the university supervisor as a source of support in the second practicum reflects this.

Are there differences between high and low stress student groups related to coping strategy use?

Three aspects of coping strategies stand out between the high and low stress groups. First, low stress students report considerably more strategies than high stress students indicating a wider range of behaviours (strategies) at their disposal to cope with the stress they experience. Secondly, the low stress students employ self-reflection and self-talk as strategies much more than the high stress group. This finding supports the research that recommends focussing on cognitions to assist students to effectively manage stress. Finally, while talking was a commonly used strategy to cope with stress, the students who were least stressed indicated that they talked much more to their cooperating teacher and other teachers in the school than students who reported the highest levels of stress.

Why is it the case that higher stressed students are not using the cooperating teacher and/or other teachers as much as less stressed students? After all, students generally (70%) regarded their cooperating teacher as the most important source of support. Perhaps highly stressed students are less willing to talk to their cooperating teachers, or less interpersonally skilled and unable to initiate discussion? Concerns about evaluation of teaching performance may contribute to a student’s reluctance to express feelings of doubt or inadequacy. Conversely, the cooperating teacher may be unwilling to set aside dedicated time to talk to their student or lack the interpersonal skills required to encourage and support discussion; either to listen empathetically or to facilitate reflection. Clearly, the quality of the teacher/student relationship is paramount for a successful practicum experience. The teacher education program can influence this to some extent with support for the development of interpersonal communication skills of teacher
education students. Of importance also is the development of a model of supervision that values relationship-building and guides supervisors to support student reflection.

A cognitive coaching framework that emphasizes reflective thinking, non-judgemental feedback and mutual learning has been reported by Brouillette, Clinard and Ariav (1999). They implemented a mentor-novice model that trains mentor teachers to take a coaching role, showing them how to guide student teachers to do their own thinking. The coaching conversations provided several strategic benefits to student teachers: building trust and rapport between student and teacher; encouraging professional collaboration; engendering feelings of efficacy and confidence; providing specific feedback on teaching; and, most importantly, developing skills in reflective practice including reflection for action (planning), reflection in action (acting mindfully), and reflection on action (reviewing).

The findings of this research show that recognition needs to be given to the strategies used by students who report least stress. They have learnt to think positively, to have realistic expectations of their performance, to be pragmatic, and foremost, to reflect. Support for student teachers should include opportunities to recognise the importance of, and to develop these strategies. The emphasis placed by students on the importance of these strategies suggests that there is a need for teacher education programs to initiate structural changes that go beyond the teaching of content and the hope that the ‘wit and experience’ (Biggs, 1990) of students will ameliorate their concerns.

Acknowledgments.
My thanks go to Grant Banfield who undertook the NUD*IST analysis and provided written comment on the results of this analysis.
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Figure 1. Categorization of Student Teachers’ Practicum Coping Strategies
Table 1. *Importance of Student-Ranked Strategies for Coping with Practicum Stresses (Percentages).*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy &amp; Examples</th>
<th>Practicum 1</th>
<th></th>
<th>Practicum 2</th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Important %</td>
<td>Not Important %</td>
<td>Important %</td>
<td>Not Important %</td>
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<tr>
<td>Supervising Teacher</td>
<td>70.0</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>64.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>(discuss problems, debrief)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Behavior Management</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>39.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>(techniques, skills)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Curriculum Knowledge</td>
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<td>23.3</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>38.3</td>
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<td>20.9</td>
<td>46.7</td>
<td>25.8</td>
<td>42.5</td>
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<td>(support, discuss problems)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Collegial/Peer</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>49.2</td>
<td>19.9</td>
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<td>(share problems, ideas)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Relaxation</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>42.5</td>
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<td>(massage, meditation)</td>
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<td>University Supervisor</td>
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<td>55.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Self-reflection</td>
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<td>67.5</td>
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<td>(self-talk, rationalising)</td>
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<td>Diversions</td>
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<td>87.5</td>
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<td>85.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>(TV, routines, socialising)</td>
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Figure 2. Strategy Use of High and Low Stress Groups.