

**The Impact of Coping Strategies, Test Anxiety and Expectancies on the University
Entrance Trial Exam Scores**

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ABSTRACT

The Impact of Coping Strategies, Test Anxiety and Expectancies on the University Entrance Trial Exam Scores

by

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This study explored the relationship between test anxiety, trait anxiety, coping strategies and the University Entrance Exam (UEE) related variables (perceived importance of the UEE, achievement expectation of self, perceived achievement expectation of mother, father and teacher, trial exam performance).

The sample consisted of 227 students who were preparing for the University Entrance Examination. Lazarus and Folkman's Ways of Coping Scale was used to assess students' coping strategies in dealing with the UEE stress. Results indicated that trait anxiety and test anxiety had no relationship with trial exam score. On the other hand, students who used adaptive coping strategies; i.e. problem-focused coping, support seeking, positive reappraisal and emotional expression coping strategies had higher trial exam scores. Furthermore, achievement expectancy and importance of UEE were both correlated with anxiety, coping strategies and academic performance of the students. Findings pointed out that, coping strategies used by the students were found to be both affected by dispositional characteristics and situation specific responses of the students.

KISA ÖZET

Baş Etme Stratejileri, Sınav kaygısı ve Beklentilerin Öğrenci Seçme (ÖSS) Deneme Sınavı Başarısı Üzerindeki Etkisi

Bu çalışmanın amacı, Öğrenci Seçme Sınavı'na giren öğrencilerin, sınav kaygısı sınav kaygısıyla baş etme yöntemleri, beklentileri, ÖSS'ye verdikleri önem ve deneme sınavı performansları arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmaktır.

Örnekleme, İstanbul'da 5 dershaneye devam eden ve ÖSS'ye hazırlanan 227 öğrenciydi. Öğrencilerin ÖSS sürecinde kullandıkları baş etme mekanizmaları Lazarus ve Folkman's "Baş Etme Yolları" ölçeği ile ölçüldü. Sonuçlar, sürekli kaygı ve test kaygısının deneme sınavı puanları ile bir ilişkisi olmadığını gösterdi. Ancak, problem odaklı baş etme, sosyal destek arayışı, olaya dair olumlu vurgu yapma ve duygusal ifade gibi olumlu ve etkin olarak değerlendirilebilecek baş etme yöntemlerini kullanan öğrencilerin, deneme sınavında daha yüksek başarı gösterdikleri bulundu. Ayrıca, performans beklentisi ve sınava verilen önemin, kaygı, baş etme stratejileri ve akademik performans ile ilişkileri olan değişkenler olduğu saptandı. Sonuçlar, öğrencilerin ÖSS sürecinde kullandıkları baş etme yöntemlerinin, kişilik özelliklerinden ve olaya özgü geliştirilen tutum ve davranışlardan etkilendiğine işaret etmekteydi.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Adolescents experience many stressful life events and they have to deal with many developmental challenges such as physiological changes, development of identity and gender identity, separation from the family, management of social roles with peers and opposite sex. Additionally, academic concerns increase in this period because academic performance in this period is a very important predictor of future career development (Frydenberg & Lewis, 1993). Psychological stress is a significant predictor of mental health of adolescence and coping mechanisms are important moderators of the effects of stress on psychopathology (Gonzales, Tein, Sandler & Friedman, 2001). Moreover, not all individuals challenged by stressful events have psychological problems (Zeidner & Hammer, 1990). The present study attempts to investigate how Turkish adolescents cope with the stress evoked by the preparation for the university entrance exam (UEE). Specifically, importance of UEE, appraisals related to UEE success (expectation and hope), general anxiety levels, general test anxiety level and success in UEE Trial examination was explored to assess the relationship between the UEE stress and coping behaviors used by Turkish adolescents.

1. 1. Stress

Researchers have proposed several approaches to conceptualization and measurement of stress. One approach has focused on environmental stressful events. In this approach, conceptualizations of stress have some differences in their emphasis on the occurrence of major changes in personal life (i.e. death of a loved one, natural disaster, getting a diagnosis of cancer) as well as ongoing daily stressful experiences such as daily hassles and chronic strains (Compas, Orosan, Grant, 1993). According to Compas (1987 b), these heterogeneous events and circumstances may be

investigated along a number of dimensions. These dimensions are; a) degree to which the stressor is normative or atypical, b) magnitude of occurrence, c) acute or chronic in nature.

Major life events are nonnormative events that may have traumatic effect on the individuals. Although major life events rarely occur during individuals' life, these events are perceived as more negative, challenging and threatening than daily hassles (Williams & Lisi, 2000).

Stressful events in an ongoing life (daily hassles) more frequently occur with respect to major life events and relationship between these subtle disruptions of life and adjustment difficulties is stronger than major life events (Sandler, Wolchik, MacKinnon, Ayers and Roosa, 1997, cited in Williams and Lisi, 2000). Caspi, Bolger and Eckenrode (1987) suggested that although most of the stress research investigated the effects of major life events, minor stressors have enduring effects and amplifies the negative effects of major events. Williams & Lisi (2000) criticized previous research on stress because research generally did not identify the differential effects of major life events and daily hassles in their design. However, Williams and Lisi (2000) emphasized that different types and number of stresses have different influences on individuals and these influences vary with respect to age, gender and various personality characteristics.

An alternative approach views stress as a consequence of cognitive appraisal. According to stress-appraisal model, not an environmental event, but a perception of environmental event determines the stress experienced. Stress is not regarded as an environmental stimulus; but it is defined as "the relationship between person and stress" (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). Therefore, it is a psychological experience including both objective and subjective components. According to Coyne and

Lazarus (1980), “stress is considered a balance between demands, which either tax or exceed the resources of person, and capability to deal with effectively with them.” A comprehensive view on stress should include both objective nature of environmental events and conditions and individual’s cognitive appraisals of the environment.

Stressful event may be perceived by the individual as “threat”, in other words individual may appraise the event as a loss (loss of self-esteem, loss of respect of others etc.). Or, stressful event may be perceived as “challenge”; in this situation individual makes positive appraisal of the event (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Lazarus & Folkman (1984) differentiated personal factors and situational factors influencing appraisal of stress. Personal factors include commitments and beliefs. Commitments have both cognitive and motivational-emotional aspects and they are affected by the values, choices and goals of individual and society. In other words, commitments are the things that are “important to the person, meaningful for the person”. Commitments have direct effect on appraisal because they determine the priorities, sensitivity and vulnerabilities of individuals and in this way, guide them within challenging, threatening or valuable, positive situations. The relationship between appraisal and psychological vulnerability is two-edged that is; as the strength of the commitment increases, one’s probability to perceive the event as harmful or threatening also increases. On the other hand, high commitment also may stimulate individuals to spend more effort to deal with an encounter. Furthermore, Janis and Mann (1997, as cited in Folkman and Lazarus 1984) differentiated the private and public nature of commitment. As the number of people who knows about the commitment increase, perceived threat increases. This threat is further alleviated especially when one’s failure in reaching commitment has the capacity to diminish self-esteem. This failure damages self-esteem either by negative self-evaluation or by

arousing social criticism¹. The second individual factor is the beliefs and it includes general beliefs about control (i.e. existential / religious beliefs) and an appraisal of control in a specific context. Both general and specific beliefs influence how a person appraises the event which in turn influence coping activity (Folkman & Lazarus, 1984).

UEE is such a stressor that a student has to commit himself/ herself and has to prepare for UEE for all year. Families also make strong commitments for UEE and they invest psychological and financial resources for their children's success. Although students and families spend much effort, the probability of failure is high because only a small proportion of students applied for UEE will be placed into the universities.

Folkman and Lazarus (1984) categorized situational factors into four groups that are novelty, predictability, event uncertainty and temporal factors. Novelty can be defined as the frequency of individual's confrontation with a specific stressful event. If a person has no previous experience of threat, he/she may appraise the event as less threatening; however if a person's physical or mental health was threatened by the event previously, he/she appraises the event as threatening. Folkman and Lazarus (1984) added that previous connection doesn't need to be direct; individuals live in a society and they may have read, seen or heard about it. For example, conversation with friends may cause the individual to connect the event with threat. On the other hand, when the person was confronted by the event previously, he/she may have more opportunity to develop specific coping skills and he/she may have some coping repertoire and in the second encounter, he/she may have opportunity to use this previously learned coping behaviors.

Folkman and Lazarus were also concerned with the “immobilizing effect of event uncertainty on anticipatory coping processes”. If a person can not decide how to act, he/she experiences fear, engages in rumination and worries. Ambiguity about “the nature of an event, timing of an event and the likelihood of its occurrence”, has complex relationship with an appraisal and coping of an individual (Folkman and Lazarus, 1984).

Other important situational factors are defined as temporal factors and they include imminence, duration and temporal uncertainty. Imminence is defined as time passed before the event. As imminence increases, the intensity of appraisal increases. Research (Breznitz, 1971, Janis and Mann, 1977; cited in Folkman and Lazarus, 1984) showed that, longer time intervals can lead to increased threat. This further threat caused by person’s process of involvement incubates with time. However, Folkman and Lazarus added that, high imminence also provides greater opportunity to reevaluate the situation or to develop better coping strategies. In those cases, high imminence may result in lesser stress reactions. They concluded that, different patterns of coping could be used when imminence is high. There is linear relationship between imminence and anxiety regarding challenge appraisals; however, there is curvilinear relationship between imminence and threat appraisals. Duration is referred to how long individual experiences stressful event. Although chronic stressors generally lead to exhaustion or fatigue, sometimes the person habituates to the situation due to long exposure, and this habituation may lead to diminished stress response (Folkman and Lazarus, 1984).

Timing of events in relation to other stressful events is other important factor that has influence on individual’s reactions to stressful events. Finally, individuals’

reaction to stress varies with respect to the life cycle of an individual (Folkman & Lazarus, 1984).

'UEE is a stressful event that has high imminence; students prepare for UEE at least for one year. Some students attend private preparation courses during high school. Although temporally there is no uncertainty (i.e. all students know the exact time of UEE), outcome of UEE is ambiguous for all students. UEE outcome is dependent on many factors and some of these factors are independent of the student's performance. Finally, students who apply for UEE are in adolescence, a risky developmental period in which identity and self-esteem develop.'

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) view personal and situational variables as interdependent. They point out that, both factors can not be discussed without reference to the other.

1. 2. Adolescent Stress:

Adolescence is one of the most important of life transitions. The importance of life transitions was pointed out by Compas, Wagner, Slavin and Vannatta (1986) who described life transitions as periods of vulnerability to stressful events.

Adolescents experience many changes, losses and their prior life structure was disrupted with the adolescence. They face with many new issues such as separation from the family, relationship building with the opposite sex, sexual development, career planning. These challenges make their adjustment more difficult (Williams & Lisi, 2000).

All adolescents experience stress evoked by strains of adolescence, however some adolescents are also exposed to severe acute stress such as death of a parent, disasters, serious injuries or severe chronic stress such as exposure to poverty, familial violence or parental psychopathology. It should be noted that these

categories are not mutually exclusive, some acute stressful events may also create ongoing stressful circumstances. For example, death of a parent may result in economic hardship of the family (Compas, Orosan & Grant, 1993).

Research on adolescent stress and psychopathology showed that adolescent stress predicted psychological distress or psychopathology after initial symptoms were controlled (Cohen et al., 1987; Hammen et al., 1991). Additionally, children and adolescents who are challenged by stressful events have higher levels of internalizing and externalizing problems (Hammen et al, 1991; DuBois et al, 1992; Stanger et al, 1992). Compas, Orosan and Grant (1993) added that only a small proportion of amount of variance in maladjustment was explained by stress, indicating that there are other mediating factors between stress and maladjustment.

There are developmental differences in types and magnitude of stress individuals experience. For example, Wagner and Compas (1990) found that, in early adolescence, family events were predictors of emotional or behavioral problems; however, peer events in middle adolescence, academic events in late adolescence had stronger association with emotional or behavioral problems. Gender differences were also found between magnitude and subtypes of stress. Peterson and colleagues (1991) reported that adolescent girls experienced more challenging and stressful events than adolescent boys and differences in depressed mood was explained with difference in perceived stress. Furthermore, when stressful events were asked, young adolescent girls reported more events related with family, peer, intimacy and social networks than boys and they perceived more stress with regard to these events than boys (Wagner & Compas, 1990).

Academic stress is one of the most important stressors of adolescents. Especially after primary school, students encounter with many evaluative situations

and they were selected for high schools or universities by examinations. These examinations may be regarded as major life events by which their future career will be drawn. University Entrance Examinations are regarded as stressful events and research indicated that students who are prepared for UEE had higher levels of anxiety and psychological symptoms (Özdemir, 2002, Toprak, 1992, Çankaya, 1997, Ayşan, Thompson and Hamarat, 2001).

1. 3. Coping:

Lazarus and his colleagues developed the most accepted view of stress and coping over a number of years. Within this theory, coping was defined as “cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external/internal demands that are appraised as taxing and or exceeding the resources of person” (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 141). According to Folkman and Lazarus (1985) coping efforts may intend to master, reduce or tolerate the situation or stress evoked by the situation.

Cognitive appraisal includes two processes; primary and secondary appraisals. Through primary appraisal, individual first makes judgments about the situation or event, and decides whether it is “irrelevant, benign-positive or stressful”. Stressful appraisals are characterized by threat; challenge which may refer potential for growth or gain; harm and loss to a friendship, health or self-esteem. In secondary appraisal, individual evaluates his/her coping resources and tries to find ways to deal with stressful situation. Primary and secondary appraisal processes work interdependently; in other words, if individual perceives that his/her coping resources exceed the demands of stressful situation, he/she perceives less threat. On the other hand, even if an event is perceived as nonthreatening in the first place, if individual perceives that his/her coping resources are not adequate for dealing with that threat,

secondary appraisal may result in individual's perception of an event as threatening (Folkman and Lazarus, 1985).

Stewart & Schwarzer (1995) asserted that coping strategies can be classified according to their purpose, meaning or functional value. Because factor analysis of strategies results in different categories for different samples and for different stressful encounters; it could not be reached to one kind of grouping; different researchers used different kind of set of dimensions. Some researchers ended with two basic similar groupings such as; instrumental/ attentive/ vigilant strategies and avoidant / palliative/ emotional coping.

Krohne (1993, cited in Stewart & Schwarzer, 1995) suggested that "level within a hierarchy of coping concepts" is also an important issue; behavioral and conceptual levels of coping should be differentiated. According to Krohne (1993) there are three levels in hierarchy; at the bottom level, there are acts or reactions which can be regarded as single behavioral elements such as specific problem solving behavior (for example; talking with a teacher about academic failure). At the conceptual level, particular strategy composed of specific acts may be defined. For example using social support may be included this level. At the higher hierarchy, "orthogonal dimensions of attention orientation" such as, vigilance or cognitive avoidance was found. Krohne (1993) suggested that this level is similar to personality dimension.

Brandstadter (1992, cited in Stewart & Schwarzer, 1995) used another kind of conceptual distinction; assimilative and accommodative coping. Assimilative coping aims to change/ adjust / modify the environment according to the needs of the person, accommodative coping aims to change/ adjust / modify the self according to the environmental demands.

A well-known approach was suggested by Folkman and Lazarus (1985). According to authors; coping has two major functions, defining two major coping strategies; first one is the regulation of distressing emotions, which is called emotion-focused coping. Second strategy includes efforts to do something to change the stressful situation, which is called problem-focused coping (Folkman and Lazarus, 1985). Stewart & Schwarzer (1995) made similar category analysis of Folkman and Lazarus' model and asserted that, problem-focused coping may be regarded as action-centered, emotion-focused coping may be regarded as cognitive coping. Folkman (1984) suggested that problem-focused coping was used more frequently in situations that are perceived as changeable or controllable; however, emotion-focused coping was used more frequently in situations that are perceived as unchangeable and uncontrollable.

Endler and Parker (1991), classified coping strategies into three; task-oriented, emotion-oriented and avoidance. Individuals may cope either by task orientation (taking action, planning, seeking information about the problem, etc.), or by emotion-orientation (also called person orientation) (emotion regulation, seeking social support, praying, etc.) or by avoidance (engaging in irrelevant task, avoidance of other etc.). The task-oriented and emotion-oriented strategies corresponds to the problem-focused and emotional-focused strategies, respectively, defined by Lazarus and Folkman.

Theory and research on coping differentiated dispositional coping and situational coping. Dispositional coping is a "style", which refers individual's tendency to cope in a particular way across different kinds of stressful contexts. Situational coping refers to a set of coping responses in a specific stressful encounter. People vary their coping responses according to the type of challenging situations.

However, people acquire general coping style and this style influences their coping responses in new situations. Indeed, low to moderate correlations between dispositional and situational coping was found (Carver et al., 1989). Similarly, Endler, Kontor and Parker (1994) reported moderate relationship between coping styles and situation specific coping responses. They investigated the anxiety and coping of the students taking an exam and found that 25% of the variance of situation specific coping response was explained by coping style.

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) pointed out that challenge and threat appraisals evoke different coping reactions. They defined challenge as a “stressful appraisal in which gain opportunity dominates but also includes some sense of risk”. Therefore, they concluded that vigilant coping pattern occurs in challenge appraisals; however, threat appraisals elicit more complex strategies, including both avoidant and vigilant strategies.

Despite there are many types of classification, it should be noted that some coping strategies can not be categorized or classification can be change with respect to the situation. For example, depending on the nature of social support, support seeking may be regarded as emotion-focused coping or problem focused coping (Compas, Malcarne & Fondacaro, 1988).

Although some coping strategies may be seen as conflicting with each other, empirical evidence suggested relationships between each other. For example, Nolen-Hoeksema & Morrow (1991) and Eshun, Chang and Owusu (1998) reported that problem-solving strategy and distraction strategy was positively related. In other words, “people who engage in active, adaptive distractions also tend to take an efficacious, problem-solving approach to their moods”.

Folkman and Lazarus (1985) asserted that coping is a dynamic, unfolding process. Seiffge-Krenke (1993), analyzed coping behavior in two different categories; coping after stressful event occurred and anticipatory coping. Similarly, Stewart & Schwarzer (1995) emphasized that stressful events have stages and people may use different strategies in those stages and they classified those stages into three; preparation stage, confrontation stage, and recovery stage. Stewart and Schwarzer (1993) suggested that one coping strategy in one stage may not be effective / successful / adaptive in another stage. Therefore, it is important to identify stages of stressful encounters and specific coping strategies used in those stages.

Studies on relationship between test anxiety and coping emphasize the dynamic nature of coping with test anxiety because, exams are stressful encounters having some imminence (preparation period), some duration (for ex: mid term exam period in undergraduate) and some post-exam period (i.e. waiting for the announcement of results) and students experience and respond to all these three stages differently (Folkman and Lazarus, 1985).

In a study with college students, Folkman and Lazarus (1985), assessed emotions and coping strategies of student at three stages of a midterm examination, before the exam, after the exam, and before the announcement of grades. They concluded that, there were significant differences in emotional states and coping between stages. Secondly, coping is a complex process in which individuals used combinations of different coping strategies at every stage of the exam. For example, students used most frequently problem-focused coping, seeking social support, and emphasizing the positive in anticipation stage; however, they generally used distancing and wishful thinking during the latter stages. The authors suggested that, problem-focused coping strategy was the most functional one during the anticipatory

stage because it served to motivate the student to study for the exam. However, after the exam, emotion-focused strategy was used more because student had nothing to do to change the outcome of the exam. Furthermore, there was a negative relationship between coping and grades; students who have higher grades had poorer coping (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985).

Lay et al., (1989) investigated the relationship between state anxiety and coping at three stage of the exam and found positive association between state anxiety and emotion-focused coping with exam. Their data indicated no relationship between state anxiety and problem-focused coping with exam.

Folkman and Lazarus (1985) suggested that different coping strategies might also affect each other. For example, one type of emotion focused coping, that is emphasizing positive aspects of stressful situation facilitates problem focused coping. However some forms of emotion-focused coping such as wishful thinking may impede problem-focused coping.

Coping strategies are generally defined as functional or dysfunctional. According to Seiffge-Krenke (1993), functional coping includes active coping and internal coping that contains behaviors such as information seeking, taking advice, changing appraisal of situation. Functional coping aims to deal with the problem by support seeking, by taking action or by reflecting on possible solutions. On the other hand, withdrawal is regarded as dysfunctional coping and includes defenses such as denial, avoidance or repression, or taking fatalistic attitude (Seiffge-Krenke, 1993). However, Hauser and Bowlds (1990, cited in Frydenberg & Lewis, 1993) pointed out that, all non-productive strategies can not be intrinsically dysfunctional because coping should be regarded as individual's attempt to adapt to a situation. Therefore,

according to Hauser and Bowlds (1990, cited in Frydenberg & Lewis, 1993), coping can be conceptualized as problem solving and emotion-regulation.

Coping strategies may be functional or dysfunctional according to the type of the stressful events. Lohman and Jarvis (2000) reported that, when the stressful event was perceived as controllable, acceptance coping (accepting the stressful event and developing tolerance) was dysfunctional, (i.e. positively related with psychological health symptoms), however when the stressful event was perceived as uncontrollable, acceptance coping was functional.

Most studies on coping assessed coping strategies through asking adolescents their typical response to a global stressful event. These studies have been criticized because they ignore the breadth of coping strategies that individuals may use in everyday life (Williams and Lisi, 2000).

1. 3. 1. Adolescent Coping:

Adolescents use different coping strategies for different stressful encounters. Seiffge-Krenke (1993) reported that when adolescents experienced problems with parents, they generally used emotion-focused coping strategies or sought social support from their peers. However, if the problem was related with friends, they focused on their relationship and tried to deal with the problem by discussing the problem with those friends.

As previously mentioned, coping has a mediating effect between stress and psychological adjustment. This relationship was also found for adolescents. Ebata and Moos (1991) reported that adolescents who use more approach and less avoidance coping had better adjustment. Gonzales, Tein, Sandler and Friedman (2001) found negative relationship between active coping and depression; negative relationship between distraction and conduct problems and depression. However

these relationship decreased when level of stress increased. When adolescents were exposed to high level of stress, coping style did not influence on depression levels. Different pattern was found for avoidance coping; at low level of family stress, adolescents who used avoidance had more conduct problems; however, at high level of family stress, adolescents who used avoidance had fewer conduct problems. Gonzales, Tein, Sandler & Friedman (2001) also emphasized the main and buffering effect of coping on psychological adjustment. They reported that active coping has main effect on conduct problems of adolescents; adolescents who use active coping strategies had lower conduct problems. Additionally, for girls, active coping has buffering effect for the relationship between family stress and conduct problems. In other words, for girls who used more active coping, relationship between family stress and conduct problems were lower than the girls who used less active coping. Authors suggested that at high levels of stress, coping has no effect on psychological symptoms, and this finding was most consistent for boys.

Rice, Herman and Petersen (1993) suggested that coping style is important not only because it mediates the relationship between stress and psychological adjustment; but it also influences the social support of an individual. In other words, some coping responses such as use of alcohol, denial may negatively influence adolescents' interpersonal relationships, which in turn decrease availability of social support.

Seiffge-Krenke (1993) also compared coping behavior of clinical and non-clinical adolescents and found that clinical and non-clinical adolescents had similar higher scores on active and internal coping (functional coping). Difference was found in dysfunctional coping (i.e. withdrawal); non-clinical adolescents use

dysfunctional coping rarely and only for some types of problems; however clinical adolescents use dysfunctional coping strategies more.

1. 3. .2. Development of coping strategies:

There are developmental changes and stabilities in coping strategies.

Williams and Lisi (2000) summarized aspects of cognitive development that are cited as sources of developmental change in coping. These include improvement in making inferences about internal states, learning through observation of others, improvement in awareness of different coping strategies, increasing cognitive complexity and maturity, increasing in empathy and perspective taking ability, increased meta-cognitive awareness and improvement in regulation of emotions, of situations, and of emotion-driven behaviors. In addition to cognitive changes, social environment changes during adolescence and these changes also may result in changes in the types of coping strategies used. In fact, there are differences in specific life demands and the nature of social relationships and social supports between different phases of adolescence (Williams and Lisi, 2000). For example, Boekaerts (1995, cited in Williams and Lisi, 2000) reported that youngest adolescents use social support less than older adolescents because younger adolescents have less peer support due to the fact that peer relationships in this period are often a source of stress rather than a resource.

Altshuler and Ruble (1989) made one developmental analysis of coping strategies. They suggested that, although behavioral distraction strategies (i.e., doing something else, watching TV) were used by all subjects, younger children used cognitive distraction strategies (i.e., thinking about something) less than older children did. Additionally, younger children used escape strategies (i.e. leaving the situation, sleeping) more than older children. They concluded that management of

emotions by mental means developed with age. Altshuler and Suble (1989) argued that developmental difference in usage of cognitive distraction methods can be explained by either developmental difference in metacognition or the intensity of emotional arousal. Children may experience more emotional arousal, which in turn distract their cognitive efforts. In other words, behavioral distraction or escape methods may be “regression in coping” as a response to anxiety-arousal (Altshuler & Ruble, 1989). Increase in cognitive strategies may increase flexibility in coping. Flexibility in coping was regarded as necessary in adaptation to stress (Compas, 1987).

Development in coping strategies reflect both qualitative and quantitative changes. Older adolescents reported more usage of coping strategies than younger adolescents (William and Lisi, 2000). Recent evidence suggested that, emotion-focused coping increases with age. However, there is stability in problem-focused coping from childhood to adulthood. Findings indicate that both emotional-focused and dual-focused coping (i.e. strategies that are classified as both problem-focused and emotion-focused) increased from childhood to adolescence, however there is no change between adolescence and adulthood. Increase in emotional-focused coping was not due to changes in perceived control over the stressor because perceived internal and external control did not change with age. This developmental difference between emotional-focused and problem focused coping was explained by difference in degree to which these coping skills were observable. Problem-focused coping involve more observable behaviors therefore, children may acquire these behaviors more easily through observational learning. However, emotional-focused coping involve cognitive or emotional processes that are covert and children acquire these skills through direct instruction or their experiences. Development of dual-focused

coping strategies is also slower because it requires use of more complex strategies intending to achieve multiple goals (Compas et al., 1993).

Similarly, Band (1990) reported that younger children used more instrumental (similar to problem solving) and social-emotional coping (similar to support seeking) than older children and adolescents. In conclusion, adolescents acquire new coping strategies that increase the flexibility and range of responses to stress and this development results in more adaptive outcomes.

1. 3. 3. Gender Differences in Coping:

Research suggest important gender differences in coping strategies. Female adolescents are more likely to use a broad range of coping strategies, use more social support and are more likely to increase their interpersonal involvement. However, male adolescents are more likely to use ventilation strategies, humor and physical recreation or they use self-control by engaging in passive diversions, ignoring the problem or suppressing their reaction (Williams & Lisi, 2000). Frydenberg and Lewis (1993) reported that female adolescents use seeking social support, wishful thinking and tension reduction more than boys do. They also reported no significant difference in problem-focused strategies between girls and boys; and they concluded that, although girls engage in wishful thinking, they don't give up taking action to deal with their problems. Authors interpreted girls greater usage of tension reduction as their perceived lack of empowerment.

Seiffge-Krenke (1993) reported no difference between girls and boys for active coping, however she found that girls used more social support and they tended to rely on fatalistic approach more. Halstead, Johnson and Cunningham (1993) suggested that females used more social support and wishful thinking, males used more avoidance.

Nolen-Hoeksema (1991) suggested that gender differences between various forms of coping play significant role in gender differences in depression. According to the response-set model; women attend to their emotional experience more as a response to their depressed mood and she labeled this "rumination". They engage in thoughts and behaviors focusing attention on depressive emotions, symptoms, cause of mood and implications. This emotional attentiveness may further activate painful memories that in turn increases current depressive mood and attention on negative mood states may trigger negative self-evaluations and helplessness. Finally, attention on emotions may interfere with concentration and initiation of problem-focused behaviors. On the other hand, men respond to depressed mood with emotional distraction or purposefully turn their attention to more pleasant activities. Their focus on instrumental behaviors may relieve unpleasant mood and may increase their sense of control and feelings of self-efficacy, which in turn increase instrumental behaviors. Distraction and other forms of avoidant coping may be related with males' higher levels of aggression, conduct problems and substance abuse which may be seen as intention to achieve some degree of control over the environment (Nolen-Hoeksema, 1991).

Perceiving stressful events as controllable is associated with increased problem-focused coping. Interpersonal stressful events (e.g. conflict with parents, break-up of an intimate relationship) may be perceived as less controllable than non-interpersonal events (e.g. academic performance) and they may be amenable to the use of emotional-focused coping. Consistent with this hypothesis, higher emotional-focused coping in girls was explained by higher exposure and investment in uncontrollable interpersonal stressors (Compas et al, 1993).

Socialization processes may also contribute to gender differences. Male stereotype of activity and stereotype not to be emotional may result in men's distracting responses. However, women grow with the belief that they are emotional in nature and they can not avoid from those emotions therefore they may tend to ruminate. Additionally, lack of support for girls' exploratory activity may cause their less use of problem-focused coping (Nolen-Hoeksema, 1991).

1. 4. Anxiety:

Anxiety was defined as "primary emotional reaction to stress" (Soric, 1999). Anxiety is classified into two; state anxiety and trait anxiety. Trait anxiety is regarded as characteristics of the individual, and assumed to be experienced especially in four situations; social evaluation, physical danger, ambiguous situations and daily routine (Lay et al, 1989). On the other hand, state anxiety is regarded as temporary state that occurs in specific situations. Individuals respond to stressful situations with momentary emotional responses like worry, tension and apprehension, and perceived arousal. State anxiety was assumed to be composed of two reactions; cognitive reactions (self-ruminations, focusing on failures etc.) and perceived autonomic/ emotional reactions (muscle tension, increased heart rate etc.) (Endler, Edwards, Vitelli & Parker, 1989). A review of studies made by Zeidner (1993), indicated that state anxiety was predicted by dispositional anxiety.

Higher levels of anxiety in females regarded to be consistent with the fact that females reported higher levels of psychological and physical symptoms (Endler, Parker, Bagby & Cox, 1991). Wigfield and Eccles (1989) suggested that gender differences in anxiety scores reflects boys' greater defensiveness about displaying their anxiety rather than actual gender differences. Additionally, according to Wigfield and Eccles; boys and girls feel anxiety about different things. Girls are

more concerned about social approval and rejection than boys and their higher levels of anxiety may be a sign of this sensitivity.

1. 5. Test anxiety:

Examination situations have been regarded as stressful event. Individuals taking exam were challenged by complex stressful transactions; preparation period for the exam, study demands, perception of the exam itself, time constraints, uncertainty about outcome, coping with threat to being unsuccessful, coping with threat to self-esteem and coping with the negative outcome (Zeidner, 1994). Register, Beckham, May & Gustafson (1991) reported that approximately 15% of the students taking high school examination experienced high levels of test anxiety.

Kohn et al. (1991) found that perceived stress of the individual who was taking an exam was predicted by both trait anxiety and hassles. Hassles include challenges such as time pressure, academic alienation and various annoyances. He also reported interaction effect of trait anxiety and hassles; for the individuals who have higher trait anxiety, the negative effect of hassles on symptomatology increased. Like all stressful events, test anxiety also resulted from cognitive appraisal of the event as threatening (Soric, 1999). Soric (1999) found that state anxiety induced by test increased especially when the students experienced the test situation as more threatening and when they perceived that they can not control success.

Test anxiety was conceptualized as having two components; worry and emotionality. The worry component includes self-perceptions, concerns about performance, negative self-evaluations, concerns about the consequences of failure and comparisons with other performance. The emotionality component includes affective and physiological experiences resulted from autonomic arousal, the feelings of tension and distress (Meichenbaum and Butler, 1980, cited in Özdemir, 2003).

Consistent gender differences have been found regarding test anxiety; in general females have higher test anxiety than males (Soric, 1999).

1. 5. 1. Test anxiety and coping

Stress appraisal coping theory of Lazarus and Folkman (1984) suggested that how the individual appraise the stressful event effects coping strategies used.

Similarly, appraisal of test situation effects students' coping with test situation. Soric (1999) investigated the relationship between students' perceptions about testing situation and coping. These perceptions included the perception about the presence of social-evaluative aspect of the testing situation, the threat, challenge and loss appraisals and perception of controllability of success. Soric reported that students who made threat (loss of self-esteem or loss of respect of others) appraisal and who had higher levels pre-test state anxiety; used more emotion-focused coping. On the other hand, students who made challenge appraisal (positive appraisal of testing situation) and students who had higher expectation of success used more problem-focused coping.

Bolger (1990) assessed trait anxiety and coping behavior of students who were taking the medical admissions exam. Results indicated positive relationship between trait anxiety and dysfunctional (avoidance / withdrawal) coping methods (i.e. wishful thinking, self-blame, distancing) and these coping methods were in turn associated with distress of those students. Bolger (1990) reported no significant relationship between coping and test performance.

Edwards and Trimble (1992, cited in Endler, Kontor, Parker, 1994), found differential effects of coping styles and situation specific coping responses on state anxiety, examination performance, course grade. Their results showed that, both emotion coping style and emotion coping response was positively associated with

state anxiety. Avoidance coping style was negatively, task coping response was positively associated with course grade.

Endler, Kontor and Parker (1994), also differentiated trait coping style and situation specific coping responses and investigated university student's anxiety and coping in two occasions; in the beginning of the semester, and immediately before in-class examination. Their study suggested that although there was no significant difference in state anxiety levels between men and women, difference in state anxiety levels between two times was more for the women. This finding showed that when encountered with the stressful event; women's state anxiety increased more than men's state anxiety. Endler, Kontor and Parker (1994) also found positive relationship between grades and both task coping style and task coping response. Results indicated that students who dealt with the stress by focusing on the task and preparing for the exam, received better grades. However, contrary to the findings of Edwards and Trimble (1992), Endler, Kontor and Parker reported no significant relationship between emotion and avoidance coping and grades. Finally, Endler et al, provided support for the predictor power of trait anxiety, emotion and avoidance coping on state anxiety.

Edelmann and Hardwick (1986) found significant association between coping strategies and test anxiety for a group of undergraduates. Students using distraction and relaxation strategies reported lower levels of test anxiety; however, students using seeking social support and catharsis reported higher levels of test anxiety.

Blankstein, Flett and Watson (1992) have investigated both trait and state test anxiety levels of the students and found that both kinds of test anxiety had moderate relationship with escape-avoidance techniques and confrontive coping. The authors suggested that students, whose test anxiety are high; avoid attempts to solve their

problem due to their perceived lack of ability and lack of control over outcomes. This avoidant approach in turn results in more avoidance coping and higher state test anxiety.

Misra & McKean (2000), investigated academic stressors (i.e. frustrations, conflicts, pressures, changes and self-imposed) and reactions to stressors and found that there was negative correlation between time management behaviors and academic stress. They reported that, for females; efficient time management reduced perceived stress and its behavioral, emotional and physiological reactions. However, efficient time management increased cognitive reactions (for ex., thinking about stress) to stress. Authors regarded cognitive reactions as problem-solving strategy of coping and suggested that cognitive reactions lowered stress.

1. 5. 2. Test anxiety and Academic Achievement:

Most of the studies investigating the effects of test anxiety on academic performance showed that, high test anxious students had poorer test performance (Seipp, 1991). According to interference model, although high-anxious students know the subject in a task, because of negative self-preoccupations and high anxiety; they can't concentrate on the task or unable to recall their knowledge (Sarason, 1988). However, results showing that anxiety-reducing techniques alone could not be able to improve students' performance indicated that, there should also be other explanations. Deficit model proposed that, low performance of high anxious students is caused by poor knowledge of the student and his/her awareness of his inadequateness. In this model, test anxiety is not a cause; it is rather the consequence of poor academic skills (Birenbaum & Nasser, 1994). Benjamin (1981, cited in Musch and Brödr, 1999), suggested that these two models do not contradict with each other, but they are complementary. Although studies using mono-theoretical

level of analysis; i.e. testing only interference or deficit model research indicated support for both of the theories; pluralistic approach, i.e. testing both of the theory, was needed to show differential effects of test anxiety and poor knowledge. In fact, such a study that was conducted by Musch and Bröder (1999) indicated that, both test anxiety and academic skills predicted test performance, while study habits didn't. Academic skills were found to have higher relationship with test anxiety. Similarly, Birenbaum and Nasser (1994), tested both of the models and indicated that for the students who have high achievement and high anxiety; negative relationship between test anxiety and poor test performance was explained by the interference model. However, for the students who have low achievement and high anxiety; negative relationship between test anxiety and poor test performance was explained by deficit model. Musch and Bröder (1999), added that, these two factors may have different contributions on performance, in regard to different domains and specific subjects.

There are also some contradictory findings related with the effects of test anxiety on academic achievement. Soric (1999) failed to find relationship between the pre-test state anxiety and performance on the test and discussed that this nonsignificant relationship may be explained by the mediating role of coping strategies used. Similarly, Edelman and Hardwick, (1986) reported only weak relationship between test anxiety and performance.

1. 6. Coping and academic achievement:

Stewart & Schwarzer (1996) conducted longitudinal study on medical students' coping and reported that students, who use humor and denial as coping strategy, have poorer academic achievement. On the other hand, acceptance and planning coping strategies were positively associated with academic performance.

Gonzales, Tein, Sandler & Friedman (2001) investigated the relationship between stress, coping and grades and suggested different interaction effects for girls and boys. Results indicated that, active coping buffered the effect of high stress on academic achievement; and this effect was higher for the girls who reported high levels of stress. On the other hand, for boys, the relationship between coping and grades decreased as the level of stress increased.

In a longitudinal study, Hess and Copeland (2001) investigated high school students' school completion and coping. They found that students who reported higher family interaction (i.e. whether adolescent talking with parents about his/her problems or not) had lower dropout rates. Moreover, engaging in social activities was positively related with school-dropout. They argued that, peers who are not academically oriented might have negative influence on students' school completion. Opposite to the expectation, their data did not support relationship with other coping variables and school completion.

Mantzicopoulos (1990) specifically focused on coping with academic stress and investigated elementary children's coping with perceived academic failure. His data yielded four coping dimension; positive coping, projection coping, denial coping and anxiety amplification. Results showed that, children who used positive-action oriented coping strategies, had higher achievement than children used self-blame, projection coping (blaming others) and denial. Furthermore, children who used positive coping strategies had higher sense of self-worth and competency.

1. 7. University Entrance Exam:

In some countries, students are placed into university with an examination. Turkey, Greece, Japan are some of the examples. There are some studies on the significance and the effects of entrance examinations. For example, Zeng (1995)

reported that Japanese students give high value to Japan's national college entrance examination and entrance examinations are one of the major concerns of the students during their education until college. Benincasa (1998), conducted interviews with Greek students and their parents and examined the meaning of the exam and motives to get into the university. She suggested that parents are involved in their children's preparation both psychologically and financially. They also had a tendency to identify with their children's and regarded achievement of their children as their own. Adolescents see examination as a way to get into adulthood, gaining freedom from the parents, gaining a job and high status, proof of intelligence or success. Greek students described examination as "struggle"; even participation in the exam was highly valued in the society (Benincasa, 1998).

The University Entrance Exam (UEE) is also one of the major life events for adolescents in Turkey. Students have to decide which occupation is right for them and they have to prepare for the exam for at least one year in order to succeed in this exam. Every year, approximately one and half million students take this exam, and only %20 of those student can be placed in a university and only small portion of the students get placed in university departments that they wish to be placed. Additionally, parents and other people in students' social environment also give much importance to UEE, success in UEE is regarded as a way to have a good occupation, good income and high social status. Everybody around the student has expectations from the student; families spend additional money for extra courses and their expectations put additional pressure on the students. Especially if a student has previous failures and if he/she is taking the exam for the second or third time, the pressure tends to increase.

Taking the UEE can be regarded as a challenging situation with a sense of risk. Because only small portion of the students who will take UEE will be able to enter the university, it can be assumed that there is a high risk of failure. However, it should be added that, the sense of risk depends on students' academic performance, academic self-esteem and his/her commitments. As mentioned above, commitments have important influence in appraisal of stress. A student who has a long and deep commitment to enter a specific department of university will experience university entrance exam as more challenging and threatening. If there is a good match between the students' commitments and academic success, the sense of risk may be smaller. However, if the student's expectation is higher than his/her capacity, and if he/she is aware of this discrepancy, he/she will expect failure (i.e. threat) which can result in high anxiety. Moreover, the public nature of the commitment to enter a university puts additional pressure on the students.

Whether a student believes that he/she has some control over UEE may influence student's anxiety and coping. Because of the special nature of UEE, it can be assumed that students both have and do not have control over UEE. Because one million students take the exam and whether the student will be able to enter a university also depends on other students' performance, this ambiguity should create further anxiety on the students.

With respect to novelty, UEE is not a novel event for the students because students know something about UEE from childhood onwards and they have engaged in conversations with peers or their families. However, there are students who are taking UEE for the second or third time, and we can assume that their previous experience of failure will influence their appraisal of UEE as well as their anxiety and coping strategies. Moreover, it is expected that students who are taking

the exam for the second or third time have had more opportunity to develop the specific coping skills required with the demands of UEE despite an experience of failure.

Because of the highly challenging nature of UEE, students feel extreme levels of stress and this stress adversely influences their well-being.

1. 8. Research on UEE in Turkey:

Most of the studies on UEE have focused on test anxiety. First group of studies investigated various variables that may affect test anxiety; such as age, gender, high school type. Özdemir (2002) and Toprak (1992) found that 11th grade students who were preparing for UEE had higher test anxiety than the 10th grade students. Kısa (1996) studied test anxiety of the students attending private preparation courses and she found that test anxiety levels decrease as the age of the student increase. Only contradictory result regarding test anxiety was reported by Ayşan, Thompson and Hamarat (2001), they reported higher levels of test anxiety in high school juniors than 11th grade students.

Ekşi (1998) compared test anxiety levels of students from state and private high schools and found that students from state high school had higher test anxiety. Toprak (1992) indicated that students who were from a high school that accepted students through an entrance exam (Anadolu ve Fen lisesi) had lower test anxiety levels than student who were from high school that didn't accept students through an entrance exam (düz lise). Ekşi (1998) compared students who attended private preparation courses and students who took private courses additional to attending to private preparation courses but he couldn't find any significant difference in test-anxiety levels of these students.

Börü (2000) investigated test-anxiety of students attending private courses before and after the UEE. She also asked the students about attitudes of their parents related with UEE (i.e. whether they interfere with student' preferences for university / department, importance given by parents for success in UEE, parent's thoughts about student's effort). Students who had parents with negative attitudes (for example students who reported that their parents ask them to obey their preferences) had higher levels of test anxiety, and their test anxiety levels were high both before and after the UEE. Another finding indicated that, parents of students who took private courses, warn them more frequently about studying than the students who did not receive private courses.

Aydın (1987) investigated the relationship between anxiety of students preparing for UEE and their preferences for UEE. She reported that, students, who have higher levels of test anxiety, preferred departments that have lower scores, in other words, students who had high test anxiety, avoided failure and risk taking behavior more.

Lüle (2002) found that for graduated students preparing for UEE, trait anxiety and five factors of autonomy were negatively related. These factors were relatedness autonomy, behavioral autonomy, emotional autonomy, autonomy in attitudes and values, inconflitual autonomy and relatedness. However there was no relationship between trait anxiety and separation. Kısa (1996) indicated that there is no significant relationship between test anxiety and parental attitude, and between test anxiety and level of parental education.

Longitudinal studies showed that test anxiety levels of students decreased after the UEE (Börü, 2000; Ayşan, Thompson & Hamarat, 2001). Cengiz (1988), longitudinally investigated state-trait anxiety of eleventh grade students and found

that, there was no significant change between pre-exam and post-exam measures of trait anxiety; however students' state anxiety levels decreased significantly after UEE.

Consistent with test anxiety research, research on UEE indicated gender differences for anxiety levels. Girls had higher test anxiety than boys (Toprak, 1992; Ekşi, 1998; Börü, 2000; Çankaya, 1997; Aysan, Thompson & Hamarat, 2001). Çankaya (1997) also reported interaction effect of gender and achievement; girls who had high achievement had higher test-anxiety than boys who had high achievement.

Second group of studies investigated psychological symptoms of students preparing for UEE. Özdemir (2002) reported higher psychological symptoms of 11th grade students (e.g. anxiety, depression, hostility and interpersonal sensitivity) than the 10th grade students had. Similarly, Toprak (1992) found that eleventh grade students and girls had higher psychological symptom levels (SCL-90-R) than other students and anxiety level was positively with symptom level,

Özdemir (2002) also investigated self-esteem and psychological symptoms of students after results were announced and found decrease in anxiety, depression, somatization, hostility, interpersonal sensitivity and increase in self-esteem. Toprak (1992) reported that students who were from high school that accepted students through an entrance exam (Anadolu ve Fen lisesi) and students from high school that didn't accept students through an entrance exam (düz lise) showed/ displayed similar psychological symptoms.

Another group of studies investigated academic achievement and other factors related with UEE. Cengiz (1988) showed that, previous academic achievement was related with anxiety of the students preparing for UEE. He reported that students who had higher academic achievement in high school had lower levels

of state-trait anxiety. The effect of anxiety on academic achievement in UEE is another important issue. Erkan (1991) suggested that students who had higher test anxiety had lower levels of placement. However, Erkan (1991) found no relationship between test anxiety and scores taken on UEE. Erkan also reported that highly anxious students were less prepared, less motivated, and they had lower academic ability and had low grades in high school than low anxious students.

Most of the students attended private preparation courses during the preparation year and took trial exams in these courses. Students, families and teachers perceive results of these exams as important for predicting UEE results. In fact, Doğan (1999) reported that correlations between scores taken in trial exams and scores taken in UEE were % 80-90. Based on this assumption, Çankaya (1997) conducted a study with students in the eleventh grade who attended private preparatory course and examined the relationship between test-anxiety, academic achievement (score taken in trial exam) and self-esteem. Contrary to expectation, her data failed to yield significant relationship between test anxiety and test score. She explained this result with the probability that another factor; perceived importance of the exam may be a mediating factor. Importance given to trial exam may be smaller than the importance given to actual UEE. Çankaya (1997) also reported negative relationship between test anxiety and self-esteem.

Yağcı (1999) investigated the relationship between locus of control and motivation and academic achievement (UEE outcome) of eleventh grade students. Yağcı found that both internal locus of control and internal motivation were positively related with academic achievement.

In a study, Karakelle (1995) both used objective measures and conducted interviews with university students who were placed into departments requiring high

scores and low scores. He reported that, students who had high achievement were generally from high SES families, they attended private or science (fen) high-school, and they reported that their parents had democratic parenting styles.

There are also some studies investigated relationship between scores taken from the UEE and academic performance in university (Karakelle, 1995; Demirok, 1990; Erdoğan, 1999). These studies have shown that, UEE has limited predictive power on academic performance in university.

The present study is especially based on the study of Özdemir (2002). Özdemir (2002), longitudinally investigated anxiety, self-esteem and psychological symptoms of students preparing for UEE. Özdemir (2002) emphasized that decrease in psychological symptoms and increase in self-esteem was evident for both placed and non-placed students, indicating that, whatever the academic performance of the student was before the exam or in the exam, UEE has negative effect on all students' psychological health and self-esteem. More specifically, he found that, self-esteem was positively related with achievement expectancy and negatively correlated with psychological symptoms. Students, whose achievement expectancy was low, had more psychological problems and higher levels of test anxiety. In addition, importance given to UEE was positively correlated with psychological symptoms, test-anxiety and negatively related with self-esteem. Özdemir (2002) emphasized the significance of importance of UEE for both self and for significant others. The most important finding of Özdemir's results indicated that the effect was larger for importance for the close others than importance of the self. Özdemir (2002) concluded that, when a student perceives that his/her close relatives give high importance to UEE, perceived threat of UEE increases which leads to heightened test

anxiety and psychological symptoms. Psychological symptoms of the students were predicted by test anxiety.

Özdemir (2002) also compared placed and non-placed students and found that the positive relationship between achievement expectancy and self-esteem and the negative relationship between achievement expectancy and psychological symptoms and test anxiety for the unsuccessful applicants were higher than the successful applicants were. Similarly, he reported that non-placed students' correlations between test-anxiety and depression were much higher than the correlations for the placed students. According to Özdemir, higher positive correlation between psychological symptoms and emotionality dimension of test-anxiety for the placed students implies that the stress emerged from the perceived threat of the UEE may facilitate some adaptive behaviors, which resulted in achievement for some students.

Literature search showed that there is only one study on how adolescents cope with distress evoked by preparation for UEE. Ayşan, Thompson and Hamarat (2001) investigated two groups of students' anxiety and coping one week before and one week after the examination; high school students preparing for mid term examination and eleventh grade students preparing for UEE. They found that students using ineffective coping strategies (wishful thinking, self-blame and avoidance) had higher levels of test anxiety both before the exam and after the exam. Additionally, these students reported worse health status (negative emotional reaction, low energy, sleep disturbances, physical symptoms) than their counterparts.

The present study aims to fill this gap in UEE literature. The importance of this study comes from the fact that, relationship between stress and psychological health is mediated by coping and in order to strengthen the coping skills of

adolescents; we have to understand adolescents' perceived stress, their coping pattern and other related factors.

1. 9. Research Statement:

This study aimed to examine relationship between trait anxiety, test anxiety, University Entrance Exam related variables (perceived importance of UEE, achievement expectation), test performance (trial exam performance) and coping strategies employed by the students. UEE-specific coping responses were assessed.

Hypotheses:

Based on theory and prior research on anxiety, test anxiety, adolescent coping, University Entrance Examination and academic achievement, five hypotheses were generated:

1. Students who have higher levels of test anxiety were expected to report lower levels of achievement expectancy, higher levels of importance regarding UEE for self and higher levels of importance regarding UEE for other.
2. Factor of Ways of Coping will be explored and relationship between coping, trait anxiety, test anxiety, achievement expectancy, importance for UEE for self and importance for UEE for other will be explored.
3. Test anxiety and coping strategies will predict performance on trial exam.
4. Females were expected to higher trait anxiety and test anxiety than males.
5. There will be gender differences in coping strategies used.

METHOD

2.1. Subjects

Three hundred and ten students preparing for University Entrance Exam participated in this study. 227 students' data were accepted as valid and included in the analyses. Data were collected from five different private preparation courses located in Kadıköy / Istanbul. Subjects were 123 female and 102 male) students. The age range for the students was 16-21 ($M=17.71$, $SD=.941$). % 86 of the subjects described themselves in the middle SES level, % 11.4 of the subjects described themselves in the high SES level, % 2.2 of the subjects described themselves in the low SES level. Distribution of the subjects to the type of high schools are shown below: %68.3 regular high school, % 15.9 vocational high school, %6.6 super high school, % 3.5 anadolu high school, % 2.6 private high school, % 1.8 science high school.

Data were collected in classes of private preparation courses one month before the UEE in 2004.

2.2. Measurements

The subjects were asked to complete following measures and questions:

2.2.1. Demographic Data Form:

The form included questions about their gender, age, SES, parents' education, academic achievement (GPA) in high school, scores received in last three trial examinations. A copy of demographic data form is presented in Appendix 1.

2.2.2. Expectation of UEE achievement:

This scale was developed by Özdemir (2002) and includes questions about perceptions of the students' and close other's (specifically; mother, father and course teacher) achievement expectations on UEE. Participants rated the probability of

passing the exam on a 5-point Likert scale (1= %0, 2= %25, 3= %50, 4= %75, 5= %100) for themselves, for their mother, their father and for their course teacher. In the present study, 0% and 25% achievement expectancy scores were combined because only 3 subjects reported 0% achievement expectancy. In this way, final scale consisted of a 4-point Likert typing; 1= %0 and %25, 2= %50, 3= %75, 4= %100. Additionally, perceived expectation of mother and perceived expectation of father was found to be highly correlated, therefore, a composite score (i.e. perceived expectation of parents) was estimated by taking the mean mother's and father's scores. Expectation of UEE Achievement Scale is presented in Appendix 2.

2.2.3. Importance of the University Entrance Examination Scale:

This eleven-item instrument was developed by Özdemir (2002) to assess the perceived importance of UEE for self and for significant others. The importance for the self dimension includes items such as "I will be very happy if I pass the exam". The importance for the other dimension includes items such as "Everybody expects me to pass the exam". Participant rated these items on a 7-point Likert scale (1=absolutely wrong, 2= very wrong, 3= wrong, 4= not sure, 5= correct, 6= very correct, 7= absolutely correct). In Özdemir's study, alpha reliability for both factors was found to be acceptable (importance for the self = .75, importance for the other = .68). Importance of UEE Scale is presented in Appendix 2.

In the present study, factor analysis of the Importance Scale was conducted. However, the factor analysis didn't reveal meaningful factors. Items and factor loadings of the Importance Scale are presented in Table 1. Therefore total score of Importance Scale was used for the analyses. If subjects had one missing data in this scale, that item's score was replaced by the mean of that item. Alpha reliability for the Importance Scale was .85.

Table 1. Factor Loadings of the Importance Scale

		F1	F2
1.	Bu sınavı kazanmak benim için çok önemlidir	.44	.43
2.	Sınavı kazanamazsam çok üzülürüm	.60	.42
3.	Sınavı kazanamama ihtimalimi düşünemiyorum	.58	.16
4.	Sınavı kazanmak geleceğimi kurtaracak	.52	.45
5.	Saygın bir meslek sahibi olmam bu sınavı kazanmama bağlı.	.60	.40
6.	Sınavı kazanmazsam ailemden utanırım	.78	
7.	Sınavı kazanırsam beni sevenleri de mutlu edeceğim.	.30	.50
8.	Etrafımdaki herkes sınavı kazanmamı bekliyor.	.51	.49
9.	Sınavı kazanırsam çok mutlu olacağım		.86
10	Sınavı kazanırsam kendimi daha iyi hissedeceğim.	.13	.82
11.	Sınavı kazanamazsam kendimden utanırım.	.82	

2.2.4. Trait Anxiety:

The STAI was designed in 1970 by Spielberg et al. and contains two subscales; State Anxiety and Trait Anxiety. Only Trait Anxiety Inventory (TAI) was used in this study. Scale consists of 20 statements in which the subjects describe how they generally feel. Participants rated these items on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from almost never (1) to almost always (4). (see Appendix 3). Validity and reliability studies of this scale for Turkish population have been made by Oner and Le Compte (1983).

Items 1, 6, 7, 10, 13, 16 and 19 were reversed and total score was obtained by adding up the scores of all items. If subjects had one missing data in this scale, that item's score was replaced by the mean of that item. Total scores ranged from 20 to 80 with high scores indicating high levels of test anxiety. In the present study, alpha reliability for Trait Anxiety Scale was .83.

2.2.5. Test- Anxiety Inventory (TAI):

Spielberg's (1980) Test-Anxiety Inventory measures individual's emotions and thoughts about tests and examinations, in other words it assesses situation specific state anxiety. The original factor analysis of the inventory found two factors; worry and emotionality.

Öner and Albayrak-Kaymak (1987) adapted the TAI. Factor analysis of the Turkish form of TAI conducted by Özdemir (2003) revealed three factors; worry, emotionality and nervousness. The scale includes items such as "I feel very anxious before the important exams" (önemli bir sınava girmeden önce çok endişelenirim). The participants will rate the items on a five point Likert type scale (1= never, 2= rarely, 3= sometimes, 4= usually, 5= always). (see Appendix 1.E.). First item was reversed and total score was obtained by adding up the scores of all items. If subjects had one missing data in this scale, that item's score was replaced by the mean of that item. Total scores range from 20 to 100 with high scores indicating high levels of test anxiety. Turkish version of TAI has satisfactory reliability, ranging from .84 to .89 for the overall TAI; from .69 to .74 for the Worry subscale, and from .74 to .84 for the Emotionality subscale.

Factor analysis of the Test Anxiety Inventory was conducted for the present study using Principal Components with Varimax Rotation. Scale revealed three components representing three dimension; emotionality, nervousness and worry. These components explained 56% of the total variance (22.9 %, 17.2% and 15.7%, respectively). Alpha reliability for total TAI was .93. Items and factor loading are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Factor Structure of the TAI

		F1	F2	F3
	Factor 1. Emotionality			
18.	Önemli sınavlarda kalbimin çok hızlı attığını hissedirim	.74	.22	.10
19.	Sınav sona erdikten sonra endişelenmemeye çalışırım fakat yapamam	.76		.33
16.	Önemli bir sınava girmeden önce çok endişelenirim	.71	.30	.23
14.	Önemli bir sınav sırasında paniğe kapılırım	.66	.44	.19
17.	Sınavlar sırasında, başarısız olmanın sonuçlarını düşünmekten kendimi alamam	.67		.45
15.	Sınavların beni bu kadar rahatsız etmemesini isterdim	.58	.25	
1.	Sınav sırasında kendimi güvenli ve rahat hissedirim	.52	.33	
20.	Sınavlar sırasında öylesine sinirli olurum ki aslında bildiğim şeyleri bile unuturum	.51	.37	.34
13.	Sınavlar sırasında kendimi çok gergin hissedirim	.56	.47	.21
	Factor 2. Nervousness			
7.	Önemli bir sınav sırasında kendimi çok sinirli hissedirim	.29	.75	.15
9.	Bir sınava çok iyi hazırlandığım zamanlar bile kendimi oldukça sinirli hissedirim	.11	.78	.30
10	Önemli sınavlarda sinirlerim öylesine gerilir ki midem bulanır	.20	.68	.21
11.	Bir sınav kağıdını geri almadan önce çok huzursuz olurum	.30	.57	.40
6.	Sınavlarda kendimi huzursuz ve rahatsız hissedirim	.45	.46	.32
	Factor 3. Worry			
5.	Bir sınav sırasında, ne kadar çok uğraşırsam kafam o kadar karışıktır			.69
4.	Sınavlar sırasında, bir gün okulu bitirip bitiremeyeceğim konusunda düşünmekten kendimi alamam		.26	.65
12.	Önemli sınavlarda kendimi adeta yenilgiye iterim	.31	.20	.60
3.	Önemli sınavlarda donup kalırım	.31	.44	.54
2.	O dersten alacağım notu düşünmek sınav sırasındaki başarıyı olumsuz yönde etkiler	.27	.24	.51
8.	Başarısız olma düşünceleri dikkatimi sınav üzerinde toplamama engel olur	.47	.17	.59
	Percent of variance	23,0	17,2	15,8
	Total variance explained	56,0		

2.2.6. Ways of Coping Scale (WOC):

The scale was developed by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) to assess main coping strategies. Factor analysis of the Ways of Coping Scale was conducted for the group of American students who cope with college examination stress by Lazarus and Folkman (1985). They found eight factor solution; problem focused coping, wishful thinking, detachment, seeking social support, emphasizing the positive, self-blame, tension reduction and keep to self.

WOC scale consists of 66 coping strategies used for a specified stressful event. Participants rated what extent they used these strategies on a 4-point Likert scale (0= not used, 1= used somewhat, 2= used quite a bit, 3= used a great deal). Turkish version of WOC Scale was developed by Kaymakçiođlu (2001) and it has satisfactory reliability. Ways of Coping Scale is presented in Appendix 1. F.

UEE is a specific stressor for Turkish adolescents. Because of the fact that for different stressors, different coping strategies are used, factor analysis of the WOC scale was conducted for the present study. Firstly, five items were eliminated because four of those items were related with interpersonal stress, and one item was not appropriate for UEE (bunun olduđuna inanmayı reddettim). The remaining 60 items were then factor analyzed. Alpha reliability of the WOC scale was .86.

Principal factor analysis with orthogonal (varimax) rotation was used to minimize the problem of intercorrelation among the factors. A three-factor solution, accounting for %24.6 of the variance yielded the most conceptually interpretable group of factors. Twelve items were removed because of low loadings (less than .30). Items and factor loading are presented in Table 3.

Three factors emerged; one adaptive and two maladaptive coping strategies were used in further analyses. The first factor loaded on adaptive coping strategies

which included problem focused coping, support seeking, positive appraisal and emotional expression. The second factor loaded on a form of maladaptive coping which included avoidance and denial. In other words, adolescents using this coping strategy, try to forget or escape from the problem by sleeping, eating, acting out or distancing thoughts. The third factor; another maladaptive coping strategy was wishful / magical thinking, which included efforts to cope with the stressful event (UEE) by day dreaming, wishing, hoping or praying.

Table 3. Factor Structure of the WOC

		F1	F2	F3
	Factor 1. Adaptive Coping			
39.	Sorunun olumlu bir hale dönmesi için bir şeyleri değiştirdim.	.60		
46.	Boyun eğmedim ve istediğim şey için savaştım	.59	-.12	
23.	İyi yönde değiştim ya da olgunlaştım.	.58		-.11
30.	Bu deneyimden, başlangıcındaki halime daha iyi bir noktada çıktım.	.58		
19.	Kendi kendime, kendimi daha iyi hissettiren şeyler söyledim.	.56		.16
63.	Takdir ettiğim birinin bu durumu nasıl ele alacağını düşündüm ve bunu örnek aldım.	.53		.12
38.	Yaşamda neyin önemli olduğunu yeniden keşfettim	.52	.11	.10
31.	Problemlerle ilgili somut bir şeyler yapabilecek biriyle konuştum.	.51		
8.	Durum hakkında daha fazla bilgi edinmek için biriyle konuştum.	.50		.14
26.	Bir hareket planı yaptım ve onu izledim.	.49		-.18
64.	Meseleleri diğer kişinin bakış açısından görmeye çalıştım.	.48		
20.	Yaratıcı bir şeyler yapmak için esinlendim.	.46	.18	
2.	Problemi daha iyi anlamak için onu analiz etmeye çalıştım	.41	-.32	
1.	Yalnızca bir sonraki adımda yapmam gereken şeye konsantre oldum	.32		-.11
62.	Aklımda, ne söyleyeceğimin veya ne yapacağımın üstünden geçtim.	.50		.29
52.	Problem için bir kaç tane farklı çözüm buldum.	.50		.21
15.	Olayların iyi yanını görmeye çalıştım.	.39	-.17	
28.	Bir şekilde duygularımı dışarı vurdum.	.39	.27	.12
56.	Kendimle ilgili bazı şeyleri değiştirdim.	.35		.21
66.	Koşuya, yürüyüşe çıktım veya egzersiz yaptım.	.33	.19	-.15
65.	Meselerinin daha ne kadar kötü olabileceğini kendi kendime hatırlattım.	.32	.24	.15
42.	Saygı duyduğum bir akrabamdan veya arkadaşımın tavsiye istedim.	.31		.23
37.	Gururumu korudum ve metin oldum.	.45	.34	.15
45.	Biriyle nasıl hissettiğim hakkında konuştum.	.39		.36
9.	Kendi kendimi eleştirdim veya kendime kızdım	.34		.31

		F1	F2	F3
	Factor 2. Avoidance / Denial / Fatalistic Coping (maladaptive)			
33.	Yiyerek, içerek, sigara kullanarak, uyuşturucu ya da ilaç kullanarak kendimi daha iyi hissetmeye çalıştım.		.62	-.13
34.	Büyük bir rizikoyu göze aldım veya çok riskli şeyler yaptım.		.60	
12.	Kaderime razı oldum, sadece bazen çok şanssızım.	-.15	.58	.17
43.	Ne kadar kötü şeyler olduğunu başkalarından sakladım.	-.11	.50	.18
16.	Her zamankinden fazla uyudum.	-.10	.48	
47.	Hıncımı diğer insanlardan çıkardım.		.49	.12
53.	Yapılacak bir şey olmadığı için, durumu kabul ettim.	-.13	.45	.22
13.	Sanki hiç bir şey olmamış gibi devam ettim.		.40	
11.	Bir mucize olmasını umut ettim.	-.24	.41	.30
21.	Her şeyi unutmaya çalıştım.		.44	.36
4.	Yapılacak tek şeyin beklemek olduğunu düşündüm ve her şeyi zamana bıraktım.	-.12	.35	.18
6.	İşe yaramayacağımı düşündüğüm halde bir şeyler yaptım, en azından bir şeyler yapıyordum.		.38	.28
44.	Durumu hafife aldım, bu konuda çok ciddi olmayı reddettim.	-.24	.34	.14
36.	Yeni bir inanç buldum.	.19	.32	-.15
32.	Bir süreliğine sorundan uzaklaştım; dinlenmeye veya tatil yapmaya çıktım.	.18	.32	
61.	Kendimi en kötüsü için hazırladım.	.17	.30	
	Factor 3: Wishful / Magical Thinking (maladaptive)			
58.	Sorunun çekip gitmesini veya bir şekilde sona ermesini diledim.		.11	.74
59.	Meselelerin nasıl sonuçlanabileceğine dair hayaller kurdum ve dilekler diledim.		.23	.71
57.	O anda olduğumdan daha iyi bir zamanda veya yerde olmayı düşledim veya hayal ettim.			.70
60.	Dua ettim.			.58
51.	Kendi kendime, bir dahaki sefere olayların daha farklı olacağına dair söz verdim.	.24		.57
55.	Olan şeyi veya nasıl hissettiğimi değiştirebilmeyi istedim.		.27	.53
40.	Genelde insanlarla beraber olmaktan kaçındım.			.30
	<i>Percent of variance</i>	10,3	7,5	6,8
	<i>Total variance explained</i>	24,6		

Items that didn't have loadings on any of the factor: (12 item)

		F1	F2	F3
5.	Bu durumdan olumlu bir şey çıkarabilmek için pazarlık ettim ya da ödün verdim.		.28	
35.	Çok fazla aceleci davranmamaya veya ilk önsezimi izlememeye çalıştım.	.28	.29	-.13
54.	Duygularımın diğer şeylere çok fazla engel olmasını önlemeye çalıştım.	.29	.20	.11
48.	Geçmiş tecrübelerimi kullandım, daha önce de benzer bir durum yaşamıştım.	.28	.20	
3.	Dikkatimi sorunlardan uzaklaştırmak için işe veya yerine geçecek başka bir faaliyete koyuldum.		.27	.22
27.	Kendi isteğim yerine, daha az iyi olanına razı oldum.		.25	.19
29.	Problemi kendimin açtığımı fark ettim.	.18	.24	.20
24.	Bir şey yapmadan önce, ne olabileceğini görmek için bekledim.	.19	.23	
14.	Duygularımı kendime saklamaya çalıştım.		.20	.24
18.	Başka birinin sempati ve anlayışını kabul ettim.	.22	.22	.19
41.	Beni etkilemesine izin vermedim, sorun hakkında çok fazla düşünmeyi reddettim.	.11	.11	.13
22.	Bir uzmandan psikolojik yardım aldım.		.20	

Items that were not taken because they were irrelevant to UEE:

- 7. Sorumlu olan kişiyi fikrini değiştirmesi için ikna etmeye çalıştım.
- 10. Köprüleri yakmamaya, bazı kapıları açık bırakmaya çalıştım.
- 17. Soruna neden olan kişiye ya da kişilere öfkemi gösterdim.
- 25. Arayı düzeltmek için özür diledim veya bir şeyler yaptım.
- 50. Bunun olduğuna inanmayı reddettim.

RESULTS

3.1. Descriptive Statistics

Means and standard deviations for all predictors and outcome variables are presented in Table 4.

	N	Possible Range*	Range In Data	Mean	SD
Achievement Expectancy	218	1-4	1-4	2.41	.79
Self	220	1-4	1-4	2.69	.98
	222	1-4	1-4	2.76	.98
Mother	190	1-4	1-4	2.43	.98
Father					
Teacher					
Importance of UEE. Total	224	11-77	32-77	63.37	10.50
Trait Anxiety. Total	224	20-80	22-73	44.10	8.70
Test Anxiety. Total	219	20-100	20-95	50.75	16.55
WOC. Total	201	0-180	24-148	85,58	19,25
High School Academic Achievement	182	0.00-5.00	2.00-5.00	3.81	.62
Trial Exam Score 1	155		140-286	207.08	28.44
Trial Exam Score 2	163		123-275	208.46	28.09
Trial Exam Score 3	166		130-281	211.88	27.64
Average Trial Exam Score (current achievement)	147		140- 280	209.76	26.98

3. 2. Gender Differences:

First hypothesis states that, females will have higher trait anxiety and test anxiety. In order to see if there was a significant gender difference between Trait Anxiety and Test Anxiety scores of subjects, One way ANOVA was conducted. Univariate tests revealed significant gender differences for Trait Anxiety [$F(1, 220) = 8.74, p < .01$], and Test Anxiety [$F(1, 216) = 12.00, p < .01$]. Accordingly, as expected, females reported higher levels of trait anxiety and test anxiety than males. Gender differences were also found for emotionality and nervousness factors of test anxiety. Accordingly, females had higher levels of emotionality and nervousness.

While no specific hypotheses were formed for specific gender differences in coping strategies used; gender differences were further explored. The factor scores of three coping styles were compared for gender differences. ANOVA results indicated that significant differences between male and female subjects on wishful / magical thinking coping style (factor 3) [$F(1, 197) = 10.63, p < .01$] emerged; while no significant gender differences were found on adaptive (factor 1) and avoidance / denial coping style (factor 2). Thus, it was found that in this sample female subjects reported higher use of wishful / magical thinking as an effort to cope with UEE stress than males.

Although there were no additional hypotheses regarding gender differences, additional One way ANOVA tests were conducted to see if there were significant gender differences for other variables. ANOVA results indicated that there was a significant differences between males and females in terms of high school academic achievement [$F(1, 180) = 9.01, p < .01$]. This finding denoted that females had higher high school academic achievement than males. However, average trial exam scores which are meant as simulation for UEE did not differ between males and females.

Other significant gender differences were observed in achievement expectancy of parents [$F(1,226) = 8.32, p < .01$], achievement expectancy of teacher [$F(1,186) = 4.10, p < .05$], and importance of UEE [$F(1,221) = 12.43, p < .01$]; indicating that, females think that their parents and teachers had higher achievement expectancy for them also they gave higher importance to UEE than males.

Means and significance levels for gender differences were presented in Table 5.

Table 5. ANOVA results for gender differences

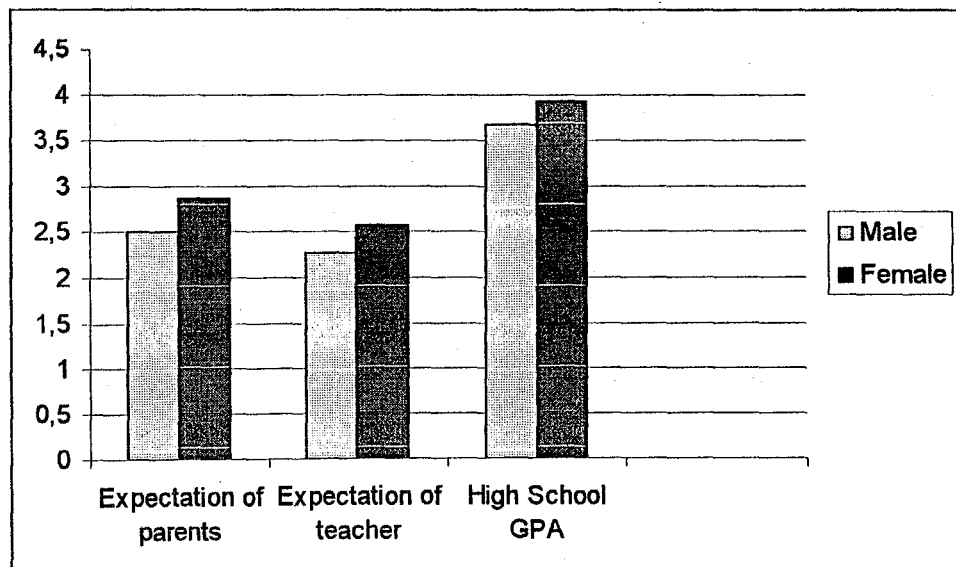
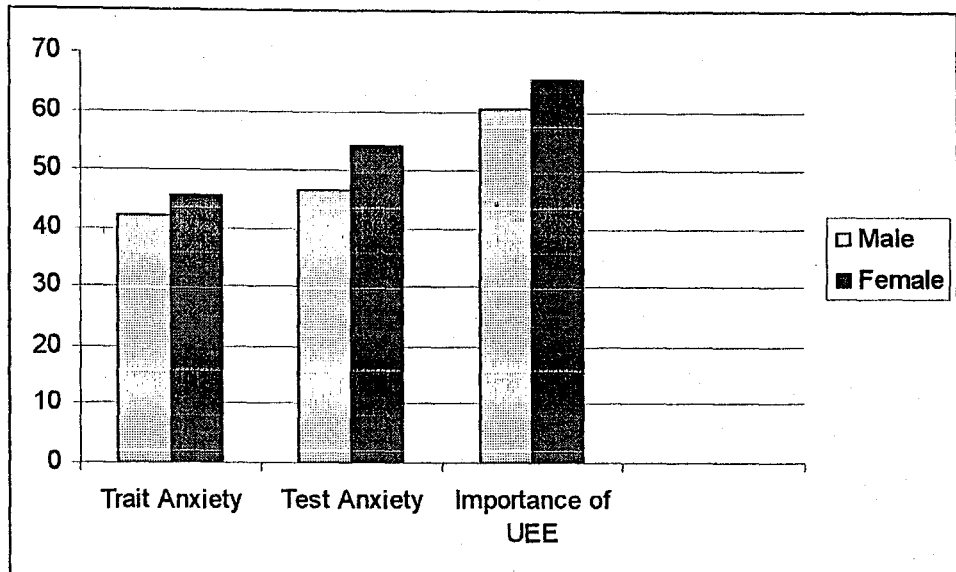
		Mean	F	Sig.
Trait Anxiety	<i>Male</i>	42.24	8.74	.003 **
	<i>Female</i>	45.64		
Test Anxiety	<i>Male</i>	46.54	11.99	.001 **
	<i>Female</i>	54.13		
Importance of UEE	<i>Male</i>	60.68	12.43	.001 **
	<i>Female</i>	65.55		
Ach. Expectation of Self	<i>Male</i>	2.43	.08	.782
	<i>Female</i>	2.40		
Parents	<i>Male</i>	2.51	8.32	.004 **
	<i>Female</i>	2.87		
Teacher	<i>Male</i>	2.27	4.10	.044 *
	<i>Female</i>	2.56		
High School GPA	<i>Male</i>	3.67	9.01	.003 **
	<i>Female</i>	3.94		
Average Trial Exam Score	<i>Male</i>	209.09	.101	.751
	<i>Female</i>	210.51		

**Table 6. ANOVA results for gender differences
(factors of WOC and TAI)**

		Mean	F	Sig.
Adaptive Coping	<i>Male</i>	-.044	.33	.568
	<i>Female</i>	.038		
Avoidance/ Denial Coping	<i>Male</i>	.100	1.35	.246
	<i>Female</i>	-.065		
Wishful Thinking Coping	<i>Male</i>	-.236	10.63	.001 **
	<i>Female</i>	.215		
Emotionality	<i>Male</i>	-.205	7.70	.006 **
	<i>Female</i>	.167		
Nervousness	<i>Male</i>	-.309	18.60	.000 **
	<i>Female</i>	.255		
Worry	<i>Male</i>	.089	1.59	.209
	<i>Female</i>	-.082		

Significant gender differences in variables were shown in bar charts

below:



3. 3. Correlations and Group Differences between Anxiety Variables and UEE Variables:

Trait Anxiety and Test Anxiety:

Correlational analysis between trait anxiety, test anxiety, factors of test anxiety, importance of UEE, achievement expectancies (self, mother, father, teacher), trial exam score and high school GPA were conducted to explore the relationship between the anxiety variables and UEE related variables (see Table 6).

Third hypothesis stated that, students who have higher levels of trait anxiety will also have high levels of test anxiety. As hypothesized, trait anxiety and test anxiety were positively correlated ($r=.60$, $p<.01$) indicating that students who have high levels of trait anxiety, also have high levels of test anxiety. Students who have high levels of trait anxiety also scored higher on three factors of test anxiety; emotionality, worry and nervousness. Additionally, students who had high levels of trait anxiety, gave higher importance to UEE ($r=.35$, $p<.001$) and they had lower levels of achievement expectation of self ($r=-.21$, $p<.001$). Correlations with test anxiety revealed that, students who have higher levels of test anxiety ($r=.31$, $p<.001$) and emotionality ($r=.35$, $p<.001$) gave more importance to UEE. Students who have higher levels of test anxiety ($r=-.30$, $p<.001$), emotionality ($r=-.25$, $p<.001$) and worry ($r=-.26$, $p<.001$) had low achievement expectation. The only significant correlation between anxiety variables and trial exam scores was found between emotionality and trial exam score 3 ($r=-.16$, $p<.05$). Accordingly, students who had higher emotionality, had lower trial exam score 3.

Table 7. Correlations between Anxiety Variables and Other Variables

		Trait Anxiety	Test Anxiety	TAI Emotio.	TAI Nerv.	TAI Worry
Trait Anxiety	<i>Pearson Corr.</i> <i>Sign.(2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>		.598** .000 218	.385 ** .000 218	.249 ** .000 218	.396** .000 218
Achievement Expectancy of self	<i>Pearson Corr.</i> <i>Sign.(2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>	-.205 ** .003 215	-.302 ** .000 211	-.251 ** .000 211	-.003 .962 211	-.265 ** .000 211
Achievement Expectancy of parents	<i>Pearson Corr.</i> <i>Sign.(2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>	-.007 .918 217	-.031 .657 213	.049 .480 213	.070 .311 213	-.210 ** .002 213
Achievement Expectation of teacher	<i>Pearson Corr.</i> <i>Sign.(2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>	-.096 .193 187	-.128 .082 185	-.075 .310 185	-.009 .901 185	-.143 .052 185
Importance of UEE	<i>Pearson Corr.</i> <i>Sign.(2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>	.348 ** .000 221	.311 ** .000 217	.352 ** .000 217	.053 .437 217	.086 .209 217
Trial Exam Score 1	<i>Pearson Corr.</i> <i>Sign.(2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>	-.067 .411 153	-.102 .217 149	-.101 .218 149	-.042 .608 149	-.027 .747 149
Trial Exam Score 2	<i>Pearson Corr.</i> <i>Sign.(2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>	-.105 .186 161	-.080 .320 157	-.035 .664 157	-.004 .965 157	-.112 .163 157
Trial Exam Score 3	<i>Pearson Corr.</i> <i>Sign.(2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>	-.115 .144 164	-.137 .085 160	-.159 * .044 160	.020 .804 160	-.085 .284 160
Average Trial Exam Score	<i>Pearson Corr.</i> <i>Sign.(2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>	-.071 .396 145	-.082 .332 141	-.078 .358 141	-.017 .843 141	-.048 .574 141
High School GPA	<i>Pearson Corr.</i> <i>Sign.(2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>	.094 .213 179	.056 .460 176	.056 .457 176	.058 .446 176	-.032 .676 176

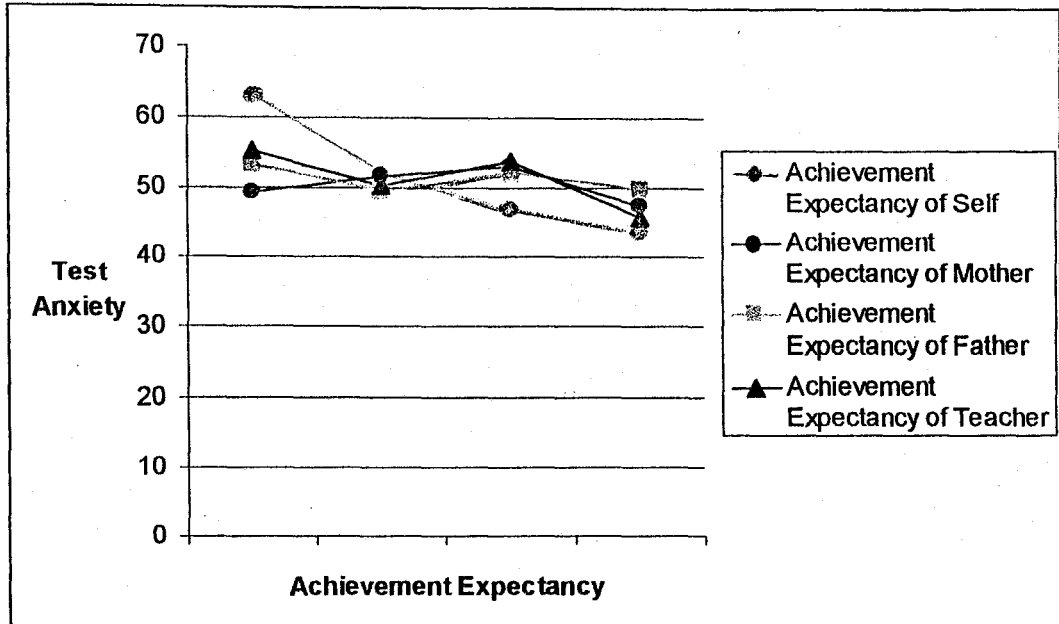
One-way ANOVA was computed to understand the relationship between test anxiety and levels of achievement expectancy. ANOVA was computed for all expectancy variables; self, parents and teacher. There were significant differences among the levels achievement expectancy of self with respect to test anxiety [$F(4,177) = 6, 179, p < .01$]. Post hoc tests indicated that subjects who rated the possibility of success as lowest (0%-25 %) had higher test anxiety level than the subjects who rated the possibility of success as %50 and %75 and %100. Similarly, the relationship between test anxiety and the achievement expectancy of the course

teacher was approaching significance; and subjects who perceived their course teacher's estimate of their success in UEE to be very low reported higher levels of test anxiety. For the relationship between achievement expectancy of the mother and the father and test anxiety, analysis failed to reveal significant results. Although not statistically significant, examining the mean scores of test anxiety for each level of perceived achievement expectancy for mother and father indicated different picture from the achievement expectancy of self. Accordingly, for perceived achievement expectancy of mother and father, there was a peaking of test anxiety at the 75% level of achievement expectancy.

Table 8. ANOVA results for achievement expectancy and test anxiety

		Test Anxiety		
		Mean	F	Sig.
Achievement Expectancy of Self	25%	63.22	7.775	.000 *
	50%	52.23		
	75%	46.79		
	100%	43.63		
Achievement Expectancy of Mother	25%	49.30	1.368	.254
	50%	51.63		
	75%	53.18		
	100%	47.32		
Achievement Expectancy of Father	25%	53.22	.447	.719
	50%	49.59		
	75%	52.04		
	100%	49.85		
Achievement Expectancy of Teacher	25%	55.22	2.470	.063
	50%	50.17		
	75%	53.88		
	100%	45.68		

Graphs of the relationship between test anxiety and achievement expectancy were presented below.



3.4. Correlations between Coping Variables and Other Variables:

Adaptive Coping

Correlational analyses indicated that, students who scored higher on adaptive coping had lower levels of trait anxiety ($r = -.25$, $p < .01$), test anxiety ($r = -.16$, $p < .05$) and worry ($r = -.21$, $p < .01$) and they had higher levels of achievement expectation of the self ($r = .22$, $p < .01$), parents ($r = .14$, $p < .05$), teacher ($r = .25$, $p < .01$), and higher trial exam scores ($r = .28$, $p < .01$, for average trial exam score), indicating positive psychological wellbeing and academic success (see Table 8)

Avoidance / Denial / Fatalistic Approach Coping

Result of correlational analysis revealed that, students who scored higher on avoidance /denial / fatalistic approach coping; had higher levels of trait anxiety ($r=.24$, $p< .01$), test anxiety ($r=.20$, $p< .01$) and worry($r=.28$, $p< .01$), and lower levels of achievement expectation of the self ($r=-.25$, $p< .01$), teacher ($r=-.23$, $p< .01$), lower high school academic achievement (GPA) ($r=-.29$, $p< .01$).

Wishful / Magical Thinking

Results of correlational analysis revealed that, students who scored higher on wishful/magical thinking coping style, had higher levels of trait anxiety ($r=.46$, $p< .01$), test anxiety ($r=.38$, $p< .01$), emotionality ($r=.39$, $p< .01$) and worry ($r=.18$, $p< .05$), gave more importance to UEE ($r=.32$, $p< .01$), had higher school academic achievement (GPA) ($r=.24$, $p< .01$) and they had lower levels of achievement expectation of the self ($r=-.18$, $p< .05$).

Table 9. Correlations between Coping Variables and Other Variables

		WOC 1 adaptive	WOC 2 avoidance denial /acceptance	WOC 3 wishful thinking
Trait Anxiety	<i>Pearson Corr.</i> <i>Sign.(2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>	-.252 ** .000 201	.243 ** .001 201	.457 ** .000 201
Test Anxiety	<i>Pearson Corr.</i> <i>Sign.(2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>	-.160 * .025 197	.201 ** .005 197	.375 ** .000 197
TAI Emotionality	<i>Pearson Corr.</i> <i>Sign.(2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>	-.054 .450 197	-.011 .882 197	.392 ** .000 197
TAI Nervousness	<i>Pearson Corr.</i> <i>Sign.(2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>	-.032 .654 197	.121 .091 197	.015 .833 197
TAI Worry	<i>Pearson Corr.</i> <i>Sign.(2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>	-.207 ** .004 197	.279 ** .000 197	.179 * .012 197
Achievement Expectancy of self	<i>Pearson Corr.</i> <i>Sign.(2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>	.215 ** .003 194	-.251 ** .000 194	-.183 * .011 194
Achievement Expectancy of parents	<i>Pearson Corr.</i> <i>Sign.(2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>	.144 * .045 196	-.107 .135 196	-.015 .833 196
Achievement Expectancy of teacher	<i>Pearson Corr.</i> <i>Sign.(2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>	.253 ** .001 170	-.230 ** .003 170	-.079 .306 170
Importance of UEE	<i>Pearson Corr.</i> <i>Sign.(2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>	.131 .066 198	-.007 .918 198	.312 ** .000 198
Trial Exam Score 1	<i>Pearson Corr.</i> <i>Sign.(2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>	.278 ** .001 144	-.076 .367 144	.018 .826 144
Trial Exam Score 2	<i>Pearson Corr.</i> <i>Sign.(2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>	.237 ** .003 151	-.082 .319 151	-.073 .374 151
Trial Exam Score 3	<i>Pearson Corr.</i> <i>Sign.(2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>	.237 ** .003 155	-.082 .310 155	-.104 .196 155
Average Trial Exam Score	<i>Pearson Corr.</i> <i>Sign.(2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>	.277 ** .001 137	-.053 .537 137	-.027 .758 137
High School GPA	<i>Pearson Corr.</i> <i>Sign.(2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>	-.033 .675 165	-.287 ** .000 165	.240 ** .002 165

3. 5. Correlations Among UEE Variables

Expectation of UEE achievement: (comparison of self, parents and teacher)

Correlational analyses revealed that, achievement expectancy of the self, parents and course teacher were positively correlated (see table 10). Therefore, students who had higher achievement expectancies also reported that their parents and teachers had higher expectancies.

In order to understand whether there were mean differences between achievement expectancy of the self and perceived achievement expectancy of mother, father and teacher; six Paired Sample T-Test were computed. Results indicated that, while there was no significant difference between perceived maternal and parental achievement expectancy of the adolescent, adolescent's achievement expectancy was significantly lower than their perceived maternal and paternal achievement expectancy. Additionally, adolescents reported that their achievement expectancy was not significantly different from their perceived achievement expectancy of course teacher. Perceived achievement expectancy of course teacher was also significantly lower than the perceived achievement expectancy of the mother and the father. It can be concluded that, students think that, their parents have higher levels expectancy than their own, on the other hand they think that their teachers had similar expectancies with them. Means and significant levels were presented in Table 11.

Table 10. Correlations among UEE variables

		Achievement Expectation of parents	Achievement Expectation of teacher	Importance of UEE	Trail Exam Score 1	Trial Exam Score 2	Trial Exam Score 3	Average Trial Exam Score	High School GPA
Achievement Expectation of Self	<i>Pearson corr.</i> <i>Sign. (2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>	.302 ** .000 216	.591 ** .000 188	.134 * .049 217	.441 ** .000 150	.390 ** .000 158	.452 ** .000 160	.446 ** .000 142	.096 .206 176
Achievement Expectation of parents	<i>Pearson corr.</i> <i>Sign. (2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>		.366 ** .000 190	.252 ** .000 219	.212 ** .009 151	.264 ** .001 159	.234 ** .003 162	.229 ** .006 143	.153 * .042 178
Achievement Expectation of teacher	<i>Pearson corr.</i> <i>Sign. (2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>			.191 ** .008 189	.548 ** .000 134	.508 ** .000 142	.583 ** .000 145	.562 ** .000 127	.223 ** .005 155
Importance of UEE	<i>Pearson corr.</i> <i>Sign. (2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>				.115 .157 153	.116 .141 161	.162 * .039 164	.152 .068 145	.083 .268 181
Trial Exam Score 1	<i>Pearson corr.</i> <i>Sign. (2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>					.896 ** .000 152	.862 ** .000 149	.959 ** .000 147	.246 ** .003 142
Trial Exam Score 2	<i>Pearson corr.</i> <i>Sign. (2-tailed)</i> <i>N</i>						.882 ** .000 149	.966 ** .000 147	.201 * .014 149
Trial Exam Score 3								.954 ** .000 147	.263 ** .001 151
Average Trial Exam Score									.235 ** .006 136

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 11. Paired Sample T-Test Results

Achievement Expectancy	Mean	SD	T	df	Sign.
Self	2.41	.80	4.24	215	.000 *
Mother	2.71	.98			
Self	2.41	.79	4.71	207	.000 *
Father	2.77	.98			
Self	2.42	.81	-.27	189	.791
Teacher	2.44	.98			
Mother	2.71	.98	1.12	211	.234
Father	2.76	.98			
Mother	2.72	.98	3.52	189	.001 *
Teacher	2.43	.98			
Father	2.77	.98	3.80	183	.000 *
Teacher	2.45	.98			

Relationship between achievement expectancy and importance of UEE

Result of correlational analyses revealed that, achievement expectancy of self ($r=.13$, $p<.05$), achievement expectancy of parents ($r=.25$, $p<.01$) and achievement expectancy of teacher ($r=.19$, $p<.01$) were significantly correlated with levels importance of UEE. Results indicated that, as the achievement expectancy levels (self, parent, teacher) increase, importance given to UEE increases. (Table 10)

Trial Exam Score

Significant relationships were found between trial exam scores and high school academic achievement, achievement expectancy of the self, parents and teacher. Results indicated that student who had higher trial exam scores (average trial exam score), had higher academic achievement in high school ($r=.24$, $p<.01$), and they had higher achievement expectancy of the self ($r=.45$, $p<.01$), parents ($r=.23$, $p<.01$) and teacher ($r=.56$, $p<.01$). Only trial exam score 3 was correlated with importance of UEE ($r=.16$, $p<.05$). Accordingly, students who had higher importance of UEE had higher trial exam score 3. (Table 10)

3.6. Multiple Regression Results

Predictors of Test Anxiety

Stepwise multiple regression analyses were conducted to determine the best predictors of Test Anxiety. Variables included in the multiple regression were trait anxiety, gender and high school GPA. Analysis revealed that the best single predictor for the test anxiety was trait anxiety. Trait anxiety explained 35% of the variance in test anxiety ($R^2 = .35$, $F(1, 173) = 92.21$, $p < .01$). When adding the gender variable, explained variance increased to 36% ($R^2 \text{ change} = .01$, $F(2, 172) = 49.17$, $p < .01$). Results indicated that students who had higher levels of trait anxiety and females had higher levels of test anxiety (Table 12).

Table 12. Regression Models as Significant Predictors of Test Anxiety

	Model	Beta	t	Sig.
1.	Trait Anxiety	.590	9.60	.000
2.	Trait Anxiety	.560	8.97	.000
	Gender	.130	2.08	.039

Predictors of Achievement Expectancy

Four separate stepwise multiple regression analyses were conducted to determine the best predictors of Achievement Expectancy of self, mother, father and teacher. Variables included in multiple regression were trial exam score 3, adaptive coping, avoidance/denial/fatalistic approach coping, wishful thinking coping, importance of UEE, second year GPA, test anxiety, trait anxiety and gender.

For the prediction of Achievement Expectancy of the Self, results revealed that trial exam score 3 was the best single predictor explaining 22% of the variance in Achievement Expectancy of the Self ($R^2 = .22$, $F(1, 133) = 36.83$, $p < .001$). When adding the scores of avoidance/denial/fatalistic approach coping, explained variance increased to 28% ($R^2 \text{ change} = .07$, $F(2, 32) = 25.70$, $p < .001$). Test anxiety had also an

effect in increasing variance (R^2 change=.03, $F(3,131)=19.48$, $p<.05$). Beta coefficients indicated that subjects who had higher trial exam score 3, used less avoidance/denial/fatalistic approach coping and had lower test anxiety had higher achievement expectancy (Table 13).

Table 13. Regression Models as Significant Predictors of Achievement

Expectancy of Self

	Model	Beta	t	Sig.
1.	Trial Exam Score	.466	6.07	.000
2.	Trial Exam Score	.457	6.18	.000
	Avoid. Coping	-.252	3.41	.001
3.	Trial Exam Score	.431	5.87	.000
	Avoid. Coping	-.216	2.90	.004
	Test Anxiety	-.174	2.31	.022

For the prediction of Perceived Maternal Achievement Expectancy, results revealed that trial exam score 3 was the best single predictor explaining 6% of the variance in Achievement Expectancy of the Mother ($R^2=.06$, $F(1, 135)=9.28$, $p<.05$). When adding the gender variable, explained variance increased to 10% (R^2 change=.04, $F(2, 134)=7.58$, $p<.05$). Avoidance/denial/fatalistic approach coping had also an effect in increasing variance (R^2 change=.03, $F(3, 133)=6.57$, $p<.001$). Importance of UEE increased variance to 16% (R^2 change=.03, $F(4,132)=6.10$, $p<.001$). Final model removed the effect of gender variable and resulted in 14% of variance explained in Achievement Expectancy of Mother ($R^2=.14$, $F(3, 133)=7.18$, $p<.001$). Beta coefficients indicated that students who had higher trial exam scores and used less avoidance/denial/fatalistic approach coping and gave higher importance to UEE thought that their mother had higher achievement expectancy (Table 14).

Table 14. Regression Models as Significant Predictors of Achievement Expectancy of Mother

	Model	Beta	t	Sig.
1.	Trial Exam Score	.254	3.05	.003
2.	Trial Exam Score	.264	3.22	.002
	Gender	.193	2.36	.020
3.	Trial Exam Score	.258	3.18	.002
	Gender	.178	2.19	.030
	Avoid. Coping	-.166	2.05	.043
4.	Trial Exam Score	.222	2.71	.008
	Gender	.134	1.62	.109
	Avoid. Coping.	-.183	2.27	.025
	Importance	.173	2.05	.042
5.	Trial Exam Score	.207	2.53	.013
	Avoid. Coping	-.198	2.46	.015
	Importance	.208	2.54	.012
	(gender removed)			

Another multiple regression was made for the prediction of Perceived Achievement Expectancy of the father. Trial exam score 3 explained 5% of the variance in Achievement Expectancy of the father ($R^2 = .05$, $F(1, 130) = 7.23$, $p < .05$). When adding the gender variable, explained variance increased to 10% (R^2 change = .05, $F(2, 129) = 6.85$, $p < .05$). Beta coefficients indicated that students who had higher trial exam scores and females thought that their father had higher achievement expectancy (Table 15).

Table 15. Regression Models as Significant Predictors of Achievement Expectancy of Father

	Model	Beta	t	Sig.
1.	Trial Exam Score	.230	2.70	.008
2.	Trial Exam Score	.241	2.87	.005
	Gender	.208	2.48	.014

For the prediction of Perceived Achievement Expectancy of the Teacher, results revealed that trial exam score 3 was the best single predictor explaining 38%

of the variance in Achievement Expectancy of the Teacher ($R^2 = .38$, $F(1, 122) = 75.41$, $p < .001$). When adding the scores of avoidance/denial/fatalistic approach coping, explained variance increased to 44% (R^2 change = .06, $F(2, 121) = 47.13$, $p < .001$). Gender had also an effect in increasing variance (R^2 change = .02, $F(3, 120) = 34.63$, $p < .001$). Beta coefficients indicated that students who had higher trial exam score 3 and used less avoidance/denial/fatalistic approach coping and females thought that their teachers had higher achievement expectancy (Table 16).

Table 16. Regression Models as Significant Predictors of Achievement Expectancy of Teacher

	Model	Beta	t	Sig.
1.	Trial Exam Score	.618	8.68	.000
2.	Trial Exam Score Avoid. Coping	.610 -.237	8.94 3.47	.000 .001
3.	Trial Exam Score Avoid. Coping Gender	.617 -.220 .163	9.22 3.27 2.42	.000 .001 .017

Predictors of Importance of UEE

Another stepwise multiple regression analyses was conducted to determine the best predictors of Importance of UEE. Variables included in multiple regression were trial exam score, adaptive coping, avoidance/denial/fatalistic approach coping, wishful thinking coping, second year GPA, test anxiety, trait anxiety and gender. Analysis revealed that the best single predictor for the Importance of UEE was trait anxiety. Trait anxiety explained 14% of the variance in Importance of UEE ($R^2 = .14$, $F(1, 122) = 19.24$, $p < .01$). When adding the adaptive coping variable, explained variance increased to 18% (R^2 change = .04, $F(2, 121) = 13.46$, $p < .01$). Results indicated that the students who had higher levels of trait anxiety and who used adaptive coping strategy, perceived UEE as more important (Table 17).

Table 17. Regression Models as Significant Predictors of Importance of UEE

	Model	Beta	T	Sig.
1.	Trait Anxiety	.369	4.39	.000
2.	Trait Anxiety	.438	5.07	.000
	Adaptive coping	.225	2.60	.010

Predictors of Current Achievement (Trial Exam Scores)

Four stepwise multiple regression analyses were conducted to determine the best predictors of Trial Exam Scores (Trial exam score 1, 2, 3 and average).

Variables included in multiple regression were second year GPA, test anxiety, trait anxiety, adaptive coping, avoidance/denial/fatalistic approach coping, wishful thinking coping and importance of UEE. Three of the multiple regressions gave exactly the same solution. Significant predictors of Trial Exam Scores 1, 2 and average were adaptive coping and second year GPA. Adaptive coping explained 10% of the variance in Average Trial Exam Score ($R^2 = .10$, $F(1, 122) = 12.96$, $p < .001$) [For Trial Exam Score 1 ($R^2 = .10$, $F(1, 127) = 13.84$, $p < .001$); for Trial Exam Score 2 ($R^2 = .09$, $F(1, 133) = 12.66$, $p < .001$)]. Adding the variable second year GPA, explained variance increased to 18% ($R^2 \text{ change} = .08$, $F(2, 121) = 13.29$, $p < .001$) [For Trial Exam Score 1 ($R^2 \text{ change} = .10$, $F(2, 126) = 15.27$, $p < .001$); for Trial Exam Score 2 ($R^2 \text{ change} = .06$, $F(2, 132) = 11.45$, $p < .001$)]. Results indicated that students who used problem focused coping, support seeking, positive reappraisal and emotional expression and who had higher academic achievement in high school had higher average trial exam scores (Table 18).

Table 18. Regression Models as Significant Predictors of Average Trial Exam Score and Trial Exam Score 1,2.

Average Trial Exam Score

Model		Beta	t	Sig.
1.	Adaptive coping	.310	3.60	.000
2.	Adaptive coping	.331	4.01	.000
	High school GPA	.291	3.52	.001

Trial Exam Score 1

Model		Beta	t	Sig.
1.	Adaptive coping	.313	3.72	.000
2.	Adaptive coping	.335	4.18	.000
	High school GPA	.312	3.89	.000

Trial Exam Score 2

Model		Beta	t	Sig.
1.	Adaptive coping	.295	3.56	.001
2.	Adaptive coping	.313	3.89	.000
	High school GPA	.247	3.07	.003

In the multiple regression of Trial Exam Score 3, two variables were added in the prediction of Trial Exam Score 3. Results revealed that adaptive coping was the best single predictor explaining 9% of the variance in Trial Exam Score 3 ($R^2 = .09$, $F(1, 136) = 13.06$, $p < .001$). When adding the scores of high school GPA, explained variance increased to 18% (R^2 change = .09, $F(2, 135) = 14.84$, $p < .001$). Wishful thinking coping strategy had also an effect in increasing variance (R^2 change = .03, $F(3, 134) = 11.87$, $p < .001$). Final variable increasing the explained variance to 26% was importance of UEE (R^2 change = .05, $F(4, 133) = 11.64$, $p < .001$).

Beta coefficients indicated that students who used more adaptive coping strategy, who had higher high school achievement, who used less wishful thinking coping strategy and who gave higher importance to UEE had higher Trial Exam 3 Scores (Table 19).

Table 19. Regression Models as Significant Predictors of Trial Exam Score 3

	Model	Beta	t	Sig.
1.	Adaptive coping	.296	3.614	.000
2.	Adaptive coping	.314	4.021	.000
	High school GPA	.305	3.905	.000
3.	Adaptive coping	.301	3.908	.000
	High school GPA	.348	4.389	.000
	Wishful thinking	-.178	-2.247	.026
4.	Adaptive coping	.281	3.736	.000
	High school GPA	.351	4.556	.000
	Wishful thinking	-.265	-3.211	.002
	Importance of UEE	.238	2.974	.003

DISCUSSION

This study explored the relationship between test anxiety, trait anxiety, University Entrance Exam (UEE) related variables (perceived importance of UEE, achievement expectation of self, perceived achievement expectation of mother, father and teacher, trial exam performance) and coping strategies employed by the students. University Entrance Examination was taken as the specific stressful event for the Turkish high school senior students and how students cope with this important life event was investigated as the main focus of the study.

As far as the author knows, this study was the first to use Lazarus and Folkman's Ways of Coping Scale to examine the coping strategies used in UEE. The factor analysis revealed three meaningful factors grouping students' coping strategies. These 3 factors reflect one adaptive and two maladaptive coping strategies. Adaptive coping strategy includes problem focused coping, support seeking, positive appraisal and emotional expression. First maladaptive coping included avoidance, denial and fatalistic approach coping. Adolescents using these coping strategies, try to forget or escape from the problem by sleeping, eating, acting out or distancing thoughts. They also may accept the situation in a maladaptive way; in other words they may engage in fatalistic thought rather than doing something. Second maladaptive coping was wishful / magical thinking, which includes efforts to cope with stressful event by dreaming, wishing, hoping or praying.

Three factor found in this study appeared to be similar to the six factor solution of Ways of Coping Scale of Lazarus and Folkman (1985). In that study, Lazarus and Folkman (1985) assessed coping strategies of American students used to deal with college examination stress. Problem focused coping, seeking social support and emphasizing the positive factors of Lazarus and Folkman correspond Adaptive

coping factor of the present study. Second factor of the present study (avoidance /denial / fatalistic approach coping) corresponds to Distancing and Tension Reduction factors. Third factor of this study (Wishful thinking coping) is exactly same factor with Wishful Thinking of Lazarus and Folkman.

An interesting and controversial aspect of the relationship between test anxiety and performance was replicated in this study. This study failed to show any significant relationship between levels of test anxiety scores and performance on trial exam scores.

Although general belief in the society is that test anxiety has negative effect on test performance, in the literature, there are contradicting results regarding the relationship between test anxiety and test performance. Different from the findings of the present study, some research indicated a negative relationship between test anxiety and test performance (Seipp, 1991; Musch & Bröder, 1999). Similarly Musch and Bröder (1999) indicated that both test anxiety and academic skills predicted test performance, additionally their results showed that academic skills were found to have higher relationship with test anxiety. The finding regarding the nonsignificant relationship between high school academic achievement and test anxiety also contradicts with the findings of Erkan (1991) who reported that highly anxious students had lower grades in high school than the students who have lower levels of test anxiety.

Trait anxiety and gender were found to be best predictors of test anxiety. Accordingly, students who had higher trait anxiety and females had higher levels of test anxiety. Strong relationship between trait anxiety and test anxiety was also supported by Kohn et al., (1991) who found that perceived stress of the individual who was taking an exam was predicted by both trait anxiety and hassles and by

Endler, Kontor and Parker (1994) who provided support for the predictor power of trait anxiety on test anxiety. Similarly Soric (1999) who focused on social-evaluative dimension of trait anxiety reported that social evaluation trait anxiety was positively related with pre-test state anxiety of high school students who were examined before school examination. Soric (1999) pointed out that general view considering test anxiety only as a state ignores the trait anxiety construct. She suggested that test anxiety should be conceptualized and measured as both a state and trait. The finding that females had higher test anxiety was also consistent with test anxiety research (Soric, 1999; Zeidner, 1994) and research on UEE (Toprak, 1992; Ekşi, 1998; Börü, 2000; Çankaya, 1997; Aysan, Thompson & Hamarat, 2001).

While there was robust relationship between trait anxiety and test anxiety, no significant relationship could be found between anxiety variables and academic achievement (both high school academic achievement and trial exam score). In the regression analyses, neither trait anxiety nor test anxiety (and factors of test anxiety) were found to be predicting the trial exam scores of students. Interestingly, regression analyses indicated that the best predictors of trial exam scores were adaptive coping strategy and high school academic achievement.

The finding of the present study supports the findings in literature regarding the nonsignificant relationship between test anxiety and performance. For example, Soric (1999) found no relationship between state of test anxiety and test achievement. Similarly, Edelman and Hardwick (1986) reported only a weak relationship between test anxiety and performance.

When compared with the UEE literature, the finding regarding the relationship between test anxiety and trial exam score supports the findings of Çankaya (1997) who showed that there was no significant relationship between test

anxiety and trial exam score. Çankaya discussed that perceived importance of the trial exam may be a mediating factor. For this nonsignificant relationship Çankaya argued that the importance given to trial exam may be significantly less than the importance given to actual UEE. However Erkan's (1991) findings showed that there was no relationship between test anxiety and scores received on UEE. On the other hand, Erkan (1991) reported that higher test anxiety and placement was negatively related. Test score is thought to be a better indicator of achievement because placement is also dependent on other factors. The students who have lower scores may be placed to a department; on the other hand the students who have higher test scores may not be placed if he/she chooses departments requiring very high scores.

Another interesting and controversial finding regarding test anxiety and test performance was found by Özdemir (2003). Özdemir found negative relationship between worry/nervousness dimensions of test anxiety and score on UEE, however he found positive relationship between emotionality dimension of test anxiety and score on UEE. He interpreted the results with the facilitative role of anxiety in academic achievement of the students. He suggested that, stress may facilitate some behaviors affecting positively the achievement of the student. Although the finding of the present study regarding test scores contradicts with the study of Özdemir (2003), finding regarding the relationship between adaptive coping style and test scores supports his discussion.

In the present study, performance on trial exams was predicted consistently by Adaptive coping and high school GPA. The importance of coping strategies appears to be found in actual performance on trial exam. In the multiple regression of Trial Exam Score 3, two additional variables were added in the prediction of Trial Exam Score 3; wishful thinking coping strategy and importance of UEE. Analysis

indicated that students who used more adaptive coping strategy, who had higher high school achievement, who used less wishful thinking coping strategy and who gave higher importance to UEE had higher Trial Exam 3 Scores.

This finding was supported by Endler, Kantor and Parker (1994) who reported that students who dealt with the stress by focusing on the task and preparing for the exam (task oriented coping strategy) received better grades. They also reported no significant relationship between emotion and avoidance coping strategies and grades. Similarly Soric (1999) found that success of high school students was predicted by problem-focused coping, on the other hand students who used imagination-rumination coping had lower success in the examination. Edwards and Trimble (1992, cited in Endler, Kontor, Hardwick, 1994) also reported negative relationship between avoidance coping style and course grade and a positive relationship between task coping response and course grade. A controversial finding was reported by Bolger (1990) reported no significant relationship between coping and test performance.

It can be concluded that, when the student employed problem-focused coping (i.e. studying, analyzing the situation, planning), support seeking (i.e. emotional support and professional support) and positive reappraisal; he/she tends to be more successful in the examination. Wishful /magical thinking coping may cause the student to take a passive stance and may interfere with his/her involvement in taking action and studying. Importance attached to UEE may affect positively the student's success by motivating him to study more and more.

While one may not be sure that the test anxiety effects performance on trial exam in same way test anxiety effects performance in the UEE, further studies can pay attention to actual UEE scores and yearlong coping strategies of the students.

The second aim of this study was investigating the relationship between coping strategies of the students and anxiety. It was found that problem focused coping, positive reappraisal and support seeking were negatively related with trait anxiety and test anxiety. On the other hand, wishful/magical thinking, avoidance, denial and fatalistic thoughts were positively related with trait anxiety and test anxiety.

These findings are supported by Soric (1999) who reported positive relationship between high test anxiety and distraction coping and by Bolger (1990) who reported that for the students who took the medical admissions exam, there were positive relationship between trait anxiety and dysfunctional coping methods like avoidance and withdrawal (i.e. wishful thinking, self-blame, distancing). Similarly Blankstein, Flett and Watson (1992) have found that both trait and state test anxiety levels of the students had moderate relationship with escape-avoidance techniques and confrontive coping. When compared with UEE literature, the findings were also consistent with the findings of Ayşan, Thompson and Hamarat (2001) who found that applicants of UEE using ineffective coping strategies (wishful thinking, self-blame and avoidance) had higher levels of test anxiety. The results contradict with Edelman and Hardwick (1986) who found that students using distraction and relaxation strategies reported lower levels of test anxiety; however, students using seeking social support and catharsis reported higher levels of test anxiety.

Although, students were asked to report how they coped with UEE stress, it may be argued that, they may use these coping strategies in other test situations also. Studies showed that, general coping style of the individuals influence their coping responses in new situations. Carver et al, (1989) found low to moderate correlations between dispositional and situational coping. Similarly Endler, Kontor and Parker

(1994) investigated the anxiety and coping of the students taking an exam and found that 25% of the variance of situation specific coping response was explained by coping style. Therefore, the results of the present study may indicate that, the coping strategies the students employed for UEE may reflect their general style in relate to academic stress.

UEE related variables:

The importance of UEE and achievement expectation scales were used second time in UEE research. Therefore this study provided additional support for the validity of these scales. Furthermore, gender differences on importance of UEE and achievement expectancy were examined for the first time. Appraisals related with University Entrance Examination appeared to be significantly related with test anxiety, coping and academic performance.

Achievement Expectation

Results indicated that achievement expectancy of self was predicted by trial exam score, avoidance/denial/fatalistic approach coping and test anxiety. Therefore students who had higher trial exam scores, used less avoidance/denial/fatalistic approach coping and had lower test anxiety had higher achievement expectancy. Perceived achievement expectancy of the parents and teacher were predicted by trial exam score and avoidance/denial/fatalistic approach coping and gender. Importance predicted only perceived achievement Expectancy of the Mother. Students who gave higher importance to UEE perceived that their mothers have higher achievement expectancy.

The positive relationship between achievement expectancy and trial exam score is reasonable. Lower achievement on trial examinations decreases students' UEE achievement expectancies. The relationship between avoidance/denial/ fatalistic

approach coping and achievement expectancy is interesting. Although avoidance coping has no effect on academic achievement, it has negative effect on student's own appraisal about his/her probability of success. Even though regression analyses revealed no significant results for adaptive coping, correlational analysis revealed that adaptive coping was positively, avoidance/denial coping was negatively related with achievement expectancy. Therefore, students who are using more taking action strategies for the examination (i.e. studying or support seeking), believes that he/she has higher probability of success. On the other hand students who using more denial, avoidance or fatalistic approach coping, believe that they have lower chances of success.

Another important finding is the negative relationship between test anxiety and achievement expectancy. As predicted, students who have higher test anxiety had lower achievement expectancy. Therefore, the student who has higher levels of anxiety thinks that he/she has lower probability of success. This result is consistent with the finding of Özdemir (2003) who showed negative relationship between test anxiety and achievement expectancy.

The relationship between achievement expectancy and test anxiety shows that, achievement expectancy may be affected by dispositional characteristics of the student. Indeed, Özdemir (2003) indicated that self-esteem was positively related with achievement expectancy but negatively related with importance of UEE. In other words students who have lower self-esteem levels have lower levels of achievement expectancy and they give high importance to UEE. It can be concluded that, although UEE related variables seem like situation specific variables; students' dispositional characteristics may also play an important role in UEE appraisals.

The last point to be discussed regarding the achievement expectancy is comparison of achievement expectancy of self, parents and teacher. As expected, achievement expectancy of the self, parents and course teacher were correlated. Interestingly, students perceived that their parents had higher achievement expectation than themselves and their teacher. It can be argued that, either students “perceive” that their parents and teachers have higher achievement expectancy or their parents and teachers “really” have higher achievement expectancy than themselves. This finding important because of the fact that students’ own UEE appraisals may be affected by parents’ appraisals. Özdemir (2002) showed that, when a student perceives that his/her close relatives give high importance to UEE, perceived threat of UEE increases which leads to heightened test anxiety and psychological symptoms. Higher perceived achievement expectancy of parents may impact the students’ UEE related experiences.

In summary, results indicated that those students who approaching UEE in a more positive attitude and behavioral output (i.e. lower test anxiety, adaptive coping, higher academic achievement) have higher achievement expectancies.

Importance of UEE

Results indicated that importance of UEE was predicted by trait anxiety and adaptive coping. Therefore the students who had higher levels of trait anxiety and who used adaptive coping strategy, perceived UEE as more important. Additionally, correlational analysis indicated significant positive relationship between importance of UEE and wishful thinking coping strategy. Students who give high importance to UEE engage in wishful/ magical thinking more as an effort to cope with UEE stress.

Relationship between anxiety and importance was similar to Özdemir’s (2003) findings; students who had higher levels of test anxiety, gave more

importance to UEE. In other words, anxious students perceive UEE as more important.

Regarding the relationship between achievement expectancy and importance of UEE, results indicate that, as the achievement expectancy of the students, parents and teacher increase, importance given to UEE increases. This result is consistent with the findings of Özdemir (2003) who showed that total achievement expectancy score was positively correlated with importance for the self.

Results regarding the relationship between UEE appraisals (importance and achievement expectancies) and anxiety, coping and academic performance showed that UEE appraisals are important situation specific factors that have complex relationships with psychological well being and academic performance of the student. Especially importance of UEE is a very important variable which may have effects on motivational and psychological aspects of UEE. The importance of appraisal was also pointed out by Soric (1999). Soric reported that students who made threat appraisal (loss of self-esteem or loss of respect of others) and who perceived academic success as less controllable had higher pre-test state anxiety. These students also used more emotion-focused coping. On the other hand, students who made challenge appraisal (positive appraisal of testing situation) and students who had higher expectation of success used more problem-focused coping.

As the stress appraisal theory suggested (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), view on stress should include both objective nature of environmental events and conditions and individual's cognitive appraisals of the environment.

Gender Differences:

Gender differences on importance of UEE and achievement expectancy were examined first time in UEE literature. Results indicated that females gave higher

importance to UEE. Interestingly, females also perceive higher achievement expectancy of parents and teacher than males. Therefore, it can be argued that, either females “perceive” their parents and teachers as having higher achievement expectancy or their parents and teachers “really” have higher achievement expectancy than males’ parents and teachers. Higher expectancy of parents of females may result from higher high school academic achievement of females. Additionally, McGrath and Repetti (2000) conducted a study on parents’ attitudes about their children’s academic performance and found that parents of girls were more satisfied with their daughters’ grades than with their son’s, although actually their academic performance was not significantly different. Higher satisfaction of the girls’ parents may cause parents to have higher expectancy.

In this study, hypothesis predicting gender differences in anxiety levels of the students was supported. Consistent with the previous literature (Endler, et al, 1991; Soric, 1999; Börü, 2000; Çankaya, 1997; Ayşan, Thompson & Hamarat, 2001) females reported higher levels of trait anxiety and test anxiety than males.

While the factors of Ways of Coping Scale didn’t differentiate adaptive and maladaptive coping strategies for males and females, it can also be concluded that hypothesis regarding gender differences in coping strategies was also supported. Results showed that although there were no gender differences in adaptive coping and avoidance/denial coping, females used more wishful/magical thinking coping than males. The results of this study support the previous findings indicating no significant difference in problem-focused strategies between girls and boys (Frydenberg and Lewis, 1993; Seiffge-Krenke, 1993). Similarly, results regarding wishful thinking support past research indicating higher usage of wishful thinking among the female adolescents (Frydenberg and Lewis, 1993; Seiffge-Krenke, 1993,

Halstead, Johnson and Cunningham (1993). As Frydenberg and Lewis (1993) suggested, although girls engage more in wishful thinking, they don't give up taking action to deal with their problems.

The similarities between genders regarding usage of social support, avoidance and fatalistic approach contradicts with that of Seiffge-Krenke (1993) who found that girls used more social support and they tended to rely on fatalistic approach more and with the findings of Halstead, Johnson and Cunningham (1993) who suggested that females used more social support, males used more avoidance.

Similarities between the trial exam scores of males and females, in spite of the higher high school academic achievement of the girls pointed out that high school education in Turkey and UEE don't measure same things.

In summary, it can be argued that although females approach UEE with more overwhelming experience than males, they don't give up to take action and study and they may be as successful as males.

Implications of this study:

The most important contribution of this study was the support for the interactional view on stress and coping. Results showed that stressful events have dynamic nature and stress research should consider both personality characteristics such as trait anxiety, coping style, self-esteem, locus of control etc. and situation-specific variables such as appraisals related with the stressful event, state anxiety, situation specific coping responses.

This study provided evidence for the importance of coping strategies on academic achievement of the students. Coping strategies appeared to be more influential on academic achievement than test anxiety. Results indicated that students should cope with examination stress by focusing on the problem, seeking social

support, positive reappraisal and emotional expression. Counseling services of the schools and private preparation courses should plan the intervention and treatment programs which aim to increase the awareness of the students about their coping efforts and should try to develop students' usage of effective and healthy coping strategies.

This study shows that students' UEE related thoughts and feelings have an effect on coping strategies and academic achievement. Counseling services also should focus on students' and their families' attitudes and feelings about UEE and should aim to change irrational or unhealthy attitudes that may have devastating effects on coping, psychological well-being and UEE achievement.

One of the strengths of this study is the investigation of coping behavior of the adolescents who experience the same stressful event. Coping literature have shortcomings because of ignoring the differentiation of stressful events. Although individuals have general coping style, they use different coping strategies in different stressful experiences. Coping should be investigated by focusing on the events that may be identical for all individuals. UEE is such an identical experience that is shared by most of the Turkish adolescents.

Limitations of this study:

The sample of this study includes students attending five private preparation courses located in Kadıkoy, Istanbul who can not represent all of the UEE applicants in Turkey. Because of the fact that educational opportunities is not equal for all Turkish students, UEE related thoughts and feelings and UEE achievement probably will be different for applicants from different SES and different regions of Turkey. Therefore, driving generalizations from these results should be avoided.

Another limitation of this study was the assessment of UEE achievement with Trial Exam Score. Trial examinations may not be regarded as replication of actual UEE and performance on Trial Exam may not reflect actual performance in UEE. Therefore, interpreting the relationship between test anxiety, coping and trial exam score should be done cautiously. Further studies should use actual scores taken in UEE in order to draw more valid interpretations.

Future Research:

This study suggested that, there is complex relationship between anxiety, coping, UEE related thoughts and feelings and success in UEE. Coping strategies used by the students were found to be both effected by dispositional characteristics and situation specific responses of the students. Firstly, further research may investigate what these dispositional characteristics are and who are in the risk group of maladaptive coping. For example, the relationship between coping strategies and characteristics related with self-concept or general psychological well-being may be examined. General coping style of the student may also be investigated. In this study, situation specific (UEE) coping responses were assessed. The effect of general coping style on the coping with UEE may be another future research question. Secondly, situation-specific variables, in other words UEE related appraisals should also be investigated. Because UEE related thoughts and feelings appeared to be related with dispositional variables and coping strategies of the students. Further research may investigate the meaning of UEE for different group of students in a more detailed way. The level of control students feel in UEE success, thoughts and feelings related with success and failure in UEE may be the issues that may be examined in the future.

Dynamic nature of coping strategies suggests that individuals use different coping strategies in different phases of stressful events. UEE preparation is the long lasting stressful and challenging period for the Turkish students. This study investigated coping strategies used as an effort to dealing with UEE stress without specifying the phases of UEE preparation. Further research may investigate coping strategies in different phases of UEE preparation and may examine changes in these coping strategies.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1.

Demographic Data Form

1. Yaş:
2. Cinsiyet: __ Kadın () Erkek ()
3. Okuduğunuz lisenizin tipi:

Düz lise ()	Anadolu lisesi ()	Özel Türk kolej ()
Endüstri Meslek Lisesi ()	Fen lisesi ()	Özel yabancı kolej ()
4. Lise 2 not ortalamanız: _____
5. Son dönem (Lise 3- 1.dönem) not ortalamanız: _____
6. Dershanedeki alanınız nedir? _____

Sözel ()	Sayısal ()	Eşit ağırlıklı ()	Dil ()
-----------	-------------	--------------------	---------
7. Kaç yıldır dershaneye gidiyorsunuz? _____
8. Dershaneye ek olarak özel ders alıyor musunuz? __Evet () Hayır ()
9. Annenizin eğitimini bitirdiği eğitim yılı (örn: orta 2, lise 3) _____
 Babanızın eğitimini bitirdiği eğitim yılı (örn: orta 2, lise 3) _____
10. Ailenizin ekonomik durumunu nasıl tanımlarsınız?

çok düşük ()	düşük ()	orta ()	yüksek ()	çok yüksek ()
---------------	-----------	----------	------------	----------------
11. **Genelde** (şu sıra değil) kendinizi ne kadar kaygılı bir insan olarak tanımlarsınız?

Çok kaygılı ()	Kaygılı ()	Orta ()	Biraz kaygılı ()	Kaygısız ()
-----------------	-------------	----------	-------------------	--------------
12. Daha önce üniversite sınavına girmiş kardeşiniz var mı? __Evet () Hayır ()
13. *Girdiyse* kazandı mı? __Evet () Hayır ()
14. Son üç deneme sınavından aldığınız puanları belirtiniz. 1) _____ 2) _____ 3) _____

Appendix 2.

Achievement Expectancy

Aşağıda sizin ve size yakın kişilerin sınavı kazanma ihtimalinize ilişkin görüşlerini(zi) değerlendiriniz. Lütfen, aşağıdaki yüzdelerden birini işaretleyiniz.

	Kazanma ihtimalim yok			Kesinlikle kazanırım	
	% 0	% 25	% 50	% 75	% 100
Size göre, sizin sınavı kazanma ihtimaliniz nedir?	% 0	% 25	% 50	% 75	% 100
Annenize göre, sizin sınavı kazanma ihtimaliniz nedir?	% 0	% 25	% 50	% 75	% 100
Babanıza göre, sizin sınavı kazanma ihtimaliniz nedir?	% 0	% 25	% 50	% 75	% 100
Dershane öğretmenlerinize göre, sizin sınavı kazanma ihtimaliniz nedir?	% 0	% 25	% 50	% 75	% 100

Appendix 3.

Importance of UEE

Aşağıda ÖSS ilişkili olarak verilen ifadelerin, duygu ve düşüncelerinizi dikkate alarak sizin için ne derecede doğru olduğunu belirtiniz.

	Kesinlikle yanlış	Çok yanlış	Yanlış	Kararsızım	Doğru	Çok doğru	Kesinlikle doğru
1. Bu sınavı kazanmak benim için çok önemlidir	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Sınavı kazanamazsam çok üzülürüm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Sınavı kazanamama ihtimalimi düşünmüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Sınavı kazanmak geleceğimi kurtaracak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Saygın bir meslek sahibi olmam bu sınavı kazanmama bağlı.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Sınavı kazanmazsam ailemden utanırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Sınavı kazanırsam beni sevenleri de mutlu edeceğim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Etrafımdaki herkes sınavı kazanmamı bekliyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Sınavı kazanırsam çok mutlu olacağım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Sınavı kazanırsam kendimi daha iyi hissedeceğim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Sınavı kazanamazsam kendimden utanırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix 4.
Trait Anxiety Inventory

Aşağıda kişilerin kendilerine ait duyguları anlatmakta kullandıkları bir takım ifadeler verilmiştir. Her ifadeyi okuyun, sonra da genel olarak nasıl hissettiğinizi, ifadelerin sağ tarafındaki parantezlerden uygun olanını işaretlemek suretiyle belirtin. Doğru ya da yanlış cevap yoktur. Herhangi bir ifadenin üzerinde fazla zaman sarf etmeksizin genel olarak nasıl hissettiğinizi gösteren cevabı işaretleyin.

	Hiç bir zaman	Bazen	Çoğu zaman	Hemen her zaman
1. Genellikle keyfim yerindedir	1	2	3	4
2. Genellikle çabuk yorulurum	1	2	3	4
3. Genellikle çabuk ağlarım	1	2	3	4
4. Başkaları kadar mutlu olmak isterim	1	2	3	4
5. Çabuk karar veremediğim için fırsatları kaçıırım.	1	2	3	4
6. Kendimi dinlenmiş hissederim.	1	2	3	4
7. Genellikle sakin, kendime hakim ve soğukkanlıyım.	1	2	3	4
8. Güçlüklerin yenemeyeceğim kadar biriktiğini hissederim.	1	2	3	4
9. Önemsiz şeyler hakkında endişelenirim.	1	2	3	4
10. Genellikle mutluyum.	1	2	3	4
11. Her şeyi ciddiye alır ve etkilenirim.	1	2	3	4
12. Genellikle kendime güvenim yoktur.	1	2	3	4
13. Genellikle kendimi emniyette hissederim.	1	2	3	4
14. Sıkıntılı ve güç durumlarla karşılaşmaktan kaçınırım	1	2	3	4
15. Genellikle kendimi hüzünlü hissederim.	1	2	3	4
16. Genellikle hayatımdan memnunum.	1	2	3	4
17. Olur olmaz düşünceler beni rahatsız eder.	1	2	3	4
18. Hayal kırıklıklarımı öylesine ciddiye alırım ki hiç unutamam.	1	2	3	4
19. Akli başında ve kararlı bir insanım.	1	2	3	4
20. Son zamanlarda kafama takılan konular beni rahatsız eder.	1	2	3	4

Appendix 5.

Test Anxiety Inventory

Aşağıda, insanların kendilerini tanımlamak için kullandıkları bir dizi ifade sıralanmıştır. Bunların her birini dikkatlice okuyun ve genel olarak nasıl hissettiğinizi gösteren ifadeyi sağdaki ölçek üzerinde işaretleyiniz.

	Hiç bir zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Sık sık	Her zaman
1. Sınav sırasında kendimi güvenli ve rahat hissederim	1	2	3	4	5
2. O dersten alacağım notu düşünmek sınav sırasındaki başarıyı olumsuz yönde etkiler	1	2	3	4	5
3. Önemli sınavlarda donup kalırım	1	2	3	4	5
4. Sınavlar sırasında, bir gün okulu bitirip bitiremeyeceğim konusunda düşünmekten kendimi alamam	1	2	3	4	5
5. Bir sınav sırasında, ne kadar çok uğraşırsam kafam o kadar karışıkır	1	2	3	4	5
6. Sınavlarda kendimi huzursuz ve rahatsız hissederim	1	2	3	4	5
7. Önemli bir sınav sırasında kendimi çok sınırlı hissederim	1	2	3	4	5
8. Başarısız olma düşünceleri dikkatimi sınav üzerinde toplamama engel olur	1	2	3	4	5
9. Bir sınava çok iyi hazırlandığım zamanlar bile kendimi oldukça sınırlı hissederim	1	2	3	4	5
10. Önemli sınavlarda sınırlarım öylesine gerilir ki midem bulanır	1	2	3	4	5
11. Bir sınav kağıdını geri almadan önce çok huzursuz olurum	1	2	3	4	5
12. Önemli sınavlarda kendimi adeta yenilgiye iterim	1	2	3	4	5
13. Sınavlar sırasında kendimi çok gergin hissederim	1	2	3	4	5
14. Önemli bir sınav sırasında paniğe kapılırım	1	2	3	4	5
15. Sınavların beni bu kadar rahatsız etmemesini isterdim	1	2	3	4	5
16. Önemli bir sınava girmeden önce çok endişelenirim	1	2	3	4	5
17. Sınavlar sırasında, başarısız olmanın sonuçlarını düşünmekten kendimi alamam	1	2	3	4	5
18. Önemli sınavlarda kalbimin çok hızlı attığını hissederim	1	2	3	4	5
19. Sınav sona erdikten sonra endişelenmemeye çalışırım fakat yapamam	1	2	3	4	5
20. Sınavlar sırasında öylesine sınırlı olurum ki aslında bildiğim şeyleri bile unuturum	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix 6.
Ways of Coping Scale (WOC)

Lütfen aşağıdaki her bir maddeyi okuyun. Üniversite sınavı ve sınavla ilgili olarak yaşadığınız zor an/durumlarda bu yöntemleri ne ölçüde kullandığınızı, uygun kategoriye daire içine alarak işaretleyin.

	Kullanmadım	Biraz kullandım	Epey kullandım	Çok fazla kullandım
1. Yalnızca bir sonraki adımda yapmam gereken şeye konsantre oldum	0	1	2	3
2. Problemi daha iyi anlamak için onu analiz etmeye çalıştım.	0	1	2	3
3. Dikkatimi sorunlardan uzaklaştırmak için işe veya yerine geçecek başka bir faaliyete koyuldum.	0	1	2	3
4. Yapılacak tek şeyin beklemek olduğunu düşündüm ve her şeyi zamana bıraktım.	0	1	2	3
5. Bu durumdan olumlu bir şey çıkarabilmek için pazarlık ettim ya da ödün verdim.	0	1	2	3
6. İşe yaramayacağını düşündüğüm halde bir şeyler yaptım, en azından bir şeyler yapıyordum.	0	1	2	3
7. Sorumlu olan kişiyi fikrini değiştirmesi için ikna etmeye çalıştım.	0	1	2	3
8. Durum hakkında daha fazla bilgi edinmek için biriyle konuştum.	0	1	2	3
9. Kendi kendimi eleştirdim veya kendime kızdım	0	1	2	3
10. Köprüleri yakmamaya, bazı kapıları açık bırakmaya çalıştım.	0	1	2	3
11. Bir mucize olmasını umut ettim.	0	1	2	3
12. Kaderime razı oldum, sadece bazen çok şanssızım.	0	1	2	3
13. Sanki hiç bir şey olmamış gibi devam ettim.	0	1	2	3
14. Duygularımı kendime saklamaya çalıştım.	0	1	2	3
15. Olayların iyi yanını görmeye çalıştım.	0	1	2	3
16. Her zamankinden fazla uyudum.	0	1	2	3

	Kullanmadım	Biraz kullandım	Epey kullandım	Çok fazla kullandım
17. Soruna neden olan kişiye ya da kişilere öfkemi gösterdim.	0	1	2	3
18. Başka birinin sempati ve anlayışını kabul ettim.	0	1	2	3
19. Kendi kendime, kendimi daha iyi hissettiren şeyler söyledim.	0	1	2	3
20. Yaratıcı bir şeyler yapmak için esinlendim.	0	1	2	3
21. Her şeyi unutmaya çalıştım.	0	1	2	3
22. Bir uzmandan psikolojik yardım aldım.	0	1	2	3
23. İyi yönde değiştim ya da olgunlaştım.	0	1	2	3
24. Bir şey yapmadan önce, ne olabileceğini görmek için bekledim.	0	1	2	3
25. Arayı düzeltmek için özür diledim veya bir şeyler yaptım.	0	1	2	3
26. Bir hareket planı yaptım ve onu izledim.	0	1	2	3
27. Kendi isteğim yerine, daha az iyi olanına razı oldum.	0	1	2	3
28. Bir şekilde duygularımı dışa vurdum.	0	1	2	3
29. Problemi kendimin açtığını farkettim.	0	1	2	3
30. Bu deneyimden, başlangıcındaki halime göre daha iyi bir noktada çıktım.	0	1	2	3
31. Problemlerle ilgili somut bir şeyler yapabilecek biriyle konuştum.	0	1	2	3
32. Bir süreliğine sorundan uzaklaştım; dinlenmeye veya tatil yapmaya çıktım.	0	1	2	3
33. Yiyerek, içerek, sigara kullanarak, uyuşturucu ya da ilaç kullanarak kendimi daha iyi hissetmeye çalıştım.	0	1	2	3
34. Büyük bir rizikoyu göze aldım veya çok riskli şeyler yaptım.	0	1	2	3
35. Çok fazla aceleci davranmamaya veya ilk önsezimi izlememeye çalıştım.	0	1	2	3
36. Yeni bir inanç buldum.	0	1	2	3

	Kullanmadım	Biraz kullandım	Epey kullandım	Çok fazla kullandım
37. Gururumu korudum ve metin oldum.	0	1	2	3
38. Yaşamda neyin önemli olduğunu yeniden keşfettim.	0	1	2	3
39. Sorunun olumlu bir hale dönmesi için bir şeyleri değiştirdim.	0	1	2	3
40. Genelde insanlarla beraber olmaktan kaçındım.	0	1	2	3
41. Beni etkilemesine izin vermedim, sorun hakkında çok fazla düşünmeyi reddettim.	0	1	2	3
42. Saygı duyduğum bir akrabamdan veya arkadaşımından tavsiye istedim.	0	1	2	3
43. Ne kadar kötü şeyler olduğunu başkalarından sakladım	0	1	2	3
44. Durumu hafife aldım, bu konuda çok ciddi olmayı reddettim.	0	1	2	3
45. Biriyle nasıl hissettiğim hakkında konuştum.	0	1	2	3
46. Boyun eğmedim ve istediğim şey için savaştım.	0	1	2	3
47. Hıncımı diğer insanlardan çıkardım.	0	1	2	3
48. Geçmiş tecrübelerimi kullandım, daha önce de benzer bir durum yaşamıştım.	0	1	2	3
49. Ne yapılması gerektiğini biliyordum, bu yüzden işleri yoluna koymak için çabalarımı iki katına çıkardım.	0	1	2	3
50. Bunun olduğuna inanmayı reddettim.	0	1	2	3
51. Kendi kendime, bir dahaki sefere olayların daha farklı olacağına dair söz verdim.	0	1	2	3
52. Problem için bir kaç tane farklı çözüm buldum.	0	1	2	3
53. Yapılacak bir şey olmadığı için, durumu kabul ettim.	0	1	2	3
54. Duygularımın diğer şeylere çok fazla engel olmasını önlemeye çalıştım.	0	1	2	3
55. Olan şeyi veya nasıl hissettiğimi değiştirebilmeği isterdim.	0	1	2	3
56. Kendimle ilgili bazı şeyleri değiştirdim.	0	1	2	3

	Kullanmadım	Biraz kullandım	Epey kullandım	Çok fazla kullandım
57. O anda olduğumdan daha iyi bir zamanda veya yerde olmayı düşledim veya hayal ettim.	0	1	2	3
58. Sorunun çekip gitmesini veya bir şekilde sona ermesini diledim.	0	1	2	3
59. Meselelerin nasıl sonuçlanabileceğine dair hayaller kurdum ve dilekler diledim.	0	1	2	3
60. Dua ettim.	0	1	2	3
61. Kendimi en kötüsü için hazırladım.	0	1	2	3
62. Aklımda, ne söyleyeceğimin veya ne yapacağımın üstünden geçtim.	0	1	2	3
63. Takdir ettiğim birinin bu durumu nasıl ele alacağını düşündüm ve bunu örnek aldım.	0	1	2	3
64. Meseleleri diğer kişinin bakış açısından görmeye çalıştım.	0	1	2	3
65. Meselelerin daha ne kadar kötü olabileceğini kendi kendime hatırlattım.	0	1	2	3
66. Koşuya, yürüyüşe çıktım veya egzersiz yaptım.	0	1	2	3
67. Yukarıdakilerden tamamen farklı bir şeyler yaptım (Lütfen tarif edin)	0	1	2	3