

CROSS-CULTURAL DIFFERENCES IN COPING STRATEGIES
AS PREDICTORS OF UNIVERSITY ADJUSTMENT OF
TURKISH AND U.S. STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

CROSS-CULTURAL DIFFERENCES IN COPING STRATEGIES AS THE PREDICTORS OF UNIVERSITY ADJUSTMENT OF TURKISH AND U.S. STUDENTS

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The purpose of this study is to examine the differences in the effects of different coping strategies on different dimensions of university adjustment of the first-year students in Turkey and in the United States.

The data were gathered by administering three instruments, Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire (SACQ), Brief COPE, and Demographic Sheet (DS) to 1143 first-year university students from Turkey (n = 695) and U.S. (n = 448). In the data analysis, first, the equivalence of the instruments between Turkish and U.S. samples were determined. A series of multiple hierarchical regression analysis was then carried out to examine the cultural differences in coping strategies (Self-Distraction, Active Coping, Denial, Substance Use, Using Emotional Support, Behavioral Disengagement, Positive Reframing, Planning, Humor, and Religion) as predictors of overall and four dimensions of university adjustment, namely, Academic Adjustment, Social Adjustment, Personal/Emotional Adjustment, and Goal Commitment/Institutional Attachment.

The results revealed that there were cross-cultural differences in the effects of behavioral disengagement on social adjustment, goal commitment/institutional

attachment, and overall adjustment. Differences were also found for the effects of religion and positive reframing on personal/emotional and overall adjustment. Finally, the effect of active coping was found to be significantly different on academic adjustment of first-year students from Turkey and the U.S.

Keywords: Cross-cultural differences, coping strategies, university adjustment.

ÖZ

TÜRK VE AMERİKAN ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN ÜNİVERSİTEYE UYUMLARINI YORDAYAN BAŞA ÇIKMA STRATEJİLERİNDEKİ KÜLTÜRLER ARASI FARKLILIKLAR

Tuna, Mânâ Ece

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Bu araştırmada, Türkiye ve Amerika Birleşik Devletleri'nde üniversiteye yeni başlayan öğrencilerin kullandıkları başa çıkma stratejilerinin üniversiteye uyumun farklı boyutlarına etkileri açısından farklılıklar bulunup bulunmadığı araştırılmıştır

Veriler, Üniversite Öğrencileri Uyum Ölçeği (SACQ), Başa Çıkma Stratejileri Kısa Formu (Brief COPE) ve Demografik Anket (DA)'in üniversiteye yeni başlayan toplam 1143 (695 Türk, 448 Amerikalı) öğrenciye uygulanmasıyla elde edilmiştir. Veri analizinin ilk aşamasında Türk ve A.B.D. örneklemelerinde kullanılan ölçeklerin eşitlik çalışmaları yapılmıştır. İkinci aşamada ise, üniversiteye uyumun dört alt ölçeği (Akademik, Sosyal, Kişisel/Duygusal Uyum ve Amaç Edinme/Kurumsal Bağlanma) ile toplam üniversiteye uyum puanını yordayan başa çıkma stratejilerindeki (Aktif Başa Çıkma, Planlama, Duygusal Sosyal Destek Arama, Davranışsal Uzaklaşma, Dikkatini Başka Yöne Yönelme, Olumlu Yönde Yeniden Yorumlama, Reddetme, Din, Madde Kullanımı, Mizah) kültürler arası farklılıkların incelenmesi için bir seri çoklu hiyerarşik regresyon analizi yapılmıştır.

Bulgular, davranışsal uzaklaşma stratejisinin sosyal uyum, amaç edinme/kurumsal bağlanma ve toplam üniversite uyum puanlarına etkisinde kültürler arası farklılıklar olduğunu göstermiştir. Bir diğer kültürler arası farklılık da olumlu yönde yeniden yorumlama ve dinsel başa çıkma stratejilerinin kişisel/duygusal uyum ve toplam üniversite uyum puanlarına etkisinde bulunmuştur. Son olarak, aktif başa çıkma stratejisinin akademik uyuma etkisinde kültürler arası farklılık bulunmuştur.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Kültürler arası farklılıklar, başa çıkma stratejileri, üniversiteye uyum.

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I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

December 2, 2003

Signature

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Adjustment, as a psychological concept, generally refers to “behavior that permits people to meet the demands of the environment” (Rathus & Nevid, 1986, p. 10). More specifically, it is defined as “processes by which people respond to environmental pressures and cope with stress” (Rathus & Nevid, 1989, p. 11). The emphasis on the concepts of “process” and “coping” in the second definition seems to indicate the changes in the emphasis of different theoretical approaches to adjustment. Several theoretical approaches explain the concept of adjustment based on their own view of human nature; three of them are considered as main approaches: the psychoanalytic perspective, the learning perspective, and the humanistic perspective. In brief, the psychoanalytic perspective, by emphasizing the unconscious, explains adjustment as a way of partial outlets of impulses while managing to avoid social disapproval. The learning perspective views adjustment as a process of learning to give rewarding responses to environmental stimulation. The humanistic perspective, by its clear emphasis on the individuals’ active role in the adjustment process, argues that individuals are “actors” rather than “reactors” in the process of adjustment in the sense of being motivated to “becoming”, that is, “adjustment ... is holding [*ones*]’ own in the face of environmental challenges” (Rathus & Nevid, 1986, p. 13).

However, Lazarus (1976), with his unique emphasis on stress and coping, stated that adjustment consisted of two kinds of processes. First, the individual fits him/herself into his/her environment. Second, the individual changes the environment to suit his/her needs or values. He then pointed out two perspectives of

adjustment: achievement and process each reflecting different purposes. When adjustment is regarded as achievement, it is considered as the evaluation of adjustment in terms of the degree of accomplishment for the purpose of doing something about adjustment. When adjustment is defined as a process, some questions like “how do people adjust under different circumstances?” and “what factors influence the adjustment?” arise for the purpose of understanding adjustment for its own sake. Although Lazarus emphasized the overlapping of these two perspectives of adjustment, there is no doubt that his emphases on the “process” provide a great deal of contribution to the studies of adjustment in terms of increasing the understanding of the dynamics of adjustment. The models he proposed to explain the factors affecting adjustment also clarify this view. In brief, the medical-biological model explains the cause of failure of adjustment with hereditary or genetic factors implicated in many or most mental illnesses. The sociogenic model focuses on the role of social institutions and culture on patterns of adjustment. The psychogenic model, on the other hand, by considering the role of social experience (i.e., the way the individual has been reared, the influences to which he/she was subjected to growing up, and the special experiences that have shaped his/her psychological development) in affecting individual personality, assumes that this pattern of experiences, especially in early life, contributes to one’s relative vulnerability or invulnerability to adjustive failure under the stresses of life (Lazarus, 1976). The main contribution of these three models is to explain the process of adjustment by emphasizing its biological, psychological, and sociological aspects. In other words, the propositions of these models seem to suggest the multidimensional nature of adjustment.

All these theoretical approaches, one way or another, describe how individuals respond to the challenges of life or struggle to manage their social and physical environment. These theoretical arguments also suggest that the concept of adjustment is inherently related to life problems or challenges, and that these problems/challenges force the individuals to exhibit different types of behaviors called “coping” which is a complex and a wide spread field of study in the psychology literature.

Coping has been defined as “cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage (master, reduce, or tolerate) a troubled person-environment relationship” (Folkman &

Lazarus, 1985, p. 152). More specifically, it is defined as “process-a person’s ongoing efforts in thought and action to manage specific demands appraised as taxing or overwhelming” (Lazarus, 1993, p. 8).

According to the theory of stress and coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), when individuals are faced with a stressful situation they evaluate it based on the principles of cognitive appraisal: Primary and secondary appraisals. During the primary appraisal process, individuals, in the case of evaluating the situation as stressful, appraise the potential outcome as threat, challenge, or harm-loss. During the secondary appraisal process, the individuals evaluate coping resources and options. According to Lazarus and Folkman, coping has two major functions: problem-focused coping (changing the stressful situation through problem solving, decision making, and/or direct action) and emotion-focused coping (regulating the distressing emotions by minimizing threat, seeking emotional support, wishful thinking and self-blame). Lazarus (1993) also underlined one major issue regarding his explanation of coping. He mentioned that coping is highly contextual, that is, “since to be effective it must change over time and across different stressful conditions” (p. 8).

In the line of these theoretical arguments, several attempts have been made to identify different coping behaviors. Among them, a line of studies carried out by a group of researchers (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989; Carver & Scheier, 1994) is one of the most acknowledged ones in the literature. Researchers, in the development of the theoretical basis for coping strategies emphasized one point which was different from Lazarus and Folkman’s (1984) proposition in the sense that coping strategies are situational as well as dispositional in nature rather than being merely situational. This difference in approach was also evident in their effort to develop measures for coping strategies, depending on whether the coping strategy was dispositional or situational. These researchers, largely following Lazarus’ model, identified some coping strategies, which were also based on the proposed dimensions like problem-focused coping (active coping, planning, suppression of competing activities, restraint coping, and seeking instrumental social support), emotion-focused coping (seeking emotional social support, focusing on and venting of emotions, positive reinterpretation and growth, acceptance, denial and turning to religion) and disengagement coping (behavioral disengagement, mental disengagement, and

alcohol and drug disengagement). Besides, coping strategies were theoretically identified as functional and less functional (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989). Studies generally demonstrated the differences between these two dimensions, indicating that, active coping, planning, suppression of competing activities, restraint coping, social support for instrumental and emotional reasons, positive reinterpretation and growth, acceptance, and using religion were found to be as functional (e.g., McCrae & Costa, 1986) whereas focusing on and venting of emotions, behavioral disengagement, mental disengagement, denial, and alcohol and drug disengagement were accepted as less functional (e.g., Aldwin & Revenson, 1987; Matthews, Siegel, Kuller, Thompson, & Varat, 1983). All theoretical and empirical studies indicated the complex nature of coping strategies in stressful situations.

Theoretical and empirical evidence regarding the interrelationship between adjustment and coping tend to raise another issue that should be considered, that is, the conceptualization of life challenges. Although individuals encounter with several stressful situations throughout their life, only some of them are emphasized and defined as identifiable events. The distinguished characteristics of these identifiable events have elicited some areas of adjustment such as marital adjustment, vocational adjustment, and school adjustment among others.

University life is also considered to be a stressful experience for students, since they need to learn to cope with a variety of challenges. These challenges are particularly striking for the first-year students since they are expected to take actions to meet academic demands, become integrated into the social life of the university, manage new social freedoms, become more individualistic, and question their relationships with both same sex and opposite sex friends. Some students are able to deal with these transitional problems in a constructive way and increase their level of adjustment to university, whereas others feel overwhelmed and unable to meet the demands of their new roles effectively, leading them to experience difficulties in adjusting to university.

Three models have been proposed to increase the understanding of university student development, namely, vectors of student development (Chickering, 1969), theory of student involvement (Astin, 1984/1999), and theory of student departure (Tinto, 1988). According to Chickering's (1969) seven "vectors of development"

theory, the growth in each of the seven vectors and the interaction among the vectors helps the university student to develop a sense of competence, the management of emotions, a sense of autonomy, an identity, increased tolerance and respect in relationships, clarified purposes and values. Astin (1984/1999), in his student development theory emphasized the importance of “student involvement with the university” referring to the students’ incorporation in academic work, participation in extracurricular activities, and interaction with faculty and other institutional personnel; and he explained the student involvement in terms of positive association between the level of student involvement with the university and the level of student learning and personal development. Tinto (1987, as cited in Boyle, 1989), in his theory of student departure, explained the reasons and the process of student departure from the university and identified three stages (Tinto, 1988), namely, the stage of separation, transition to university, and incorporation in university, through which students must typically pass during the years in the university.

During the last two decades, however, university adjustment has been considered as a multifaceted phenomenon (Baker, McNeil, & Siryk, 1985; Baker & Siryk, 1984a; 1986). Baker and Siryk (1984a), by developing an instrument based on the proposition of the multidimensionality of university adjustment, presented four different components of the concept namely, academic adjustment, social adjustment, personal/emotional adjustment, and goal commitment/institutional attachment. Academic adjustment involves evaluation of academic goals, academic requirements, and academic efforts, and acceptance of the academic environment. Social adjustment refers to participation in social activities at university, establishing supportive relationships, dealing with a new social environment effectively. Personal/emotional adjustment includes the psychological and physical well-being of the students. Important elements of goal commitment/institutional attachment are satisfaction with being in university in general and satisfaction with being at a particular university (Baker & Siryk, 1984a).

Studies investigating the multidimensional nature of university adjustments revealed that these dimensions were significantly correlated with other theoretically relevant criteria, such as attrition from schools (e.g., Gerdes & Mallinckrodt, 1994), academic success (e.g., Kaczmarek, Matlock, & Franco, 1990), place of residence

(e.g., Pascarella & Terenzini, 1980), student-faculty interaction (e.g., Strage, 2000), major decision making (e.g., Smith & Baker, 1987).

The results of these studies support the view that different dimensions of university adjustment are liable to several stressful experiences for students. Under all these stressful conditions university students are expected to develop more appropriate coping strategies in order to increase their level of adjustment.

However, research concerning the role of coping strategies on university adjustment is rather limited (Jorgensen & Dusek, 1990; Leong, Bonz, & Zachar, 1997; Tao, Dong, Pratt, Hunsberger, & Pancer, 2000). For example, a research (Jorgensen & Dusek, 1990) on university adjustment and coping demonstrated that optimally adjusted adolescents used more salutary coping efforts, such as, developing a plan of action, utilizing social resources for emotional support and discussion of problems, and engaging in physical, cognitive, and scholastic activities. In another study, Leong, Bonz, and Zachar (1997) found that active coping was the predictor of academic and personal/emotional adjustment of first-year university students. Personal/emotional adjustment, however, was negatively related to focus on and venting of emotions. The study of Tao, Dong, Pratt, Hunsberger, and Pancer (2000) yielded an indirect evidence of the relationship between coping and adjustment and found that overall social support was significantly related to first-year students' use of positive coping patterns; social support was more closely related to social adjustment than academic adjustment; and coping strategies were the mediators in the relationship between social support and university adjustment.

These two broad lines of research, university adjustment and coping, when examined within a context of culture, which is the main focus of this study, convey the principles of cross-cultural psychology. Berry, Poortinga, Segall, and Dasen (1992) defined cross cultural psychology as “the study of similarities and differences in individual psychological functioning in various cultural and ethnic groups; of the relationships between psychological variables and sociocultural, ecological, and biological variables; and of current changes in these variables.” (p. 2). From the psychological point of view, culture includes “... a variety of psychological features, ...such as adjustment, problem solving, learning, and habits” (p. 166). These definitions seem to suggest that, in understanding the cross-cultural differences in the relationship between university adjustment and coping, any endeavour to increase

adjustment and to make preferences of coping strategies inevitably brings the issues of an individual's appraisal of the situation he/she is faced with and available resources affect the preference of coping strategies all of which are culturally bounded. In other words, as suggested by Lazarus and Folkman (1984), the use of these resources may be approved of or prohibited by cultural values and norms.

The literature review revealed that cross-cultural research has focused primarily on the differences in the use of coping behaviors in terms of some other psychological variables such as sadness (Vandervoort, 2001), stress (Sinha, Wilson, & Watson, 2000) rather than university adjustment. For example, Marcella, Escurado, and Gordon (1972, as cited in Essau & Trommsdorff, 1996) found that coping strategies such as, projection, acceptance, religion, and perseverance were used in collectivistic cultures like, the Philippines, Korea and Taiwan. In Essau and Trommsdorff's, (1996) study, Malaysian students, as compared to North Americans and Germans, used emotion-focused coping more substantially than problem-focused coping in dealing with school related problems. Olah (1995) found that adolescents in European countries (Italy, Hungary, Sweden) reported significantly more frequent use of assimilative coping strategies (i.e., problem-focused, constructive, confrontative, information-seeking, seeking social support for instrumental reason) than boys and girls in India and Yemen, the latter generally preferring emotion-focused solutions. In Jerusalem and Schwarzer's (1989) study, Turks received higher scores on emotional coping whereas Germans received higher scores on instrumental coping.

Based on these findings, it can be assumed that although the dimensions involved in university adjustment are universal, they may have different connotations for young people in different societies. Consequently, students are expected to respond -or to be encouraged to respond- to the same demands of university life with differences either in the modes of or in the effects of coping across cultures.

Thus, the main purpose of this study is to assess the differences in the effects of different coping strategies on different dimensions of university adjustment of the first-year students in Turkey and in the United States.

1.1. Statement of the Problem

Are there any cross-cultural differences in the effects of coping strategies on different dimensions of university adjustment of first-year university students in Turkey and in the United States?

1.2. Statement of the Subproblems

1. Are there any cross-cultural differences in the effects of different coping strategies on overall university adjustment of first-year university students in Turkey and in the United States?
2. Are there any cross-cultural differences in the effects of different coping strategies on academic dimension of university adjustment of first-year university students in Turkey and in the United States?
3. Are there any cross-cultural differences in the effects of different coping strategies on social dimension of university adjustment of first-year university students in Turkey and in the United States?
4. Are there any cross-cultural differences in the effects of different coping strategies on personal/emotional dimension of university adjustment of first-year university students in Turkey and in the United States?
5. Are there any cross-cultural differences in the effects of different coping strategies on goal commitment/institutional attachment dimension of university adjustment of first-year university students in Turkey and in the United States?

1.3. Limitations of the Study

There exist some limitations in this study, which may affect the interpretation and generalization of the findings.

First, one of the limitations was related to the use of different sampling procedures in Turkey and in U.S. Turkish sample was selected via random stratified sampling while in selection of the U.S. sample convenience sampling was used.

Secondly, different procedures were used in the administration of the instruments. Classroom administrations were conducted at Indiana University at

South Bend, Middle East Technical University, and Başkent University whereas Internet administration was used at University of Notre Dame.

1.4. Definition of the Terms

1.4.1. University Adjustment Subscales (Continuous, Dependent Variables)

1. *Academic adjustment* refers to various facets of the educational demands characteristic of the university experience.
2. *Social adjustment* pertains the various facets of the interpersonal-societal demands inherent in that experience.
3. *Personal/emotional adjustment* determines how the student is feeling both psychologically and physically, that is, whether he/she experiencing general psychological distress and its somatic accompaniments.
4. *Goal commitment /institutional attachment* relates to the student's feelings about being at university in general, and attending that specific university, the quality of the relationship or bond that is established between the student and the institution in particular.
5. *Overall adjustment* is the full-scale score with higher scores indicating better adjustment (Baker & Siryk, 1984a).

1.4.2. Coping Subscales (Continuous, Independent Variables)

1. *Active coping* is the process of taking active steps to try to remove or circumvent the stressor or to ameliorate its effects.
2. *Planning* refers to thinking about how to cope with a stressor.
3. *Using emotional support* includes getting moral support, sympathy, or understanding.
4. *Behavioral disengagement* involves reducing one's effort to deal with the stressor, even giving up the attempt to attain goals with which the stressor is interfering.
5. *Self-distraction* refers to focusing more explicitly on doing things to take one's mind off the stressor.

6. *Positive reframing* is the act of construing a stressful transaction in positive terms that should intrinsically lead the person to continue (or to resume) active, problem-focused coping actions.
7. *Denial* is the report of refusal to believe that the stressor exists or of trying to act as though the stressor is not real.
8. *Religion* serves as a source of emotional support, as a vehicle for positive reinterpretation, and growth, or as a tactic of active coping with a stressor.
9. *Substance use* includes using alcohol and drugs.
10. *Humor* measures humor and making fun of the stressor (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989).

1.4.3. Culture (Dichotomous, Dummy Variable)

In the present study, culture is referred to as a context, which is represented by Turkish and American students with their assumed differences in "...a variety of psychological features, ... such as adjustment, problem solving, learning, and habits." (Berry, Poortinga, Segall, & Dasen, 1992, p. 166).

1.5. Significance of the Study

Although university life is the most exciting, intellectually rewarding, and emotionally loaded experience of a student's life, entering university is a stressful period. In this period first-year students are faced with several difficulties such as, lack of social support, feeling lonely, anxious and depressed, as well as vagueness about academic purposes. If the first year students cannot deal with these difficulties they are faced with the problems of dropping out, low self-esteem, and depression. Therefore, greater attention should be given to university adjustment and the students' ways of coping. However, in Turkey, although there are several studies related to university adjustment (e.g., Akbalık, 1997; Alpan, 1992; Alperten, 1993), the lack of research on investigating the effects of different coping strategies on different dimensions of university adjustment is expected to make the present study significant.

Besides, consideration of the role of culture in the relationship between coping and adjustment and the cross-cultural nature of the present study are also

believed to fill the gap in the Turkish literature as well as in the cross-cultural literature.

In terms of counseling implications, the present study is expected to be helpful for the counselors to understand the variables involved in the counseling process while they deal with problems of university adjustment. In developing university adjustment programs, this study may provide a theoretical foundation for the counselors both for improving students' adjustment and helping them to learn to use effective coping strategies, particularly during stressful times.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter includes seven sections. The first one deals with the major theories on student development. The second one covers the multidimensional conceptualization of university adjustment. The third section deals with coping. The fourth section involves the studies about coping and university adjustment. The fifth section includes cross-cultural studies regarding coping strategies. The sixth section deals with the counseling implications in university adjustment and coping strategies. The final section covers the studies related to university adjustment and coping strategies in Turkey.

2.1. Major Theories on Student Development

Transition to university is a challenging period and has some developmental tasks that first-year students are expected to accomplish. Therefore, university life plays an important role in student development. Much of the early works on student development models are the basis for university adjustment studies. Historically, three major theories have been proposed to explain student development in university, namely, Vectors of Student Development (Chickering, 1969), Theory of Student Involvement (Astin, 1984/1999), and Theory of Student Departure (Tinto, 1988). These three major theories also provide bases for further studies on university adjustment.

2.1.1. Vectors of Student Development

Chickering (1969) identified seven “vectors of development” which university students typically go through during their university years. They were called “vectors” of development “.... because each seems to have direction and magnitude – even though the direction may be expressed more appropriately by a spiral or by steps than by a straight line” (p. 8). In other words, all the vectors support each other and develop, thus creating an intertwined process. These vectors help the university student development to be comprehended. These vectors were named as achieving competence, managing emotions, becoming autonomous, establishing identity, freeing interpersonal relationships, clarifying purpose, and developing integrity (Chickering, 1969).

Vector 1: Achieving Competence. According to Chickering (1969), sense of competence increases during the university years in intellectual areas (which influence the professional and vocational alternatives), in physical and manual skills (which need athletic and creative skills), and in social and interpersonal relations (which require cooperative efforts and ability to work with others). All three types of competence have a common theme: the growth in the student’s sense of competence.

Vector 2: Managing Emotions. During university years, according to Chickering (1969), students must manage a variety of intense emotions that have both biological and social origins. Aggression and sex are particularly salient during the university period. In time, a young adult should gain increased awareness of emotions and an increased ability to manage them effectively. These are the developmental tasks related to both social concerns as well as full and rich individual development.

Vector 3: Becoming Autonomous. Chickering (1969) defined autonomy as “the independence of maturity...it requires both emotional and instrumental independence and recognition of one’s interdependence” (p. 12). In this definition, disengagement from parents, for example, is accepted as the sign of becoming emotionally independent. The indicators of instrumental independence are the ability to carry on activities, to cope with problems without seeking help, and the ability to be mobile in

relation to one's needs or desires. Recognizing and accepting one's interdependence makes autonomy complete.

Vector 4: Establishing Identity. In this model, this vector is mentioned as the conjunction point among others since Chickering (1969) defined its success based on the development of previous and successive vectors. In other words, development of identity depends on the growth of competence, emotions, and autonomy vectors, and at the same time, this vector fosters and facilitates along the remaining vectors, namely, freeing interpersonal relationships, clarifying purposes, and developing integrity. That is, when the young adult achieved a "solid sense of identity" (Chickering, 1969, p. 14), he/she makes advances in the other remaining vectors. During the university period, important psychosocial events become clear, for example, students' conceptions of their physical characteristics, personal appearance, and sexual roles and behaviors. As a result, the young adult gains a more concrete sense of identity.

Vector 5: Freeing Interpersonal Relationships. As personal identity is shaped, young adults gain the ability to establish relationships with others, which in turn, results in the development of tolerance and respect for the others' backgrounds, values, habits and appearances as well as an increase in the quality of their intimate relationships.

Vector 6: Clarifying Purposes. Development of purpose occurs when the young adult answers these questions: "Who am I going to be?" "Where am I going?" According to Chickering (1969), when a university student formulates plans and priorities about recreational and vocational interests, vocational plans and aspirations, and life-style choices, then, his/her life flows toward a meaningful direction.

Vector 7: Developing Integrity. Development of integrity is closely related to the development of purposes and development of identity. This vector involves "the clarification of a personally valid set of beliefs that have some internal consistency and that provide at least a tentative guide for behavior" (Chickering, 1969, p. 17). The clarification of values is important in helping the young adults to acknowledge these values. As a result, young adults have the opportunity, first to evaluate these

values and then, to accept or reject these values. If the values are found to be appropriate to the emerging identity, they are retained, personalized, and internalized.

The theory of vectors of student development was supported by the research findings to explain the psychosocial development of the university student. For example, Winston (1990) developed Student Developmental Task and Life-Style Inventory, based on Chickering's theory and found that seven theoretical dimensions (vectors) explained the psychosocial development of university students. Shultheiss, Palladino, and Blustein (1994) also supported Chickering's theory and found that the students who progressed in their development were likely to be better adjusted to university.

2.1.2. Theory of Student Involvement

Astin (1984/1999) proposed a student development theory to explain student involvement. Student involvement refers to the level of physical and psychological energy, which the student enthusiastically dedicates to academic experience. Thus, it is naturally expected that a student who dedicates his/her energy to studying spends considerable time on campus, participates actively in student organizations, and interacts frequently with faculty members and other students. According to the theory, when the involvement of the student in the university increases, the level of student learning and personal development will increase too.

The student involvement theory has five basic postulates: (1) Involvement refers to the investment of physical and psychological energy focused on objects, such as schoolwork, friendships, relationship with family members. (2) Involvement is a continuous concept; that is, different students spend varying degrees of energy focused on different objects in different times. (3) Involvement has both quantitative and qualitative features. (4) The amount of student learning and personal development is directly proportional to the quality and quantity of student involvement. (5) The effectiveness of any educational policy or practice is associated with its capacity to increase student involvement (Astin, 1984/1999).

According to Astin (1984/1999), student involvement occurs in various forms, such as incorporation in academic work, participation in extracurricular activities, and interaction with faculty and other institutional personnel.

The theory of student involvement was applied to the research on dropping out to investigate the involvement phenomenon intensely by studying the impact of university outcomes (Astin, 1977, as cited in Astin, 1984/1999). A longitudinal study was conducted to investigate the effects of several different types of involvement including place of residence, honors programs, undergraduate research participation, social fraternities and sororities, academic involvement, student-faculty interaction, athletic involvement, and involvement in student government. The sample was composed of more than 200,000 university students. Results generally showed that university attendance, in general, strengthened students' competency, self-esteem, artistic interests, liberalism, hedonism, and religious apostasy and weakened their business interests. The most general conclusion was that the characteristics of the students who were mostly involved in university life changed more than the characteristics of those who were less involved.

The theory of student involvement provides a useful frame of reference for faculty, administrators, counselors, and student personnel workers to understand how university life affects students.

2.1.3. Theory of Student Departure

Tinto (1987, as cited in Boyle, 1989), in his theory, explained why students depart from the university. In other words, his theory examines the process of student persistence in university and tries to understand reasons of student departure from university. According to Tinto, students bring some personal, familial, academic characteristics, and skills and abilities as well as intentions with respect to personal goal and institutional commitments with them while entering a university. All these pre-entry characteristics are reshaped by academic (e.g., academic performance, faculty/staff interactions) and social (extracurricular activities and peer group interactions) system of the university. The theory postulates that institutional experience combined with academic and social integration are critical in the long-term success. Negative institutional experiences, on the other hand, led to a decrease

in academic and social integration of the students and ultimately promoted the student's withdrawal.

Tinto (1988) proposed three stages through which new students must typically pass during their university period. These stages are named as the stage of separation, transition to university, and incorporation in university.

The Stage of Separation. In this period, the students are required to detach themselves physically as well as socially from membership in the past communities such as, high school and place of residence. This is a necessity for adopting the behaviors and norms appropriate to the university environment. Tinto (1988) stated that staying at university depends on the degree of separation from former communities. On the other hand, the students who stay at home while attending university are not required to dissociate themselves from local communities in order to become a member of new communities of the university. Although such students may find transition to university less stressful, they may also find it less rewarding. In other words, the students who stay at home may not gather social and intellectual rewards from the university.

Transition to University. Tinto (1988) explained this stage in his theory that the transition is a period where the student is neither completely associated with the past community nor with the new community. While the student has already started to disconnect his/her past, he/she has not yet become attached to the new environment to establish personal integrity. Although pre-entry characteristics, such as, personality characteristics, individual skills, play an important role in transition to university, educational goals and commitments also determine the responses of students to stresses of separation and transition. If the student is not committed to the goal of education and to the institution, then it is very difficult for the student to overcome the stresses of transition.

Incorporation in University. In this stage, the student is expected to become integrated into the community of the university. Since the student moved away from the former norms and values, he/she has difficulty in finding and adopting norms of the new university environment as well as establishing competent membership in the

social and intellectual communities of university life. If the student fails to do so, integration to the community may not be completed which causes a sense of isolation. This in turn may lead to the departure from the institution (Tinto, 1988).

The theory of student departure stated that the characteristics of the new students are in an interaction with the academic and social life of the university with results that are either positive or negative. Student persistence is related to the three stages, namely, stage of separation, transition to university, and incorporation in university, through which the new students pass. Through these stages, the student first, is to detach from the past community, then, to experience a passage between the past and the new university life, and finally, to try to completely integrate to the university to establish a competent membership in the absence of the past community.

Several studies have been conducted to test the stages of Tinto's model. Some studies investigated most aspects of the model, for example, academic and social integration factors (Terenzini & Pascarella, 1977), the effects of student-faculty relationships on academic performance (Pascarella & Terenzini, 1978), effects of student characteristics on first-year voluntary withdrawal decisions (Pascarella & Terenzini, 1979a). Terenzini and Pascarella (1980) reviewed six studies related to Tinto's model. They concluded that Tinto's model had found concrete support and the concepts of academic and social integration had been consistently significant in discriminating between persisters and withdrawers.

All these research findings revealed that the theory offers a very useful conceptual tool in understanding the reasons for student departure from university, the effects of student-faculty relationships on academic performance, and the effects of student pre-college characteristics on first-year voluntary withdrawal decisions.

As proposed by these three models, adjustment to university is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon. Besides, as suggested by the researchers the first-year of the university is a particularly critical period for student change in terms of educational growth and persistence (Terenzini, et al., 1994).

2.2. Multidimensional Conceptualization of University Adjustment

Until 1980s, studies generally investigated academic success as an indicator of university adjustment (e.g., Hutchison & Johnson, Jr., 1980; Baker & Siryk, 1983). There were some studies measuring university adjustment in a more comprehensive way, however, including only the academic and social dimensions of university adjustment (e.g., Pascarella & Terenzini, 1979a).

In 1980s, Baker and Siryk (1984a) began a study on a more comprehensive, multidimensional scale measuring university adjustment as a multifaceted concept. They defined successful university adjustment as responding to academic demands, being socially integrated with other students, faculty, and personnel in the university, being involved in campus activities, maintenance of one's own psychological and physical well-being, and being attached and committed to the university. This complex nature of adjustment indicated that university adjustment was not a unidimensional, but a multidimensional phenomenon. Consequently, some attempts that were made to identify the different dimensions of adjustment to university. Baker and Siryk (1984a; 1986) proposed four dimensions of university adjustment, namely, academic, social, personal/emotional, and goal commitment/institutional attachment.

In the next sections, studies on different dimensions of university adjustment were presented.

2.2.1. Academic Adjustment

Academic adjustment refers to the students' success in dealing with the various educational demands of the university experience. It is displayed by positive attitudes toward academic goals and academic work, by motivation to learn, and by a sense of satisfaction with the academic environment (Baker & Siryk, 1999). Baker and Siryk (1984a; 1984b) defined some contributing elements of academic adjustment, including academic performance and success, academic ability, academic motivation, academic purposes, and satisfaction with the academic environment. Some of the behavioral correlates of lower scores in academic adjustment subscale were found to be lower GPA in the first-year; being on academic probation; low GPA in high school and low scores on Scholastic Aptitude Test;

unstable and age-inappropriate goals; and less realistic self-appraisal (Baker & Siryk, 1999).

2.2.1.1. Research on the Relationships of Academic Adjustment and Several Variables

Academic Performance

Actual performance of the first-year students was used as a criterion for academic adjustment. Baker and Siryk (1984a) reported that being selected to the academic honor society at the university was the indicator of better academic adjustment subscale. They also found a significant relationship between first-year grade point average and academic adjustment subscale.

The relationship between academic achievement motivation and academic adjustment has also been examined by Baker and Siryk (1984b). They found that correlations between measures of academic motivation and academic adjustment were positive and significant.

Kaczmarek, Matlock, and Franco (1990) reported that students who had low high school GPA had low scores in academic adjustment subscale.

Personality Characteristics

In university adjustment literature, a number of studies have been conducted to investigate the relationship between academic adjustment and personality characteristics of the first-year students. Among the personality characteristics self-concept (Panori, Wong, Kennedy, & King, 1995), self-efficacy, optimism, and stress (Chemers, Hu, & Garcia, 2001), identity processing style (Berzonsky & Kuk, 2000), locus of control (Njus & Brockway, 1999), hardiness (Mathis & Lecci, 1999), and perfectionism (Rice & Mirzadeh, 2000) have been extensively studied.

Panori, Wong, Kennedy, and King, (1995) conducted a study with 137 students to examine the correlations between self-concept and first-year students' satisfaction with adjusting to university. Results showed that students who were satisfied with their social and academic adjustment to university also had higher scores on some of the subscales of self-concept measures, namely, Scholastic Competence, Intellectual Abilities, Social Acceptance and Close Friendships.

Berzonsky and Kuk (2000) investigated the relationship between identity processing style and academic adjustment. Researchers defined three identity processing styles: informational, normative, and diffuse/avoidant. Information-oriented individuals actively search out, evaluate, and use self-relevant information. Normative individuals try to confirm the directions and expectations of significant others. They have low tolerance for ambiguity. Diffuse/avoidant individuals are unwilling to accept and confront personal problems and decisions. Volunteered 388 first-year students participated in the study. Results revealed that academic autonomy and educational involvement, which were the subscales of a university adaptation scale, were positively associated with the use of an informational style, but negatively associated with a diffuse/avoidant style. Findings indicated that students who actively search out, evaluate, and use self-relevant information were more likely to adjust to university whereas students who do not accept and confront personal problems and decisions were less likely to adjust to university academically.

More recently, Chemers, Hu, and Garcia (2001) examined the effects of academic self-efficacy that is the confidence in ability to perform well academically, optimism, and stress on the academic performance and adjustment of first-year university students. The sample was composed of 256 first-year university students. Results indicated that self-efficacy yielded direct and indirect powerful relationships with academic performance and adjustment of first-year college students. Optimism was also found to be related to academic performance and adjustment. Academically confident and optimistic students were more likely to see the university experience as a challenge rather than a threat and they experienced less stress.

Njus and Brockway (1999) did research on how academic adjustment of first-year students was related to their perceptions of locus of control (LOC). The sample was composed of 1108 first-year students. Results showed that internal LOC over positive outcomes (responsibility for success) was associated with better academic adjustment than internal LOC over negative outcomes (responsibility for failure).

Hardiness as another personality characteristic was also examined in relation to different dimensions of university adjustment, namely, academic, social, personal/emotional adjustment and goal commitment/institutional attachment (Mathis & Lecci, 1999). Participants were 63 first-year students. The results yielded that increased hardiness was associated with better adjustment across all domains

indicating that hardiness is an effective longitudinal predictor of university adjustment.

Rice and Mirzadeh (2000) examined the association of the types of perfectionism (adaptive and maladaptive) with academic integration, which is the indicator of academic adjustment. Adaptive perfectionism was defined as setting high self-standards, order, and organization but not at the expense of self-esteem. On the other hand, maladaptive perfectionists set high standards that never seem achievable and they are excessively concerned with making mistakes. The sample consisted of 218 university students. Results exhibited that maladaptive perfectionists were less academically integrated and more depressed than adaptive perfectionists were. The results indicated that adaptive perfectionism played a role in facilitating the academic adjustment and integration of college students.

Decidedness Regarding Academic Major

The ability to choose a major has been considered as a variable related to academic adjustment. Smith and Baker (1987) investigated the relationship between indecisiveness of first-year students on their academic major and academic adjustment to university. The researchers found a positive relationship between academic adjustment to university and decisiveness toward a major. Leppel's (2001) study supported the association between decidedness about major and academic adjustment revealing that students with undecided majors have both low academic performance and low persistence rates. Similar results were also reported by LeSure (1991). She compared the first-year students with upperclassmen who had already made major decision. Results showed that academic adjustment was better predictor for upperclassmen than it was for first-year students. The researcher concluded that since the students in upper classes had made decisions about their majors they attended classes with greater interest whereas first-year students took more general and required courses, which might be perceived as less interesting.

Social and Environmental Factors

Several researchers have illustrated that social and environmental factors (e.g., residence, campus environment, family, interactions with faculty and peer) appeared to play an important role in a student's academic adjustment (e.g.,

Blimling, 1989/1999; Graff & Cooley, 1970; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1976; 1978; 1979b; Terenzini, Pascarella, & Blimling, 1996/1999). In this section, some studies about the effects of place of residence, student-faculty interactions, and student-peer interactions on academic adjustment were presented.

Place of Residence

Studies concerning the relationship between place of residence and students' academic adjustment have been well documented. Graff and Cooley's study (1970) was designed to test whether there was a difference in achievement between resident and commuter students after one academic semester. 185 resident students and 116 commuter students participated the study. The results indicated that commuter and resident students did not differ on academic achievement after one semester of collegiate work. However, the two groups differed on several adjustment variables. In fact, commuter students had poorer mental health and curricular adjustment and showed less maturity in establishing goals and aspirations. On the other hand, Welty (1976) indicated that residence hall students were more disposed toward intellectual interests and behavior, more interested in ideas (and had a generally scholarly orientation), more interested in esthetic matters and activities, more experimental and flexible in viewing phenomenon, more liberal and nonauthoritarian in their thinking, and had a higher level of concern and sensitivity for other people than did the commuters. Blimling (1989/1999), in his article, reviewed 21 studies about influence of university residence halls on academic performance. He found that living in a residence hall did not significantly influence academic performance over living at home. This finding indicated that living in a residence hall provided students neither an advantage nor a disadvantage compared to living at home. On the other hand, Murtaugh, Burns, and Schuster (1999) found that nonresident students had higher attrition rates than did students living in university residents.

Some of the studies examined the association between university students' educational outcomes and residence arrangements. Blimling and Hample (1979) conducted a two-year longitudinal study to examine the effect of a structured study environment in residence halls on the GPA. They developed an educational intervention program to increase academic success. They structured the residential environment by constituting study floors in the residences, determining regular quiet

study hours, and teaching good study habits. More than 1200 students participated in the study floors program and approximately 1,500 students participated in the control group floors. The results of this study revealed that the structuring of a residence hall environment toward academic pursuits could assist students in realizing a greater portion of their academic potential. The researchers concluded that though such a lifestyle might not be suited for all students, the opportunity to pursue academic interests in such an environment should be considered as a step toward creating a developmental milieu in residence halls.

Pascarella and Terenzini (1981) conducted another study seeking differences between conventional freshman living arrangements and an experimental residence designed to enhance the extent and quality of student/faculty informal interaction. The second purpose was to determine the effects of the Living Learning Residence (LLR) program on a range of educational outcomes, such as academic achievement, student persistence, and attitudes toward the academic program. The sample was composed of 567 first-year students. With pre-enrolment characteristics held constant, exposure to the LLR program was found to have a significant positive influence on three of the outcomes: cumulative academic achievement, voluntary first-year to second-year persistence, and attitudes toward the first-year academic program. Another finding was that students in LLR program had significantly more informal contact with faculty and reported faculty as having a significantly greater influence on personal development than did conventional residence hall students.

Faculty Interactions

Some studies indicated the importance of student-faculty interaction in relation to academic adjustment (Pascarella & Terenzini, 1976; 1978; 1979b; Terenzini & Pascarella, 1977).

The relationship between first-year student perceptions of the academic and non-academic experience of university and the varying amount of informal contact with faculty was investigated by Pascarella and Terenzini (1976). A random sample of 500 first-year students constituted the sample of the study. The results yielded a positive relationship between the amount of informal interaction of first-year students' with faculty members and their perceptions of both their academic and non-academic experiences of university. More specifically, first-year students who had

higher faculty interaction perceived faculty interaction as a source of positive influence on their intellectual and personal development, and a source of personal satisfaction than did lower faculty interactors. The researchers suggested that constructive consequences of students' informal contact with faculty were multidimensional and the frequency of such contact revealed two outcomes: cognitive and affective. These outcomes were felt by students with a wide range of academic aptitudes, educational goals, orientations toward university, and personality needs.

Terenzini and Pascarella (1977) conducted a study focusing on the differences between students who continued at the university in their second-year and those who voluntarily withdrew at the end of their first-year. The sample was composed of 60 voluntary withdrawers and 60 stayers. The researchers reported that stayers had a significantly higher frequency of informal contact with faculty than leavers. In addition, stayers thought that faculty members had a positive influence on their intellectual growth and personal development.

Another study about relationship between student-faculty relations and educational outcomes was designed as a longitudinal study (Pascarella & Terenzini, 1978). The researchers had gathered data three times from 528 first-year students between 1975-1976. The results indicated that the frequency of student informal interactions centered on intellectual or course related matters with faculty had the strongest positive association with academic performance and intellectual development.

Pascarella and Terenzini (1979b) investigated the relationship between first-year voluntary persistence/withdrawal decisions and different types of student-faculty informal contact beyond the classroom. They found that frequency of informal student-faculty interactions focusing on intellectual and course-related matters had significant partial correlations with first-year voluntary persistence/withdrawal decisions. This result suggested that interactions with faculty reinforced the formal academic experience in fostering students' academic and social adjustment.

All these research findings show that the quality and quantity of the student-faculty informal relationship make a significant contribution to academic and social adjustment of the first-year university students.

Peer Interactions

In addition to having faculty interactions, having peer interactions is also important for learning through students' out-of-class contacts. Such interactions can be in different forms, in different settings, and for different purposes. Therefore, all kinds of peer interactions cannot always reveal beneficial effects on students. Terenzini, Pascarella, and Blimling (1996/1999) stated that peer interactions related to educational and intellectual activities affect students positively in terms of academic adjustment. Astin (1993) found that when students socialized with peers of different racial/ethnic groups, students' overall academic development and knowledge about a particular field enhanced. On the other hand, Astin (1993) also stressed out that several activities were negatively associated with academic development. He listed these activities as the number of hours per week spent in volunteer activities, the hours spent partying, and the number of hours spent socializing with friends. Terenzini, Springer, Pascarella, and Nora (1995; as cited in Terenzini, Pascarella, and Blimling, 1996/1999) found a similar result in that a time spent for social activities was negatively related to intellectual development of students. These findings suggested that not only frequency of peer interactions shaped student learning but also, the content of those interactions had influences on student intellectual development. Overall, the results of the studies indicated that the quality and frequency of peer interaction plays an important role in the academic adjustment of students.

2.2.2. Social Adjustment

During the first year of university, students typically face with new challenging situations in the social world of the university. Some of the students are away from their families for the first time; enter a social environment, which is quite different from the one in which he/she was raised. First-year students have an opportunity to create new friendships and to gain new experiences. On the other hand, they are separated from their past social ties. This is very stressful and painful for the students. Although the first-year students maintain their relationships with their family members, they are also expected to develop close ties with their peers and faculty. A healthy social adjustment to university requires interacting and forming relationships with peers, faculty, and staff. Taken all together, social

adjustment can be defined as the student's success in social activities, relationships with other persons on campus; ability to cope with social relocation and being away from home and significant others; and satisfaction with the social aspects of the university environment (Baker & Siryk, 1999).

Baker and Siryk (1999) defined the behavioral correlates of this subscale as less participation in social activities in university, lack of social skills, difficulties in separating from home and establishing social autonomy; greater sense of loneliness, greater social avoidance, less social self-confidence and less self-concept; less success in coping with life challenges; and less perceived social support. This section focuses on the research findings related to some factors that affect the social adjustment of the student.

2.2.2.1. Research on the Relationships of Social Adjustment and Several Variables

Social Support

Several studies have examined the relationship between social support and adjustment. In general, this body of research has demonstrated that the perceived availability and quality of social support is positively related to adjustment (Lokitz & Sprandel, 1976; Montgomery & Haemmerlie, 1993; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1979a; 1979b; Terenzini et al., 1994).

Lokitz and Sprandel (1976) designed a longitudinal study about the concerns of first-year students. A total of 40 first-year students were interviewed twice during the first year. The researchers found in the first semester that students were mostly concerned with their academic performance, but in the second semester these concerns were replaced with social concerns. At the beginning of the second semester, transferring to another university was also considered by many students. This study suggests that if the new student cannot establish a social support system, he/she might have difficulty in adjusting to university socially. As a result, he/she begins to consider transferring to another university.

Another study about the relationship between student-faculty informal contact and the students' social and academic integration was carried out by Pascarella and Terenzini (1979b). It was found that student informal contact with faculty beyond the classroom was important for the social integration of the students. A similar result

was also supported by another study of the same researchers (Pascarella & Terenzini, 1979a). The frequency and quality of student-faculty relationships, which were the predictors of persistence, were most important in social adjustment.

Terenzini et al. (1994) interviewed 132 students and mentioned that high school friends played an instrumental role in the success of these students during the transition to university. That was, precollege friends at the same institution functioned during the early weeks or months of university as a bridge from one interpersonal environment to the next. Such earlier acquaintances provided important support during the transition. In contrast, a research about friendsickness revealed that students who were highly concerned about their precollege friendships exhibited poorer adjustment to university (Paul, Brier, Er, Phan, Vereen, & Garrett, 2001). The researchers also found that the number of precollege friendship was related to friendsickness. Researchers explained this finding with the period of “grief” that students went through because of the loss of precollege friends before establishing meaningful friendships. Although Montgomery and Haemmerlie (1993) supported the positive association between peer interaction and social adjustment, belonging to a fraternity or sorority was not only positively related to social adjustment but also to drinking behavior. Therefore, it can be inferred from the study that content of peer interactions is important for all dimensions of university adjustment.

Support from family was also found to be important for young adults during the transition from high school to university. Lafreniere, Ledgerwood, and Docherty (1997) found, for example, that the greater the levels of support from family the greater the university adjustment for the first-year students was.

Personality Characteristics

In university adjustment literature, researchers have investigated the relationship between personality characteristics and social adjustment of first-year students. Among the personality characteristics self-concept (Panori, Wong, Kennedy, & King, 1995), optimism (Brissette, Scheier, & Carver, 2002), identity processing style (Berzonsky & Kuk, 2000), locus of control (Njus & Brockway, 1999), and alienation (Baker & Siryk, 1980) were investigated.

Panori, Wong, Kennedy, and King, (1995) found a significant positive relationship between student satisfaction with their social adjustment and scores on

subscales of a self-concept measure, the subscales of which were Scholastic Competence, Intellectual Abilities, Social Acceptance and Close Friendships. The relationship between identity processing style and social adjustment was examined by Berzonsky and Kuk (2000). As previously mentioned in the academic adjustment section, the researchers defined three identity processing styles: informational, normative, and diffuse/avoidant. These researchers indicated that diffuse/avoidant students, who do not accept and confront personal problems and decisions, might generally experience social problems and have difficulty establishing and maintaining a social support system. On the other hand, information oriented students, who actively search out, evaluate, and use self-relevant information, were mature in establishing interpersonal relationships.

Locus of control is another personality characteristic that was examined by Njus and Brockway (1999). They indicated that control over positive outcomes (responsibility for success) was more strongly associated with social adjustment than control over negative outcomes (responsibility for failure). The role of optimism in social network development and psychological adjustment was examined by Brissette, Scheier, and Carver (2002). Their study revealed that greater optimism was related to greater increases in social support during the first semester of university. In addition, it was reported that optimists had more friendship networks after the first 2 weeks of university. The concept of alienation during the first-year of the university was also studied by Baker and Siryk (1980). They described alienation as a lesser degree of compatibility in the person-environment relationship. They found that the more alienated the student, the less likely he/she was to be involved with campus organizations and activities. A lesser degree of involvement with the social life of the university was interpreted as less effective adjustment.

These studies indicate that different personality characteristics affect social adjustment of the students either positively or negatively.

There are some studies about the relationship between social adjustment and different kinds of variables, such as, GPA (Johnson, 1954) and social propensity (Baker & Siryk, 1983).

Johnson (1954), in his study, tried to find the differences in terms of GPA and social integration between the students who attended university and those who did not. The number of subjects participating in the study was 44. The male students who

remained at the university had a superior grade point average and a tendency toward higher social integration than the males who did not return. Those female students who remained at the university were better readers, were better adjusted socially, and got better grades during their first year than those females who did not continue after the first year. There was no statistically significant difference between the male and female persisters.

Baker and Siryk (1983) studied social propensity and university adjustment. Social propensity is having an interest in various kinds of interactions with other persons, such as establishing relationships, participating in various social events, dealing with strangers, and so on. The total sample of the study was 934. Social propensity was significantly and positively correlated with social adjustment.

2.2.3. Personal/Emotional Adjustment

Personal/emotional adjustment focuses on a student's level of psychological distress and somatic problems during his/her adjustment to university. Personal/emotional adjustment requires the students to have a positive sense of psychological and physiological well-being, such as feeling calm, stable, and secure, controlling intense emotions, dealing with daily stresses, and having less somatic complaints (Baker & Siryk, 1999). Behavioral correlates of this dimension are determined as being known to university counseling services, less coping resources, a lesser degree of psychological well-being, a high level of psychological distress such as anxiety and depression, and greater experience of negative life events that are negatively associated with personal/emotional adjustment (Baker & Siryk, 1999). In this section, some studies related to anxiety, stress, personality characteristics, and physical problems that affect the personal/emotional adjustment of the student were presented.

2.2.3.1. Research on the Relationships of Personal/Emotional Adjustment and Several Variables

Anxiety and Stress

When an individual moves to a new environment, he/she meets with both the challenges of a new environment and the stresses of transition as well as being

separated from his/her previous familiar environment. Psychological and physical unhealthiness may be determined by these factors (Fisher & Hood, 1987).

Moving away from home leads the first-year students to the separation from their parents. In this kind of separation it is expected that they show some separation reactions, including anxiety and depression. Berman and Sperling (1990) examined the effects of parental attachment on emotional distress. They found that male students who had high levels of parental attachment at the beginning of the university had a tendency to show high levels of depressed mood at the end of the first semester. On the other hand, no relationship was found for female students.

Pancer, Hunsberger, Pratt, and Alisat (2000) reported that the students experiencing low levels of stress were relatively well-adjusted to the university, however, the adjustment of students experiencing higher levels of stress was affected by the complexity of their expectations of university. Students with complex expectations (thinking of an issue in a multidimensional fashion) displayed higher levels of adjustment than did students with simpler or one-dimensional ones. Students with complex expectations had more information about classes, faculty, social life, and life in general at university, and were more satisfied with the amount of information they had than were students with simpler expectations. Lafreniere, Ledgerwood, and Docherty (1997) revealed that during the transition to university, male students living with their parents reported the least amount of stress. On the other hand, female students living with their parents were found to be at a high risk of stress.

Homesickness

The transition to university is regarded as both positive aspects, including adjustment to the new environment like intellectual and social challenges; and negative aspects, including leaving home, family, friends; adapting to new resident, social, and academic aspects of the university. Therefore Fisher and Hood (1988) thought that transition to university had greater adverse psychological effects, such as homesickness, on the students who were away from their home than those who were home-based. In this study, they examined the psychological reaction to the transition to university. 198 first year residential students were assessed in the sixth

week of the first term. It was found that 31% of the subjects reported experiencing homesickness and there were no sex differences in homesickness reporting.

Fisher and Hood (1987) examined the psychological response to the transition to university. The sample was composed of 66 residential and 36 home-based students. They compared residential and commuter groups, and homesick and non-homesick groups in terms of psychological effects. The results showed that a stressful transition increased the level of psychological disturbance and absent-mindedness in all students. The homesick group showed increased anxiety, depression and obsessional symptoms. The homesick group also showed lower levels of adjustment to university, and an increase in anticipatory fears, and somatic complaints. The main sources of stress for the university students were academic problems, adjusting to new routines, coping with financial management and social problems. As expected, there were sources of stress unique to residential students as compared with home-based students and vice versa. Residents reported problems because of a new social life, new domestic routines and lack of privacy, whereas home-based students felt there was restriction of freedom.

Bell and Bromnick (1998) stated that homesickness was a ruminative activity and prevented the assimilation of new experiences. However, they found that as levels of self-disclosure of the students increased, homesickness decreased during the first semester.

These studies showed that being away from home results in unpleasant psychological effects, such as increased levels of cognitive failure, psychological disturbance, absent-mindedness, increased anxiety, depression and obsessional symptoms.

Personality Characteristics

Some personality characteristics were examined to find their relationships with personal/emotional adjustment. Rice and Mirzadeh (2000) examined the relationship between types of perfectionism (adaptive and maladaptive) and psychological adjustment. Maladaptive perfectionists, who set high standards and are excessively concerned with making mistakes, were less adjusted and more depressed than adaptive perfectionists, who set high self-standards but not at the expense of

self-esteem. Greater optimism, which is another personality trait, was found to be related to better psychological adjustment (Brissette, Scheier, & Carver, 2002).

2.2.4. Goal Commitment/Institutional Attachment

As universities have expanded in size, they have become impersonal environments in which students have difficulty in feeling attachment to the institution and this may contribute to university adjustment problems. Students' commitment to educational-institutional goals and attachment to the particular university have been found to play an important role in adjusting to university (Baker & Siryk, 1984a). Feelings about the institution, satisfaction with the institution, and the established bond between the student and the institution are some of the indicators of goal commitment/institutional attachment. Behavioral correlates of this dimension were indicated as student attrition and less overall satisfaction with the university experience (Baker & Siryk, 1999).

Baker and Siryk (1984a) found a significant relationship between attrition rate and goal commitment/institutional attachment. In other words, if the student got a high score from the goal commitment/institutional attachment scale, the student was less likely to discontinue his/her education at the university of original enrollment as a first-year student.

Having a career goal, a value of university education, earning a degree at a particular institution are the signs of attachment and goal commitment. Smith and Baker (1987) compared the first-year university students who had made a major decision and who had not. The researchers indicated that decidedness regarding academic major was positively related to goal commitment/institutional attachment like academic adjustment.

2.2.5. Overall Adjustment

Overall adjustment is composed of all the dimensions of university adjustment, namely, academic, social, personal/emotional adjustment, and goal commitment/institutional attachment. Some studies related to overall adjustment are presented in the following.

Wintre and Yaffe (2000) conducted a study to examine the contributions of perceived parenting style, current relationships with parents, and psychological well-

being variables on perceived overall adjustment to university. They found that authoritative parenting style had an indirect positive effect on adjustment and current relationships with parents were directly related to overall adjustment to university. Holmbeck and Wandrei's (1993) study also supported the effects of family relations on overall adjustment. On the other hand, Schultheiss and Blustein (1994) found sex differences regarding the effects of parental attachment on overall adjustment. While there was not any significant relationship between parental attachment and adjustment for females, for males' parental attachment were significantly related to overall adjustment. Rice, Cole, and Lapsley (1990) examined the relationship between adolescent separation-individuation, family cohesion, and university adjustment. They found that gaining independence from parents was found to be unrelated to successful university adjustment. However, the affective response to separation was strongly related to university adjustment. Students who reported positive feelings about separation also reported being well adjusted to university life. The researchers stated the implication of this later finding was that students who had negative, angry, or resentful feelings associated with separation were also those who had more difficulty managing their adjustment to university. Peer and faculty interaction is also important for university adjustment. Strage (2000) examined the role of students' rapport with instructors and peers as predictors of university adjustment. She indicated that high ratings of positive rapport with teachers were associated with university adjustment and high ratings of positive rapport with peers were associated with high levels of confidence.

Expectations of University and University Adjustment

One of the factors in adjusting to university is the discrepancy between the student's expectations before enrollment to the university and their actual experience after they have begun their university life. Research on this subject created an opportunity to learn whether the previous preconceptions about university life were realistic and to compare with the responses gathered after they had more experience gained at the university.

Berdie (1968) conducted a longitudinal study to determine the extent to which relative perceptions of the university change during the first two university years. He found out that first-year students during these two years learned that the

campus was a less socially structured institution, that students assumed more responsibility for their own social and interpersonal behavior, and that the faculty and administration exerted less control than the students had originally expected. Students also learned that the campus is not quite as exciting intellectually as they had anticipated.

King and Walsh (1972) compared first-year students' expectations and perceptions with the expectations and perceptions of a group of third-year students. Results showed that first-year students initially reported higher expectations and perceptions of the environment than were the perceptions reported by third-year students. However, during the year, the perceptions of the first-year students fell below and remained lower than the perceptions reported by their third-year counterparts. The findings of this study suggested that the experiences during the first-year had an impact on student perceptions of the environment. Baker, McNeil, and Siryk (1985) supported this finding and added that differences between expectations of students from the university life and perceptions of university environment were related to various behavioral criteria including being awarded academic honors, knowing the psychological services center and graduating on time.

Some of the researchers (Pancer, Hunsberger, Pratt, & Alisat, 2000) claimed that although many students might have unrealistic expectations of university, not all types of expectations were negative. The researchers categorized the expectations into two groups, namely, integrative complexity and simple or one-dimensional. The person who has integrative complexity thinks about an issue in a complex or multidimensional fashion. The students who had integrative complexity expectations tended to show higher levels of adjustment than did the students with simpler expectations about university.

2.3. Coping

2.3.1. Stress and Coping Theory

The roots of cognitive theory of stress and coping are based on the transactional perspective, which considers the person and the environment in a dynamic, mutually reciprocal, bidirectional relationship. Stress is conceptualized as a relationship between the person and the environment that is appraised by the person

as taxing or exceeding his/her resources and as engendering well-being. The theory proposed two processes, namely, cognitive appraisal and coping, which are considered as the critical mediators of stressful person-environment relationships and of their immediate and long-term outcomes (Folkman, Lazarus, Gruen, & DeLongis, 1986).

2.3.1.1. Cognitive Appraisal Process

During the cognitive appraisal process, the person determines if a particular encounter with the environment is relevant to his/her well-being and how he/she will be affected by it (Folkman, Lazarus, Gruen, & DeLongis, 1986). There are two processes in cognitive appraisal: primary and secondary appraisal. The primary appraisal process helps the person to evaluate the importance of the event and to understand if it is irrelevant, positive, or stressful. An irrelevant event is not significant for one's well-being thus, the person is not a part of its outcome. In a positive event, only a good outcome is considered. Finally, if the event is appraised as stressful, it is considered as harm-loss, threat, or challenge. Harm-loss refers to a damage already done, such as injury or illness, damage to a friendship, loss of self-esteem or a significant one; threat concerns the possible potential for harm or loss that did not happen yet; and challenge focuses on a potential for gain or growth. Therefore, it demands exceptional efforts from the person (Folkman, 1984; Folkman & Lazarus, 1985).

McCrae (1984) examined the relationship between categories of stressors and the selection of coping strategies. He found that in challenging situations, positive thinking, rational action, escapist fantasy, self-blame, restraints, self-adaptation, and humor are frequently used as coping strategies. In harm-loss situations, subjects are more likely to use expression of feelings, faith, and fatalism as coping strategies. In threat situations, wishful thinking, faith, fatalism, active forgetting, and controlling the feelings are commonly used as coping strategies.

In the secondary appraisal process, the person evaluates the coping resources and options trying to find a response to harm-loss, threat, and challenge (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). The person evaluates resources, such as, social, physical, and personal ones in order to meet environmental demands. Social networks, support systems, and emotional support are examples of social resources. Physical resources

are comprised of special training programs, social agencies, and money. Finally, self-esteem, skills for problem solving, sense of control make up personal resources. Having a sense of control is an important part of secondary appraisal. Depending on whether or not the stressful event is under control, the type of coping chosen varies accordingly (Folkman, 1984).

Two appraisal processes operate interdependently. If there is already an appropriate coping resource, the threatening event may become less threatening. In contrast, a nonthreatening situation may become threatening if the coping resources are not enough to meet environmental demands (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985).

When faced with a stressful situation, the person at first evaluates the significance of the situation then tries to find appropriate resources to deal with the situation in order to meet the environmental demand.

2.3.1.2. The Coping Process

As stated above, the second process of the Stress and Coping Theory is the coping process.

Coping has been defined as “constantly changing cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person” (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 141). Coping has two major functions: regulating the emotional responses to the stressor called emotion-focused coping and having direct action to change or control the sources of stress referred to as problem-focused coping (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). Problem-focused coping is an attempt to take direct action in order to find a solution to change the stressful situation into a better situation. Emotion-focused coping is an attempt to change the interpretation of the stressful situation reappraising the threatening event into a nonthreatening one (Lazarus, 1993).

Some studies (e.g., Folkman & Lazarus, 1985) indicated that problem-focused and emotion-focused coping strategies were both used in the same stressful encounter. Folkman and Lazarus (1985) confirmed that both types of coping, problem- and emotion-focused, were used in three stressful situations, namely, before the exam, after the exam, and when the grades were announced. The findings demonstrated that people coped with a single situation in complex ways. It has been reported that subjects have appraised the examination as both threat and challenge at

any given phase of the exam. This finding showed that both types of appraisal could occur at the same time. In addition, both types of coping were used simultaneously. Researchers suggested that emotion-focused coping could facilitate problem-focused coping as long as it was used to manage emotions.

However, in certain situations, depending on whether the situation is perceived as changeable or not, one type of coping is preferred. For example, Folkman and Lazarus (1980, cited in Folkman & Lazarus, 1985) found that the person used frequently problem-focused coping when he/she appraised the situation as changeable. On the other hand, emotion-focused coping was more frequently used for the situation that was appraised as unchangeable.

Lazarus (1993) summarized features of the coping process utilizing the result of his and his colleagues' research findings as follows: coping is complex and people use most of the coping strategies for widely varying stressful situations; appraisal has an important role in choosing the coping strategy. For example, if a person appraises the situation as changeable, problem-focused coping is used; unexpectedly, men and women use very similar coping strategies for constantly stressful situations, such as work, health, or family related stress; coping is a dynamic process, which can change throughout a stressful situation; people choose the coping strategies highly depending on the type of stressful situation, the type of personality under stress, and the outcome modality studied (e.g., subjective well-being, social functioning, or somatic health).

2.3.2. Coping as Dispositional vs. Contextual/Situational Debate

In the literature, coping is conceptualized as dispositional or as contextual/situational. According to dispositional approaches, coping behaviors are predetermined by stable person-based factors. On the other hand, contextual (or situational) approaches assume that coping responses are shaped by transitory situation-based factors (Holahan, Moos, & Schaefer, 1996).

Cohen (1991) defined dispositional coping as a tendency to use a particular type of coping in different stressful situations. Several researchers also have conceptualized coping in dispositional terms. For example, Carver, Scheier, and Weintraub (1989) and Endler and Parker (1990) developed measures of coping to learn how individuals usually cope when they are in stressful circumstances. Carver

and Scheier (1994) stated that although coping changes from one situation to another, it should be taken into consideration that there are some habitual ways of coping, to which people develop in dealing with the stressful situations. Such dispositional coping styles may influence situational coping.

On the other hand, several other researchers have proposed situational oriented conceptualizations of coping. Lazarus (1966) emphasized that coping reactions can change from moment to moment across the stages of a stressful transaction. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) asserted that coping is a dynamic process that changes over time in response to changing demands and changing appraisals of the situation. Carver, Scheier, and Weintraub (1989) also developed the situational format of their COPE inventory in which to learn about how individuals actually dealt with a specific stressful event.

In order to find empirical evidence about whether coping styles play a role in situational coping, Carver and Scheier (1994) conducted a research with 125 college students who completed COPE inventory in dispositional format at the beginning of the semester and in situational format at three points in the course of a stressful transaction. The findings were not as significant as they had expected. Only two dispositional scales, turning to religion and turning to alcohol were associated with situational reports. Alcohol use is a dysfunctional reaction to stress both in situational and dispositional terms.

2.3.3. Classifying Coping Strategies

The most well known categorization made by Lazarus and Folkman (1984), was problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping. Both included a variety of cognitive and behavioral strategies. Problem-focused coping includes the behaviors or thoughts regarding actively dealing with the situation. Emotion-focused coping involves wishful thinking (wishing the situation to go away), distancing (trying to forget the stressful situation), emphasizing the positive (trying to see the situation in a positive way), self-blame (criticizing oneself for the problem), tension-reduction (decreasing the tension by eating, drinking, smoking, using drug, or exercising), self-isolation (avoiding being with people), and seeking social support (getting sympathy and understanding from someone).

Moos and Billings (1982, as cited in Moos & Schaefer, 1986) categorize coping skills in three domains according to their primary focus: appraisal-, problem-, and emotion-focused coping. Appraisal-focused coping involves efforts to understand and to find a pattern of meaning in a crisis. The process of appraisal and reappraisal works to modify the meaning and to comprehend the threat resulting from a situation. Problem-focused coping searches for confronting the reality of a crisis by dealing with the consequences and trying to construct a more satisfying situation. Emotion-focused coping is trying to manage the feelings after a crisis and to maintain affective balance. Accordingly, coping skills can focus on the meaning, the practical aspects, or the emotions associated with a crisis.

Holahan, Moos, and Schaefer (1996) identified two categories: approach and avoidance coping strategies. Approach coping strategies included logical analysis, positive reappraisal, seeking guidance and support, taking problem-solving action. In contrast, avoidance coping generally was associated with psychological distress. Avoidance coping strategies were cognitive avoidance, resigned acceptance, seeking alternative rewards, emotional discharge. Roth and Cohen (1986) argued that approach coping seemed to resemble problem-focused coping in terms of direct efforts to alter the stressful event whereas avoidance coping was like emotion-focused coping which involved indirect efforts to adjust to stressors by distancing oneself either by focusing on one's feelings or otherwise avoiding solving the problem.

Another categorization of coping was made in terms of using more salutary (e.g., making decisions, seeking social support, and talking about problems with family) and less salutary (e.g., verbal aggression, alcohol use, and minimizing the importance of the problem) coping strategies (Jorgensen & Dusek, 1990).

Olah (1995) made a different categorization based on the empirically derived coping dimensions in the literature. He proposed three dimensions: assimilation, accommodation, and avoidance. Assimilative coping referred to the person's cognitive or behavioral attempts to change the environment to his/her benefit. Similar kinds of coping mentioned in the literature were problem-focused, task-oriented, information-seeking, problem solving, and instrumental support. Accommodative coping involved the person's cognitive or behavioral attempts to change him/herself to adapt to the environment. Similar categories in the literature

are emotion-focused, emotion-regulation, acceptance, emotional support, passivity. Avoidance coping referred to behaviors and cognitive acts that help to escape from the stressful environment, either physically or psychologically. Similar kinds of coping identified in the literature are escape, behavioral and mental disengagement, escapist fantasy, alcohol and drug use, active forgetting (Olah, 1995).

In reviewing the diversity of coping, Compas and his colleagues (Compas, Connor-Smith, Saltzman, Thomsen, & Wadsworth, 2001, as cited in Miller & Kaiser, 2001) recently proposed a theory of coping and stress responses that organized most of these classifications or dimensions in this empirically supported model. Responses to stress were divided into voluntary coping responses and involuntary responses. According to them, not every response of an individual to stress constituted coping. People might have had involuntary emotional, behavioral, physiological, and cognitive responses to stress that did not serve to regulate or modify stressful experiences. Coping was volitional efforts to regulate emotion, thought, behavior, physiology, and the environment reaction to stressful events. Both voluntary coping responses and involuntary responses to stress can involve engagement (approach) or disengagement (avoidance) with the stressful event or problem. Voluntary efforts can be distinguished as primary- and secondary-control. Primary-control coping tries to influence objective events or conditions to enhance a sense of personal control over the environment and one's reactions. These included problem solving and efforts to directly regulate one's emotions or the expression of emotion. In contrast, secondary-control coping responses involved trying to change the individual's feelings about the bad situation, which had occurred. Distraction, acceptance, positive thinking, and cognitive restructuring fell into this coping domain (Compas, Connor-Smith, Saltzman, Thomsen, & Wadsworth, 2001, as cited in Miller & Kaiser, 2001).

All these research findings demonstrated that coping strategies were categorized in different ways, such as problem- and emotion-focused coping; appraisal-focused, problem-focused, and emotion-focused coping; approach and avoidance coping; more salutary and less salutary coping; assimilative, accommodative, and avoidance coping; and voluntary coping responses and involuntary s responses.

2.3.4. Coping Effectiveness

In spite of the recent advances in theory, research and assessment, the coping effectiveness issue is still open to debate (Zeidner & Saklofske, 1996). It is very difficult to state that one strategy is naturally better than any other. The effectiveness of a coping strategy is determined according to its outcome in the stressful situation in the long term (Lazarus & Folkman, 1991).

The positive effects of problem-focused coping and negative effects of emotion-focused coping on psychological outcomes have been emphasized frequently (e.g., Collins, Mowbray, & Bybee, 1999). On the other hand, Compas (1987) stated that both problem- and emotion-focused coping are important in successful adaptation to stress in children and adolescents. Therefore, effective coping is considered as flexible and changeable. Since new demands require new ways of coping, one type of coping strategy cannot be effective for all types of stress (Compas, 1987). However, Zeidner and Saklofske (1996) asserted that some coping strategies appear to be inherently maladaptive in managing stress. For example, alcohol and drugs may provide brief relief, but ultimately the person gets worse.

Zeidner and Saklofske (1996), in their review, concluded that the same coping strategy might reveal different outcomes and all coping strategies are not effective in managing stressful situations. If a strategy removes the stressor or its cause, then it can be thought of as effective. For example, in order to cope with a difficult university course, an individual might exhibit behaviors such as, increasing study time, getting peer assistance, or dropping the course. In the process of coping, effective strategies must be implemented that help to reduce the concurrent anxiety, worry, and depressed mood (Zeidner & Saklofske, 1996).

Therefore, it is difficult to reach a conclusion about which coping strategy is appropriate in a given stressful encounter. The appropriateness of a coping strategy varies from one encounter to another.

2.3.5. Personality and the Coping Process

Different people cope with stressors in different ways and obtain varying results. Personality factors are linked closely with coping processes (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Researchers have investigated how coping strategies are related to specific personality traits. Among the traits that have been widely studied are

optimism (e.g., Carver, et al., 1993; Scheier, Weintraub, & Carver, 1986), hardiness (e.g., Florian, Mikulincer, & Taubman, 1995), self-esteem (e.g., Chapman & Mullis, 1999; Lane, Jones, & Stevens, 2002), locus of control (e.g., Amirkhan, 1990; Lu & Chen, 1996; Parkes, 1986), and anxiety (Arthur, 1998; Endler & Parker, 1990).

The result of a research showed that optimism was associated with active coping responses to physical challenges (Scheier, Weintraub, & Carver, 1986). In another study (Carver et al., 1993) it was found that optimists tended to express more frequent use of positive coping responses (positive reframing and acceptance) and less frequent use of negative coping responses (denial and disengagement).

Hardiness is another trait that has been studied in relation to coping. Florian, Mikulincer, and Taubman (1995) found that hardiness was associated with a higher use of problem-focused and support seeking strategies and a lower use of emotion-focused and distancing coping strategies.

Another personality trait that has been studied in relation to coping was self-esteem (Lane, Jones, & Stevens, 2002). Individuals reporting high self-esteem indicated a tendency to adopt problem-focused strategies (seeking social support for instrumental reasons, planning, and increasing effort) whereas individuals reporting low self-esteem tended to use maladaptive coping strategies such as behavioral disengagement and self-blame. Consistent with this finding, Chapman and Mullis (1999) found that adolescents with lower self-esteem utilized more avoidance coping strategies than did adolescents with higher self-esteem.

Studies investigating the relationship between locus of control and coping showed that internal locus of control was associated with more adaptive coping responses (Parkes, 1986; Lu & Chen, 1996); external locus of control was associated with less problem-solving coping (Amirkhan, 1990).

Anxiety as a personality trait was also studied in relation to coping. Endler and Parker (1990) found that state anxiety was positively associated with emotion-focused coping. Folkman and Lazarus' study (1985) revealed that people who experienced higher levels of stress, anxiety or depression used more maladaptive coping. Consistent with this finding, Arthur (1998) found that both depression and anxiety were related to students' coping through both mental and behavioral disengagement as well as alcohol/drug use. Students with low anxiety tended to use

more planning, suppression of competing activities, and humor as compared to students with high anxiety.

There are some studies examining the relationship between coping strategies and physical and psychological symptoms, and mental health. Aldwin and Revenson (1987) examined the relationship between coping and mental health. They found that poorer mental health (high emotional distress) led to the use of less adaptive coping strategies, such as escapism. Jung (1993) found that avoidance coping was related to higher levels of physical and psychological symptoms, whereas problem solving was associated with fewer psychological symptoms.

Age, sex, and socio economic status have also been studied in coping literature very extensively. Tamres, Janicki, and Helgeson (2002), in a meta-analysis study, examined sex differences in coping. They analyzed 50 studies reported between 1990 and 2000. Results indicated that women were more likely to use various types of coping strategies including both problem- and emotion-focused domains than were men. The results regarding sex differences in coping indicated no sex difference in terms of problem-focused and avoidant coping. However, the researchers speculated that men as compared to women might engage in more avoidant or withdrawal behavior for some stressors such as, situations related to other people (relationships and other's health). The researchers also mentioned that most of the sex differences in coping were small. The major differences were in the contemplation or expression of feelings to others (seeking emotional support) and self (rumination, positive self-talk). Only seeking emotional support was found to be different across sexes in that women were more likely than men to seek emotional support across a wide range of stressors (Tamres, Janicki, & Helgeson, 2002).

The use of coping strategies was also found to be related to age. Some of the studies showed that functional coping decreased with age (Seiffge-Krenke & Shulman, 1990), whereas emotional coping increases with age (Frydenberg & Lewis, 1993, as cited in Frydenberg, 1997).

Tomchin and Callahan (1996) examined in a cross-sectional study the relationship between self-concept and coping strategies of 10- and 16-year old adolescents. They found that older adolescents were more likely to blame themselves and less likely to focus on the positive or to seek professional help than younger adolescents. On the other hand, Chapman and Mullis (1999) found no significant age

differences between early (12 to 14 years), middle (15 to 16 years) and late adolescent (17 to 19 years) groups in the reported coping strategies. Similarly, the results of another study (Brown, 1994) yielded no significant differences in the preferences of coping reported by first- and third-year university students.

Griffith, Dubow, and Ippolito (2000) examined the differences in early, middle, and late adolescents' coping strategies. They found that the students used more coping strategies as their grade levels increased especially in the case of family and peer stressors. There was a difference with respect to use of avoidance coping strategies among the grade levels: ninth graders were found to use avoidance strategies more than seventh and twelfth graders in coping with school stressors. Another finding was that adolescents perceived school stressors as more controllable than family stressors. The adolescents preferred to use approach strategies more often than avoidance strategies when they perceived the school stressors as controllable. However, when school stressors were perceived to be uncontrollable, there was no difference in the relative use of approach and avoidance strategies. When family stressors were perceived as uncontrollable, adolescents used more avoidance than approach strategies.

Coping is influenced by individuals' internal (e.g., personality traits, sex, age) and external resources (e.g., social support, environmental demands) available to them. Zea, Jarama, and Bianchi (1995) found that first-year university students' satisfaction with social support was a significant predictor of active coping. Tao, Dong, Pratt, Hunsberger, and Pancer (2000) stated that peer support was significantly positively related to positive coping patterns (approach coping style and problem-focused efforts) whereas university teacher support was significantly negatively associated with negative coping styles (avoiding style and emotion-focused coping) of first-year university students. Parental and sibling support were not found to be related to coping styles significantly. Parkes (1986) examined environmental factors (social support and work demand) as predictor of coping strategies. The study revealed that in an environment characterized by high work demand or low support, or both, a greater number of coping strategies was endorsed by first-year female student nurses.

2.4. Coping and University Adjustment

Entering a university is one of the major experiences in the transition from adolescent to adulthood. In this period, students meet with certain developmental tasks in a particular culture. The main tasks are the following: 1) separation from significant others, such as, parents, siblings, and close friends; 2) greater autonomy to make important decisions, to take responsibility for oneself, and to regulate one's own behavior; 3) establishing new friendships; 4) internal and external pressures toward greater intimacy and adult sexuality; and 5) dealing with new intellectual challenges (Silber, Hamburg, Coelho, Murphey, Rosenberg, & Pearlin, 1976).

During the first-year of the university, emotional, social, and intellectual skills of students are tested. Coelho, Hamburg, and Murphey (1976) determined socioeconomic tasks of this transition period, which the students should overcome. These challenges are: (1) unfamiliar subject matters; (2) more difficult and demanding course contents; (3) demands on generating new ideas, techniques within a limited examination schedule; (4) assignments requiring time management strategies; (5) new fields of knowledge that have no immediate vocational application; (6) various demands of university requiring good time and activity management; (7) curricular and extracurricular demands of campus life, requiring the ability to make long-term and binding decisions.

In order to get through these tasks or challenges, students are in need of many different patterns of coping behavior. Moos (1976) emphasized that the accomplishment of each task, and how it is accomplished, may affect the adult life of the individual and those close to him.

Although university adjustment and coping have been separately studied and well documented in the literature as explained in this chapter, there are limited numbers of studies, which examine the effects of coping strategies on university adjustment.

In an attempt to understand how competent adolescents cope with anticipated university tasks, Silber, Hamburg, Coelho, Murphey, Rosenberg, and Pearlin (1976) conducted a study over a 6-month period, from the spring of the last year of high school through September (prior to student's departure for university). Fifteen competent adolescents who were good at academic work at school, maintaining

interpersonal closeness with a peer, and participating in social groups were selected for the study. Researchers made interviews with the students 6 or 7 times. They found that the students' general characteristics were the positive attitude toward new experiences, a tendency to be active in dealing with the tasks of the transition, and an enjoyment of problem solving and pleasure derived from mastering of the challenges. This pleasure derived from the feeling of efficacy and serving to facilitate an active involvement and pleasure in coping with the new situation.

The interviews conducted in this study indicated that students in order to prepare themselves psychologically as adequate people to the new environment, (1) referred back to relevant past experiences of their own which had been adequately mastered. As a result, they could reassure themselves about their ability to handle these situations in the future. (2) By seeking out information about the new environment, they reduced some of the ambiguity in it and, in doing so, felt better prepared to deal with it. (3) They prepared for the new situation by rehearsing forms of behavior associated with university students, for example, beginning to buy their own clothes, teaching him/herself to get things done in a minimum amount of time and not procrastinating things, and so on. In addition they rehearsed behaving more like adults before beginning university by getting a summer job. (4) They also dealt with concerns about performance at university by redefining an acceptable goal that would permit them to maintain a feeling of satisfaction in their performance. In addition, (5) the students tended to perceive selectively encouraging elements in the new university environment. They perceived university as a potentially friendly environment and this perception helped the students sustain the feeling that one would be able to get along well there.

Coelho, Hamburg, and Murphey (1976) followed the subjects of Silber, Hamburg, Coelho, Murphey, Rosenberg, and Pearlin's study (1976) during their first year at university. They focused on specific socioacademic tasks of competent first-year university students. They found very diverse patterns of coping behavior in the new academic environment. Maintaining a sense of worth and keeping anxiety within noninterfering limits involved the capacity for doing meaningful work, actively seeking out problem-solving opportunities, and working out diverse sources of intellectual gratification outside the normal academic curriculum. Researchers also identified short-run tactics for handling academic disappointment. If the students

experienced some academic disappointment then they recentered their efforts within long-range purposes, like setting another goal for the course that they were poor in.

In a more recent study, Jorgensen and Dusek (1990) examined the relationship between psychosocial adjustment and coping strategies categorized as more salutary and less salutary coping strategies among first-year university students. Subjects were 331 (139 males and 192 females) students. Results revealed that salutary coping efforts (e.g., developing a plan of action, utilizing social resources for emotional support and discussion of problems, and engaging in physical, cognitive, and scholastic activities) were higher among optimally adjusted students than among less optimally adjusted students.

Aspinwall and Taylor's study (1992) investigated the impact of individual differences regarding optimism, self-esteem, and locus of control, and coping on university adjustment. It was found that higher self-esteem, greater optimism, and an internal locus of control predicted less use of avoidant coping. Avoidant coping, in turn, predicted less successful adjustment to university. Greater optimism and greater desire for control predicted greater use of active coping to deal with the stress of entering university. Active coping, in turn, predicted better subsequent adjustment to university.

Zea, Jarama, and Bianchi (1995) examined the relationships of social support, active coping, and university adjustment with a sample of 357 university students. The results revealed that both active coping and perception of social support played an important role in adjustment to university. They suggested that both active coping and social support might produce desirable outcomes in the academic, social, emotional, and institutional aspects of university adjustment.

Tao, Dong, Pratt, Hunsberger, and Pancer (2000) investigated the interrelationships of social support, coping strategies, and university adjustment with a sample of 390 first-year students in the People's Republic of China. The researchers found that social support was more closely related to social adjustment, feelings of attachment to their university, and to self-esteem, whereas it was significantly less closely related to students' perceptions of their academic adjustment. In addition, they found that overall social support at the beginning of the first semester was associated with adjustment at the end of the first semester both directly and indirectly through the patterns of less negative coping (acceptance,

venting, denial, behavior and mental, alcohol-drug, and disengagement) and more positive coping (active coping, planning, suppression of competing activities, seeking emotional and instrumental social support, and positive reinterpretation) among those who reported greater perceived social support.

Leong, Bonz, and Zachar (1997) tested the hypothesis whether or not the students' differential coping styles could impact their adjustment to university. Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire to measure the college adjustment of students and COPE for assessing the coping styles were administered to 161 first-year university students. The findings indicated that while active coping was positively related to academic and personal/emotional adjustment for first-year students, suppression of competing activities was negatively related with them. It was also found that focus on and venting of emotions was negatively related to personal/emotional adjustment. They also found that social adjustment and goal commitment/institutional attachment were not related to any coping strategies.

2.5. Cross-Cultural Studies Related to Coping Strategies

Coping style is affected by the individual's appraisal of the situation he/she is faced with as well as by the resources available. The use of these resources may be approved of or prohibited by cultural values and norms (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Several cross-cultural studies indicated that how people cope with stressful events differ considerably across cultures. For example Marcella, Escurado, and Gordon (1972, as cited in Essau & Trommsdorff, 1996) found that coping strategies such as, projection, acceptance, religion, and perseverance were used in collectivistic cultures like, the Philippines, Korea and Taiwan.

In Essau and Trommsdorff's (1996) study, it was found that Malaysian students as compared to North Americans and Germans used substantially more emotion-focused coping in dealing with their school-related problems. North Americans and Germans who used emotion-focused coping experienced fewer physical symptoms, whereas Malaysians experienced more symptoms. In contrast, Gerdes and Ping (1994) found that American students reported using less problem-focused coping strategies than Chinese students. Vandervoort (2001) investigated the cultural differences in ways of coping with sadness. According to the study results

Asians and Caucasians were less likely to use confrontive (i.e., hostility, aggressive efforts to alter the situation, and risk-taking) and positive reappraisal coping strategies in dealing with sadness than multiethnic individuals. In addition, Asians used less distancing coping strategies (i.e., denial, escaping).

In a study, Olah (1995) examined the influence of culture on coping behaviors of Indian, Italian, Hungarian, Swedish, and Yemenite 17-18-year-old adolescents. Results showed that adolescents in European countries reported significantly more frequently assimilative coping strategies (i.e., problem-focused, constructive, confrontative, information-seeking, seeking social support for instrumental reason) than boys and girls in India and Yemen, the latter generally preferring emotion-focused solutions. Similarly, Sinha, Willson, and Watson (2000) found greater use of emotion-focused coping (e.g., confrontive, distancing, seeking social support, positive reappraisal) in Indian students than in Canadians. The maximum difference between the Indian and Canadian samples was in positive reappraisal strategy. Use of problem-focused coping did not differ between the two cultures.

There seems to be a tendency among people in collectivistic cultures to use emotion-focused coping, whereas those in individualistic cultures are more likely to prefer problem-focused coping (Olah, 1995; Sinha, Willson, & Watson, 2000).

Jerusalem and Schwarzer (1989) compared coping resources and coping between Turks living in Germany and Germans. Results revealed that while Germans received higher scores in instrumental coping, Turks received higher scores in emotional coping. In addition Germans had better coping resources (higher self-efficacy and self-esteem) in their own culture and they used more problem-focused coping.

2.6. Counseling Implications in University Adjustment and Coping Strategies

New students need help during the transition from high school to the university environment. Their life becomes more complex and the relationships between academic majors and occupations are not as clear as most students assume. In addition to these academic and career concerns, they are involved in developmental tasks, such as becoming independent, developing physical and

intellectual competence, and developing interpersonal skills (Chickering, 1969). Confrontation with these adjustment tasks creates the necessity for the university student to obtain assistance. University counseling centers are the responsible agents to provide services for the newcomers by introducing them not only to the university environment but also by providing them with opportunities to acquire the necessary skills for coping with these challenges.

Some prevention programs have been developed for the first-year students in the university for the challenges they would meet in university life. These included mini courses or workshops with various goals and formats: those offered for no academic credit (e.g., Knott & Daher, 1978); those designed to help students with freshmen seminar courses (e.g., Gordon & Grites, 1984; Raymondo, 2003); and some programs teaching effective coping strategies (e.g., Compas, 1995).

Some researchers made suggestions about what prevention programs should cover. For example, Knott and Daher (1978) prepared a three-session structured group program to help new students meet the demands of transition from high school to university. Each session included one of the major skills for mastery in making a satisfactory transition to campus: mapping skills, problem-solving strategies, and developing competencies. The researchers stated some specific tasks that a student would face: adapting to a new environment, decision making and self-discipline skill acquisition, meeting new academic demands, clarifying sexual values and their expression, resolving separation and loss, initiating new relationships. They suggested that a group program should focus on the skills that help the student get through these tasks. Another guideline was proposed by Gordon and Grites (1984). They prepared a freshman seminar course to help students through this adjustment period by providing the information and support they need as new coming students. According to them, the freshman seminar course is an excellent vehicle for helping students to feel more comfortable and accepted in a new environment that may be perceived as strange and threatening. Through information exchanges, class discussion and a diversity of assignments, students are helped to identify and understand the academic, personal, and social growth they are about to experience. The freshman seminar course facilitates cooperation and commitment of various groups.

Compass (1995) categorized coping skills development programs into three groups by taking three types of stress into account: generic stress, acute stress, and chronic stress. Coping skills programs designed to deal with “generic stresses” were divided into two groups. The first group helps adolescents to develop life skills and to deal with problems of everyday life, and the second group assists adolescents in avoiding the stresses that are related to substance abuse, teenage pregnancy, and antisocial behavior. The programs for “acute stresses” help adolescents to cope with divorce, loss of a parent, and so on. The programs dealing with “chronic stresses” assist adolescents living with depressive parents or coping with illness. These kinds of programs help adolescents to develop a wider and flexible coping skills repertoire. Compas (1995) concluded that using a range of coping strategies with diverse stress situations during the adolescence period would provide a basis for tomorrow's adults to gain effective coping strategies. Mahan and Shaughnessy (1999) supported this suggestion and added that counseling services might provide stress management training programs, attendance of, which should be mandatory for new students at university. In addition, Argyle (1999) stated the importance of social coping skills as relationships were the major source of happiness and the support of others was a way of coping with stress. Therefore, in order to cope with social situations in the university environment some basic social skills are required. Counseling centers at the universities should prepare some social coping skills training programs for the first-year students to develop their social skills. Paul, Brier, Er, Phan, Vereen, and Garrett (2001) suggested grief (loss) education to improve the acceptance of loss (e.g., precollege friendship, neighborhood that one came from, home) and the development of productive coping mechanisms provided by residence hall and counseling personnel. Furthermore, it is important to develop some social skills training programs for the students to help them to engage in social activities and gain new friendships.

There are some studies investigating the effects of various programs on university adjustment and on acquiring effective coping strategies.

Doman and Christensen (1976) developed the Group Life Seminar (GLS) to provide first-year students with a developmental and continuing orientation program in order to understand the effects of the GLS on the students' perceptions of the university environment. Experimental groups were composed of 425 and the control

group included 79 first-year students. The results showed that the experimental and control groups did not differ in their expectations of the university environment in the pretest scores. After the implementation of the program, experimental and control groups tended to be lower in their expectations than they had been in their expectations according to their groups' pretest scores. However, experimental groups' university expectations after the program tended to drop less than the control group's expectations.

Jackson and Swegan (1977) implemented a series of mini-courses to first-year students to reexamine and clarify their own value systems. The following topics were discussed in the mini-courses: transition to university, self-exploration and goal setting, communication skills, education about alcohol and drug use, human sexuality, career exploration, and an orientation to the university library. Results suggested the following: (1) the goal of the program concerning value clarification through peer group participation appeared to be accomplished. The students reacted favorably to the opportunity to share thoughts and ideas with one another; (2) the topic that received the most positive response was career exploration. The incoming first-year students seemed to be intensely interested in the effect that university would have on their future.

Raymondo (2003) examined the effects of an abbreviated freshman year seminar program on first-year and second-year retention. He prepared a seven-week program including the topics of history of the university, time management, academic jargon, learning styles, study and critical thinking skills, choosing a major, diversity on campus, stress management, health issues, and values and relationships. Results did not reveal any significant difference in terms of student retention and academic performance between students participating in the program and those who did not.

Assimilating new experiences cognitively is an important part of coping with life transitions in terms of developing self-concepts (Fisher & Hood, 1988; Pennebaker, Colder, & Sharp, 1990). Pennebaker, Colder, and Sharp (1990) presented a writing intervention for first-year university students and they found that writing about thoughts and feelings about the first few weeks of the university decreased the number of visits to health center in the following 4-5 months.

In order to increase coping resources in preadolescents through the modeling and teaching of optimistic thinking skills, Cunningham, Brandon, and Frydenberg (2002) developed a school-based program. The researchers found that children who participated in an enhancement of coping resources program reported significant development in coping efficacy, that is they gained a greater sense of control over their internal states than did students in control groups. It was also observed that depressive attributions and use of the non-productive coping strategies (i.e., worry, wishful thinking, not coping, and ignoring the problem) decreased in the experimental group.

2.7. Studies in Turkey

Studies in Turkey are presented under the two headings. One introduces the studies related to university adjustment and the other presents studies concerning coping strategies.

2.7.1. Studies on University Adjustment in Turkey

Studies on university adjustment conducted in Turkey generally concentrated on the effects of various demographic variables, and some personality characteristics on university adjustment.

Alperten (1993) investigated the effect of various personal, social, and familial variables on the adjustment level of university students. A total of 735 students from each of the five grades (from preparatory to senior grade) were included in the study. The adjustment levels of the participants were assessed by Hacettepe Personality Inventory. Results revealed that students, who perceived their monthly income as sufficient, were satisfied with their physical appearance, and who had strong religious beliefs showed a high general adjustment level. In addition, satisfactory relationships with family and friends, and being involved in extracurricular activities also led to higher university adjustment.

Akbalık, (1997) examined the effect of group counseling on academic, social and overall university adjustment of first-year students at Ankara University. For this research purpose, Adjustment to University Scale was developed by the researcher. Experimental and control groups were composed. Pre- and post-tests were

administered to both groups. Students who were in the experimental group participated in a counseling group program and also received information about academic environment, learning strategies, and time management during 11 weeks. The control group did not receive any training during this time period. Akbalık (1997) found that while group counseling had a positive effect on the social and overall university adjustment, it had a negative effect on academic adjustment.

Alpan (1992) conducted a study to understand the reasons for the difficulty to adjust to university life and the coping strategies used in dealing with daily problems. Students attributed the reasons of failure to their inability to use their capacities to adjust to their environment and some psychological problems that they had. On the other hand, they reported that they could easily establish new friendships and chose their friends from the same city that they came from. When they had any problem they mostly coped with it by talking about it with their friends or families and by smoking. Crying and going out with their friends were reported as further coping strategies.

2.7.2. Studies on Coping Strategies in Turkey

In Turkey, the studies concerning the coping strategies generally aimed at finding out the relationship of coping strategies with some variables.

Durmuş and Tezer (2001) investigated the relationship between sense of humor and coping strategies. They found that students with a high sense of humor used optimistic and self-confident styles more than those with a low sense of humor. In addition, females tended to use helpless coping style and males tended to prefer optimistic coping style.

Kahraman (1995) examined the differences between boarding and nonboarding vocational high school students' coping behaviors in terms of sex, loneliness, achievement and grade levels. Results indicated that while girls were more likely to use problem solving, self-blame, and imagination, boys were more likely to use avoidance type of coping strategies. Resident students who had a high loneliness score used more avoidance coping. Third grade high school students were more likely to use problem solving, seeking social support, imagination, and avoidance coping.

Besides such studies, there have been some studies on adolescents and children.

Şahin (1995) investigated the coping strategies of adolescents (15 to 17 years old) who were living with their families and in an orphanage with regard to age and sex. She found that there was neither any difference between the adolescents living in orphanages and those living with their parents, nor between girls and boys in terms of coping strategies. On the other hand, girls living in the orphanage used more adaptive coping strategies compared to those living with their parents; older adolescents living in the orphanage used more adaptive coping strategies compared to those living with their parents.

Oral (1994), conducted a study about the stress events and coping strategies of adolescents. Results revealed that seeking refuge in fate, social support, optimistic approach, and withdrawal strategies were used to cope with loss of someone. Self-blame was used to deal with academic problems. She also found differences between secular and semi-secular high school students (İmam Hatip Lisesi) in terms of coping strategies used. Findings showed that secular high school students were more likely to use active coping and optimistic approach compared to those at semi-secular high school.

Şahin and Durak (1996) examined the relationship between some personality characteristics and coping strategies. The results revealed that while stress symptoms were negatively related to problem-focused coping, they were positively correlated with emotion-focused coping. Vulnerability to stress was positively related to emotional-coping, whereas, optimism and life satisfaction were positively related to problem-focused coping.

Tuğrul (1994) compared youngsters between the ages of 18-24 who had alcoholic and nonalcoholic fathers in terms of the ways of coping they employed to deal with the stressors in the family environment. The results indicated that youngsters who had alcoholic fathers used a less problem solving and more helpless approach in trying to cope with these stressors and sought refuge in supernatural forces.

Güney (1992) examined how children cope with their unhappiness and the effectiveness of the coping strategies they used regarding sex, socio economic differences, and the relationship between coping strategies and depressive symptoms.

She found that the mostly preferred coping strategy was play and the least preferred one was eating. Playing and seeking help were found to be more effective coping strategies for children. Depressive symptoms correlated with fewer and ineffective coping strategies.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

In this chapter methodological procedures are presented. The major topics are the sampling, instruments, equivalence studies of the instruments, procedure, and data analysis techniques, respectively. The sampling section deals with the selection procedures and the demographic characteristics of the sample. The instrument section explains the scales utilized in the collection of data. The section concerning the equivalence studies of the instruments presents the results of the equivalence studies in Turkish and U.S. samples. The procedure section deals with the way in which the scales were administered. Finally, the analysis of data section presents the statistical techniques used in the study.

3.1. Sample

The total sample was composed of 1143 university students from Turkey (n = 695) and U.S. (n = 448). In the selection of the sample, two different procedures were followed because of the specific conditions in each country.

In Turkey, Middle East Technical University (METU) and Başkent University (BU) were selected as the representatives of public and private universities. Through stratified random sampling procedure, 403 students from METU and 292 students from BU attending Preparatory Schools of these universities participated in the study.

In U.S., 178 students from Indiana University at South Bend (IUSB-a state university) and 270 students from University of Notre Dame (UND-a private

university) voluntarily participated in the study. All these students attended Introductory Psychology courses and they received extra two credits for participation.

The distribution of the sample in terms of countries, universities, and gender is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Sample of the Study

Country	Universities	Gender		Total
		Male	Female	
Turkey	METU	239	163	402
	BU	143	149	292
	Total	382	312	694
U.S.	UND	132	138	270
	IUSB	78	100	178
	Total	210	238	448
Total		592	550	1143

As seen in Table 1, the distributions of gender in each of the universities were almost equal.

The mean age of the sample was 18.68 (SD = 1.22) for the Turkish sample and 19.36 (SD = 3.76) for the U.S. sample.

In U.S. sample, the majority of the students (approximately 83%) were Caucasians in each university. The rest of the students were Indian-Americans, Asian-Americans, African-Americans, and Hispanics (approximately 17%).

In terms of place of residence, in Turkish sample, about half of METU students were living on-campus (54.5%), 31.8% with parents while 62.5% of BU students were living with their parents and 18.6 % of them were living on-campus. In U.S. sample, 63.5% of the IUSB students were living with their parents whereas 99.6% of UND students were living on-campus.

In the present study, the variable regarding the year that the students spent in university was also controlled. In Turkish sample there were 26 (7.7%) students who transferred from another institution and 44 (12.8%) students were those who spent at least 2 years in the university. In U.S. sample there were 33 (18.8%) transferred

students and there were 11 (6.2%) students who spent at least 2 years in the university. These students were excluded from the sample and the analyses for the main research questions were carried out with a total sample of 1040 (Turkish sample n = 629 and U.S. sample n = 411) first year university students.

3.2. The Instruments

Three instruments, namely, Demographic Sheet (DS), Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire (SACQ), and Brief COPE were used in the present study.

3.2.1. Demographic Sheet (DS)

Demographic Sheet (DS) (See Appendix A for complete sheet) was developed for Turkish and U.S. samples to obtain information for the purpose of sample description. Information related to sex, age, place of residence (classified as living in on-campus, living alone, living with parents, relatives, with a partner, and friends) and two separate questions (being either a “first year” or “second year” student and being “a transferred student or not”) included to the questionnaire. American students were also asked to indicate their ethnic origins classified as Caucasian, Indian-American, Asian-American, African-American, and Hispanic.

3.2.2. Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire (SACQ)

Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire (See Appendix B for the sample items of Turkish version of SACQ) is a self-report measure, originally developed by Baker and Siryk (1984a) for assessing four facets of student adjustment to university, namely, academic adjustment, social adjustment, personal/emotional adjustment, and goal commitment/institutional attachment. The initial version of SACQ was a 52-item Likert type scale. However, the last version of SACQ (Baker & Siryk, 1999) consists of 67 items to which students respond on a 9-point scale ranging from “1 = doesn’t apply to me at all” to “9 = applies very closely to me”. The possible total score, which can be obtained from SACQ, changed between 67 and 603. High scores indicated a better level of adjustment to university.

The aims and measurement characteristics of four subscales of SACQ were presented as follows:

Academic Adjustment Subscale

This subscale consists of 24 items (items, 3, 5, 6, 10, 13, 17, 19, 21, 23, 25, 27, 29, 32, 36, 39, 41, 43, 44, 50, 52, 54, 58, 62, 66), which focus on academic motivation, academic effort, academic performance, and satisfaction with the academic environment. This subscale is composed of four item clusters: *Motivation* (6 items, e.g., I am enjoying my academic work at college), *application* (4 items, e.g., I'm not working as hard as I should at my course work), *performance* (9 items, e.g., I'm not doing well enough academically for the amount of work I put in), and *academic environment* (5 items, e.g., I am satisfied with the number and variety of courses available at college). Its scores ranged from 24 to 216.

Social Adjustment Subscale

This subscale is composed of 20 items (items, 1, 4, 8, 9, 14, 16, 18, 22, 26, 30, 33, 37, 42, 46, 48, 51, 56, 57, 63, 65). These items measure the success of social activities, social aspects of the university environment as well as relationships with roommates, opposite sex, and dealing with being away from home. Subscale items are divided into four item clusters: *General* (7 items, e.g., I am very involved with social activities in college), *other people* (7 items, e.g., I am meeting as many people, and making as many friends as I would like at college), *nostalgia* (3 items, e.g., Lonesomeness for home is a source of difficulty for me now), and *social environment* (3 items, e.g., I am satisfied with the extracurricular activities available at college). Its scores ranged from 20 to 180.

Personal/Emotional Adjustment Subscale

This subscale consists of 15 items (items, 2, 7, 11, 12, 20, 24, 28, 31, 35, 38, 40, 45, 49, 55, 64), which focus on psychological and physical well-being. Subscale items are divided into two item clusters: *Psychological* (9 items, e.g., I haven't been able to control my emotions very well lately), and *physical* (6 items, e.g., My appetite has been good lately). Its scores ranged from 15 to 135.

Goal Commitment/Institutional Attachment Subscale

This subscale contains 15 items (items, 1, 4, 15, 16, 26, 34, 36, 42, 47, 56, 57, 59, 60, 61, and 65). It is designed to assess one's feelings about and satisfaction with

being in university in general and particular university in attendance. This subscale is divided into two item clusters: *General* (3 items, e.g., I am pleased now about my decision to go to college) and *this college* (4 items, e.g., I am pleased now about my decision to attend this college in particular). In this subscale, eight items are in common with the Social Adjustment subscale, and 1 item is in common with the Academic Adjustment subscale. That is, eight items (1, 4, 16, 26, 42, 56, 57, and 65) are also scored in Social Adjustment subscale whereas one item (36) is scored in Academic Adjustment subscale. Its original scores ranged from 15 to 135.

Reliability and Validity Studies of Original SACQ

Baker and Siryk (1999) carried out a series of reliability and validity studies of SACQ. Regarding test-retest reliability they mentioned that the estimates of internal consistency reliability are more appropriate than test-retest reliability for the SACQ since it does not measure stable and enduring properties of individuals; student's environment, life events, and, possibly, personality characteristics can vary. Internal consistency coefficients have been reported as ranging from .92 to .95 for the overall SACQ. The Cronbach alpha coefficients for the subscales changed between .81 and .90 for the Academic Adjustment subscale, .83 and .91 for the Social Adjustment subscale, .77 and .86 for the Personal-Emotional Adjustment subscale, .85 and .91 for the Goal Commitment/Institutional Attachment subscale. Numerous administrations of the SACQ have yielded correlations between the full scale and subscales ranging from .68 to .90.

The results of validity studies carried out by Baker and Siryk (1999) revealed that, academic adjustment was significantly correlated with freshmen-year GPA and membership in an academic honor society; scores of the social adjustment scale correlated with the scores of social activities checklist; low scores on the personal/emotional adjustment scale were predicted by being seen for psychological counseling; and goal commitment/institutional attachment scores were significantly correlated with overall satisfaction with university.

3.2.3. The Brief COPE

The Brief COPE (See Appendix C for the sample items of Turkish version of the Brief COPE) is a brief form of an inventory (COPE) originally developed by

Carver, Scheier, and Weintraub (1989) to assess the different ways in which people respond to stress. The original COPE consists of 15 subscales, namely, Active Coping, Planning, Suppression of Competing Activities, Restraint Coping, Seeking Instrumental Social Support, Seeking Emotional Social Support, Positive Reinterpretation and Growth, Acceptance, Denial, Turning to Religion, Focus on and Venting of Emotions, Behavioral Disengagement, Mental Disengagement, Alcohol and Drug Use, and Humor. The COPE is a 60-item instrument with 4 items per scale. Later, researchers (Carver, et al., 1993) carried out a study by choosing only three items per scale and suggested that responding the COPE is a tiresome process for the subjects. Carver (1997) then conducted another study to revise the COPE to develop a briefer form. In his study, two subscales of the full COPE (Restraint Coping and Suppression of Competing Activities) were omitted as a result of the findings of the previous study (Carver et al., 1993) demonstrating the lack of evidence regarding the usefulness of these two subscales. Three of the original subscales underwent some modifications to sharpen their focus. The scales initially termed Positive Reinterpretation and Growth, Focus on and Venting of Emotions, and Mental Disengagement were named as Positive Reframing, Venting, and Self-Distraction respectively. Another subscale was also added to measure self-blame which is not included in the original COPE. Finally, 14 subscales were established with two items in each. Two criteria were used to select two items for each scale: (1) a high loading on the relevant factor in the original factor analyses (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989) and (2) items' clarity and the ease of communication with nonstudent populations. This new brief form was named as the Brief COPE to assess coping with stress (Carver, 1997). The items have been used in at least three formats. One is a "dispositional" or trait-like version in which respondents report the extent to which they usually do the things listed, when they are stressed. The second version is a time-limited version in which respondents indicate the degree to which they actually did have each response during a particular period in the past. The third version is a time-limited version in which respondents indicate the degree to which they have been having each response during a period up to the present. In the present study, the third format was used since the study focused on the recent experiences of the students. Response options in this format range from 1 (I'm not doing this at all) to 4

(I'm doing this a lot). The possible score that can be obtained from each of the subscale range from 2 to 8.

The aims and the example of items related to 14 subscales of Brief COPE are as follows:

Active coping

It is the process of taking active steps to try to remove or circumvent the stressor or to ameliorate its effects. Active coping includes initiating direct action, increasing one's efforts, and trying to execute a coping attempt in stepwise fashion (e.g. I'm taking action to try to make the situation better.).

Planning

It refers to thinking about how to cope with a stressor. Planning involves coming up with action strategies, thinking about what steps to take and how best to handle the problem (e.g. I'm thinking hard about what steps to take.).

Seeking social support for instrumental reasons

It indicates seeking advice, assistance, or information (e.g. I'm getting help and advice from other people.).

Seeking social support for emotional reasons

It includes getting moral support, sympathy, or understanding (e.g. I'm getting comfort and understanding from someone.).

Venting

It refers to the tendency to focus on whatever distress or upset one is experiencing and to ventilate those feeling (e.g. I'm expressing my negative feelings.).

Behavioral disengagement

It includes reducing one's effort to deal with the stressor, even giving up the attempt to attain goals with which the stressor is interfering (e.g. I'm giving up trying to deal with it.).

Self-Distraction

It refers to focusing more explicitly on doing things to take one's mind off the stressor. Tactics that reflect mental disengagement include using alternative activities to take one's mind of a problem, daydreaming, escaping through sleep, or escape by immersion in TV (e.g. I'm turning to work or other activities to take my mind off things.).

Positive Reframing

It indicates construing a stressful transaction in positive terms that should intrinsically lead the person to continue (or to resume) active, problem-focused coping actions (e.g. I'm trying to see it in a different light, to make it seem more positive.).

Denial

It is the report of refusal to believe that the stressor exists or of trying to act as though the stressor is not real (e.g. I'm saying to myself "this isn't real.").

Acceptance

It refers to the acceptance of impinges on two aspects of the coping process. Acceptance of a stressor as real occurs in primary appraisal. Acceptance of a current absence of active coping strategies relates to secondary appraisal (e.g. I'm learning to live with it.).

Religion

Religion serves as a source of emotional support, as a vehicle for positive reinterpretation, and growth, or as a tactic of active coping with a stressor (e.g. I'm praying or meditating.).

Substance use

Items include using alcohol and drugs (e.g. I'm using alcohol or other drugs to make myself feel better.).

Humor

It measures humor and making fun of the stressor (e.g. I'm making fun of the situation.).

Self-blame

It assesses one's tendency to criticize oneself (e.g. I'm criticizing myself.).

Reliability and Validity Studies of Original Brief COPE

Carver (1997) reported that the internal consistency coefficients of the subscales exceeded the value of .50. Averaged Cronbach alpha coefficients across three administrations of each of the subscales of the Brief COPE were .68 for active coping, .73 for planning, .64 for positive reframing, .57 for acceptance, .73 for humor, .82 for religion, .71 for using emotional support, .64 for using instrumental support, .71 for self-distraction, .54 for denial, .50 for venting, .90 for substance use,

.65 for behavioral disengagement, and .69 for self-blame. It was also reported that exploratory factor analysis revealed nine factors, which explained 72.4% of the total variance. Four scales, which were in the original COPE, yielded different factors: Substance Use, Religion, Humor, and Behavioral Disengagement. Similar with the original analyses of the full COPE (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989), Use of Emotional Support and Use of Instrumental Support loaded on one factor. Active Coping, Planning, and Positive Reframing items loaded on a single factor. Items from two original COPE scales loaded together on a single factor. One factor was composed of the items from the Venting and Self-Distraction scales. The other was composed of the items from the Denial and Self-Blame scales. Items of the original COPE scale loaded on separate factors: One of the item in Acceptance subscale loaded by itself on its own factor; the other item loaded on the Active Coping factor (.52), but with a strong secondary loading (.47) on the Acceptance factor. Carver (1997) concluded that the factor structure of the Brief COPE was remarkably similar to the original COPE inventory.

3.2.4. The Translation Studies of the SACQ and the Brief COPE

In the present study, the translation studies of the two instruments (SACQ and Brief COPE) were carried out together by following translation-back-translation procedure. For this purpose, following procedure was used.

First, four counselors and one English Literature graduate student who were fluent in English translated the instruments into Turkish. Second, one professor in English literature and two professors in guidance and counseling field evaluated these five versions of translated instruments for choosing the best fitting translation for each item. Third, Turkish translation of the instruments were given to other three bilingual counselors for back-translation in order to ensure the equivalence of the instruments in two languages. The translation and back-translation studies were compared whether Turkish items and English items fit each other. Finally, an instructor in Turkish language evaluated the Turkish versions of the instruments in terms of clarity in Turkish. Translation studies completed when all the items in the instruments were found to be clear and correct in Turkish language.

3.3. Equivalence Studies of the Instruments in Turkish and U.S. Samples

In this section, the findings regarding the equivalence of SACQ and Brief COPE between Turkish and U.S. samples are presented. As it is proposed in cross-cultural studies, in the present study, the attempt has been made to determine the equivalence of the instruments rather than to carry out reliability and validity studies of the instruments.

By following the guidelines proposed for the first stage of data analysis, the below mentioned analyses were carried out for SACQ and Brief COPE separately.

First, item-total correlations for each instrument were calculated separately in each sample. As a rule proposed by Briggs and Cheek (1986), the item-total correlation coefficients below the value of .11 obtained in any items were excluded from the instruments in both samples.

Second, the remaining items were factor analyzed by Principal Component Analysis with Varimax rotation procedure separately for Turkish and U.S. samples.

Third, the factor loadings of each of the items in two samples were examined and compared in terms of their factor loadings and similarities to each other.

Fourth, after selecting the items that have high factor loadings in both samples, relevant cluster scores were calculated for each of the instruments and these cluster/subscale scores were then second-order factor analyzed to examine the number of clusters/subscales. The results were examined in terms of the appropriateness of the factor structure in themselves and between samples. If any of the cluster/subscale had two loadings more than one factor, the original factor composition of the instruments and theoretical definitions of the factors were considered in deciding the place of the clusters/subscales in factors.

Finally, after calculating new subscores for each subscale, Cronbach alpha coefficients were calculated for each clusters and subscales of both instruments for each sample.

Although researchers (De Vijver & Leung, 1997; 2001) suggested one last stage, confirmatory factor analysis, for structural equivalence, it was believed that conducting this analysis would require some specific measurement expertise, not only in terms of the application of this computer program but also the interpretation of the results.

3.3.1. Equivalence Studies of SACQ

In the equivalence studies of SACQ, item-total correlations, factor structures, Cronbach alpha coefficients, and intercorrelations among the subscales of SACQ were examined.

3.3.1.1. Item-Total Correlations of the SACQ

The corrected-item total correlation coefficients of 67 items were calculated for Turkish and U.S. samples separately to examine the correlation coefficients and to find out the correlations lower than the value of .11. The results were presented in Table 2.

As seen in Table 2, the item-total correlations of the SACQ changed between .02 and .55 in Turkish sample, and -.17 and .56 in U.S. sample. It can also be seen from the Table that one item (item 23) in Turkish version and 8 items (item 6, 11, 18, 39, 43, 46, 58, 59) in English version of the scale were found to have correlations below .11.

Although the correlations of item 26 and 33 were also lower than .11, these items were not excluded from the scale based on the recommendations of the researchers (Baker & Siryk, 1999). These items are optional, and in the sample of the present study, a total of 50% and 49% of the subjects omitted 26th and 33rd items, respectively.

As a result, at this stage of analysis, by following the procedure explained in the data analysis section, 9 items found correlation coefficients below .11 were omitted from the scale in both samples.

Table 2. Item-Total Correlations of SACQ Items in Both Turkish and U.S. Samples.

Item	Turkey	U.S.	Item	Turkey	U.S.	Item	Turkey	U.S.
1	.55	.36	24	.19	.29	47	.35	.33
2	.52	.43	25	.41	.35	48	.28	.30
3	.31	.33	26	.11	.06	49	.34	.13
4	.33	.13	27	.30	.19	50	.40	.31
5	.20	.31	28	.38	.26	51	.46	.42
6	.14	-.00	29	.41	.51	52	.42	.41
7	.54	.51	30	.35	.37	53	.30	.37
8	.37	-.17	31	.30	.29	54	.36	.29
9	.50	.53	32	.28	.50	55	.52	.46
10	.33	.36	33	.02	.07	56	.43	.31
11	.49	-.01	34	.47	.21	57	.40	.38
12	.32	.36	35	.24	.42	58	.36	.06
13	.38	.44	36	.37	.28	59	.42	.05
14	.17	-.23	37	.30	.49	60	.31	.22
15	.40	.32	38	.42	.44	61	.34	.51
16	.52	.43	39	.50	.08	62	.35	.25
17	.34	.24	40	.35	.12	63	.31	.38
18	.36	.10	41	.36	.17	64	.47	.40
19	.23	.39	42	.43	.56	65	.46	.26
20	.45	.25	43	.37	-.02	66	.52	.25
21	.31	.36	44	.26	.40	67	.38	.42
22	.14	.42	45	.42	.44			
23	.09	.28	46	.36	-.05			

3.3.1.2. Factor Analysis of the SACQ in Turkish and U.S. Samples

3.3.1.2.1. Item Loadings of SACQ in Two Samples

After excluding 9 items of SACQ from both samples, the remaining 58 items were analyzed through Principal Component Analysis with Varimax rotation to examine the item loadings in both Turkish and U.S. samples. Employing an

eigenvalue of 1.00 as the criterion, the initial analysis of Turkish data, resulted in 16 factors explaining the 60.50% of the variance. The initial analysis of US data resulted in 12 factors accounting for 62.76% of the variance. For the main purpose of this stage of analysis, items were examined in terms of their factor loadings. The factor loadings of the items in Turkish and U.S. samples were presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Item Loadings of the SACQ and Their Communalities in Both Turkish and U.S. Samples

Item No	Turkey		U.S.	
	Loadings	Communalities	Loadings	Communalities
1	.59	.57	.44	.60
2	.78	.73	.55	.62
3	.58	.66	.70	.60
4	.71	.66	.41	.66
5	.68	.52	.40	.63
7	.79	.72	.50	.53
8	.72	.64	-.60	.76
9	.66	.64	.77	.69
10	.75	.65	.53	.60
12	.69	.58	.66	.54
13	.68	.63	.46	.56
14	.75	.63	-.65	.61
15	.42	.61	.55	.63
16	.78	.77	.53	.75
17	.71	.62	.78	.67
19	.65	.60	.51	.57
20	.67	.58	.68	.61
21	-.39	.52	.57	.59
22	.68	.68	.83	.82
24	.70	.65	.43	.55
25	.64	.59	.63	.66
26	.88	.82	.82	.77

Table 3. Continued.

Item No	Turkey		U.S.	
	Loadings	Communalities	Loadings	Communalities
27	.41	.58	.60	.51
28	.56	.49	.75	.67
29	.69	.64	.52	.63
30	.68	.65	.53	.56
31	.45	.53	.49	.54
32	.49	.43	.77	.74
33	.90	.84	.79	.74
34	.80	.75	.77	.72
35	.34	.48	.66	.63
36	.70	.61	.47	.48
37	.38	.57	.81	.76
38	.73	.62	.51	.62
40	.59	.48	.71	.56
41	.67	.64	.63	.62
42	.65	.58	.80	.77
44	.68	.59	.71	.66
45	.55	.50	.50	.58
47	.71	.60	.52	.63
48	.43	.47	.62	.48
49	.42	.45	.70	.61
50	.32	.53	.52	.71
51	.62	.58	.67	.64
52	.71	.60	.55	.59
53	.42	.51	.59	.56
54	.77	.71	.52	.58
55	.46	.61	.69	.60
56	.60	.53	.37	.66
57	.49	.61	.44	.46
60	.82	.75	.69	.54

Table 3. Continued.

Item No	Turkey		U.S.	
	Loadings	Communalities	Loadings	Communalities
61	.81	.76	.79	.68
62	.52	.48	.63	.54
63	.66	.53	.58	.61
64	.33	.49	.52	.66
65	.53	.69	.51	.66
66	.42	.66	.60	.70
67	.34	.49	.69	.66

As seen in Table 3, in Turkish sample, the values of factor loadings of the items changed between .90 and .32 in U.S. sample they were changed between .83 and .37. It can also be seen from the Table that most of the item loadings in both samples are moderate to high with some exceptions such as item 21, 35, 37, 50, 64, and 67 in Turkish sample, and item 56 in U.S. sample in which their item loadings are around .30's. These item loadings were considered as being at the acceptable levels. The comparisons of item loadings between the two samples were made by considering their values of factor loadings, communalities and the differences between the loadings of the two samples. The results of these comparisons implied the similarities of item loadings between the two samples.

3.3.1.2.2. Second-Order Factor Structures of SACQ in Two Samples

At this stage of analysis, first, cluster scores were computed. In the computation of cluster scores, item compositions of the original version of SACQ were taken as a base. Besides, in the computation of cluster scores, 9 items were omitted because of the low item-total correlations obtained in the previous stage of the study were extracted from their respective clusters. The distributions of these omitted items among clusters were as follows: Two items from Motivation, one item from Academic Environment, two items from Performance, one item from Physical, two items from General-Social, and one item from This College. New item distributions according to the clusters were Motivation (4 items), Application (4

items), Performance (7 items), Academic Environment (4 items), General-Social (5 items), Other People (7 items), Nostalgia (3 items), Social Environment (3 items), Psychological (9 items), Physical (5 items), General Attachment (3 items), and This College (3 items).

These cluster scores were factor analyzed to examine the factor structures of two samples. Second-order principle component factor analysis with Varimax rotation followed by Kaiser Normalization procedure yielded three second-order factors in Turkish and U.S. sample, which explained 56.87% and 61.69% of the total variance, respectively. Eigenvalues of Turkish and U.S. sample were 4.233, 1.388, 1.204 and 4.843, 1.432, 1.129, respectively. In Turkish sample, the first factor accounted for 35.27% of the total variance while the second and third factors accounted for 11.57% and 10.03%, respectively. In U.S. sample, the first factor accounted for 40.35%, second and third factors accounted for 11.93% and 9.40% of the total variance, respectively.

The cluster composition of the factors, the factor loadings and the communalities of the SACQ in Turkish sample were presented in Table 4.

Table 4. The Cluster Composition of the Factors, the Factor Loadings, and the Communalities of the SACQ in Turkish Sample.

Cluster	Subscale	Factor	Factor	Factor	Com.
		1	2	3	
Social Environment	Social	.85	.14	-.07	.75
This College	Attachment	.76	.25	.06	.65
General	Social	.63	.12	.41	.59
Other People	Social	.54	.00	.44	.48
General	Attachment	.46	.29	.22	.34
Application	Academic	.08	.80	.02	.64
Performance	Academic	.09	.74	.34	.67
Academic Environment	Academic	.32	.62	.17	.52
Motivation	Academic	.17	.57	.14	.37
Nostalgia	Social	.14	.10	.78	.63
Psychological	Personal/Emotional	.06	.33	.76	.70
Physical	Personal/Emotional	.12	.30	.62	.48

As seen in Table 4, in Turkish sample, first factor was composed of three clusters of Social Adjustment and two clusters of Attachment Subscales, namely, Social Environment, Social-General, Other People and Attachment-General, This College, respectively. In the second factor, there were Application, Performance, Motivation, and Academic Environment clusters, which belonged to Academic Adjustment Subscale. Finally, third factor of Turkish sample included three clusters, two of them were the clusters of Personal/Emotional Adjustment Subscale, namely, Psychological and Physical, and one of them was the cluster of Social Adjustment Subscale, namely, Nostalgia cluster.

U.S. sample cluster composition of the factors, the factor loadings and the communalities of the SACQ were presented in Table 5.

Table 5. The Cluster Composition of the Factors, the Factor Loadings, and the Communalities of the SACQ in U.S. Sample.

Cluster	Subscale	Factor	Factor	Factor	Com.
		1	2	3	
Psychological	Personal/Emotional	.77	.16	-.07	.62
Physical	Personal/Emotional	.75	.20	-.06	.61
Motivation	Academic	.74	.25	-.04	.61
Application	Academic	.73	.20	.06	.57
Performance	Academic	.73	.07	.39	.68
Nostalgia	Social	.66	.20	.27	.55
General	Attachment	.49	.38	.34	.50
Social Environment	Social	.11	.86	-.08	.76
General	Social	.27	.72	.22	.63
Other People	Social	.16	.69	.23	.56
This College	Attachment	.23	.63	-.04	.46
Academic Environment	Academic	.02	.08	.92	.85

In U.S. sample (Table 5), the first factor was composed of three clusters of Academic Adjustment, two clusters of Personal/Emotional Adjustment, and one cluster of Social Adjustment Subscales, namely, Motivation, Application, Performance; Psychological, Physical; and Nostalgia, respectively. The second factor

included five clusters, three of them were the clusters of Social Adjustment Subscale, namely, Social Environment, General-Social, and Other People; and two of them were the clusters of Attachment Subscale, namely, General-Attachment and This College clusters. Lastly, third factor of U.S. sample had only Academic Environment cluster of the Academic Adjustment Subscale.

The results of second-order principle component factor analysis suggested that factor structure of SACQ in Turkish and U.S. samples seemed to be similar to each other. However, two decisions were made in calculating subscale scores, one for the academic environment and the other for nostalgia. Academic Environment was the only cluster that displayed a difference, which was with the other clusters of the Academic Adjustment Subscale in Turkish sample, however, was alone in a third factor in U.S. sample. The questions of Academic environments refer to the variety of programs and courses, students' satisfaction with professors, and their academic situations. Therefore, it can be considered as an important part of the university adjustment. In other words, since academic environment is an inevitable part of academic life, it was decided that it should be included in Academic Adjustment subscale. Another decision was also made regarding the nostalgia cluster. Since this cluster appeared in Personal-Emotional Adjustment Subscale in both samples, it was accepted within this subscale contrary to its original place, i.e., Social Adjustment subscale. Such a decision was also found to be meaningful when the contents of items of Nostalgia were considered. The items of this cluster were about loneliness and homesickness, which seemed to be the results of having some psychological characteristics measured in Psychological and Physical clusters.

3.3.1.3. New Scoring of SACQ

With the new displacement between the clusters and omitted items due to the low item-total correlations, item compositions and score ranges of full scale and all subscales have changed. Full-scale score ranged from 58 to 522. Subscale cluster and item compositions were as follows: (1) Academic Adjustment had Motivation, Application, Performance, and Academic Environment clusters. It consisted of 19 items. Scores ranged from 19 to 171; (2) Social Adjustment included Social-General, Other People, and Social Environment clusters. It composed of 15 items, ranged 15-135; (3) Personal/Emotional Adjustment included Psychological, Physical, and

Nostalgia clusters. New item composition was 17, ranged 17-153; (4) Lastly, Goal Commitment/Institutional Attachment contained Attachment-General and This College clusters. This subscale was composed of 14 items, ranged 14-126.

3.3.1.4. Internal Consistency Reliability of the SACQ

The internal consistency coefficients of clusters and subscales of the SACQ were obtained by calculating the Cronbach alpha coefficients in Turkish and U.S. samples. These coefficients were presented in Table 6 and Table 7.

Table 6. Internal Consistency Coefficients of the Clusters of SACQ in Both Turkish and U.S. Samples

Clusters	Turkey	U.S.	Clusters	Turkey	U.S.
Motivation	.47	.72	Social Environment	.50	.31
Application	.65	.52	Nostalgia	.50	.49
Performance	.64	.57	Psychological	.81	.73
Academic Environment	.64	.62	Physical	.58	.44
Social-General	.75	.25	Attachment-General	.63	.35
Other People	.54	.23	This College	.80	.54

As seen in Table 6, in Turkish sample, the Cronbach alpha coefficients of clusters were changed between .47 and .81. In U.S. sample, these coefficients were changed between .23 and .73 with some low coefficients in some clusters such as social-general (.25), other people (.23), social environment (.31), physical (.44), and attachment-general (.35).

Table 7 presents internal consistency coefficients of the Subscales of SACQ in Turkish and U.S. samples.

Table 7. Internal Consistency Coefficients of the Subscales of SACQ in Both Turkish and U.S. Samples

Subscales	Turkey	U.S.
Academic Adjustment	.80	.79
Social Adjustment	.77	.64
Personal-Emotional Adjustment	.84	.80
Goal Commitment/Institutional Attachment	.77	.67
Full Scale	.90	.89

As can be seen in Table 7, in U.S. sample, the Cronbach alpha coefficients of subscales changed between .64 and .80. In Turkish sample, these coefficients were between .77 and .80. The Cronbach alpha coefficients of full-scale scores of SACQ were .90 for Turkish and .89 for U.S. samples.

3.3.1.5. Inter-correlations among SACQ Subscales

In order to examine inter-correlations among the subscales as well as the correlations between the subscale and the full-scale, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were computed for both samples. The results of inter-correlations are in Table 8.

Table 8. Pearson Correlation Coefficients Among the Full Scale and the Subscales of SACQ in Both Turkish (Lower Triangle) and U.S. (Upper Triangle) Samples

Scales	1	2	3	4	5
1. Academic		.40	.62	.51	.85
2. Social	.40		.42	.79	.71
3. Personal/Emotional	.47	.39		.48	.85
4. Attachment	.50	.81	.51		.77
5. Full Scale	.80	.73	.80	.81	

As seen in Table 8, regarding the correlations among subscales, in the Turkish sample, the lowest correlation was between Social and Personal/Emotional subscales (.39) whereas the highest was between Social and Attachment subscales (.81). In U.S. sample, the lowest correlation was between Social and Academic

subscales (.40) whereas highest was between Social and Attachment subscales (.79). In terms of the correlations between subscales and full-scale scores, in Turkish sample, these correlations changed from .73 to .81; in U.S. sample they were .71 and .85.

3.3.2. Equivalence Studies of Brief COPE

In the equivalence studies of Brief COPE, item-total correlations, factor structures, Cronbach alpha coefficients, and intercorrelations among the subscales of Brief COPE were examined.

3.3.2.1. Item-Total Correlations of the Brief COPE

Since the Brief COPE has no total score, the corrected-item total correlation coefficients of each subscale were calculated for Turkish and U.S. samples separately to examine the correlation coefficients and to find out the correlations lower than the value of .11. The results were presented in Table 9.

Table 9. Item-Total Correlations of Brief COPE Items in Both Turkish and U.S. Samples.

Item	Turkey	U.S.	Item	Turkey	U.S.
1	.29	.46	15	.56	.75
2	.33	.71	16	.48	.73
3	.42	.26	17	.57	.29
4	.84	.67	18	.58	.51
5	.56	.75	19	.29	.46
6	.48	.73	20	.38	.20
7	.33	.71	21	.15	.39
8	.42	.26	22	.70	.49
9	.15	.39	23	.69	.10
10	.69	.10	24	.38	.20
11	.84	.67	25	.35	.26
12	.57	.29	26	.20	.41
13	.20	.41	27	.70	.49
14	.35	.26	28	.58	.51

As shown in Table 9 the item-total correlations of the Brief COPE changed between .15 and .84 in Turkish sample, and .10 and .75 in U.S. sample. It can also be seen from the Table that two items of Using Instrumental Support subscale (item 10 and 23) in English version of the scale, were found to have correlations below the value of .11. Therefore, this subscale was excluded from the further analyses.

3.3.2.2. Factor Analysis of the Brief COPE in Turkish and U.S. Samples

3.3.2.2.1. Item Loadings of Brief COPE in Two Samples

After excluding 2 items of Brief COPE from both samples, the remaining 26 items were analyzed through Principal Component Analysis with Varimax rotation to examine the item loadings in both Turkish and U.S. samples. Employing an eigenvalue of 1.00 as the criterion, the initial analysis of Turkish data, resulted in 8 factors explaining the 60.74% of the variance. The initial analysis of US data resulted in 7 factors accounting for 60.74% of the variance. For the main purpose of this stage of analysis, items were examined in terms of their factor loadings. The factor loadings of the items in Turkish and U.S. samples were presented in Table 10.

Table 10. Item Loadings of the Brief COPE and Their Communalities in Both Turkish and U.S. Samples.

Item No	Turkey		U.S.	
	Loadings	Communalities	Loadings	Communalities
1	.57	.42	.67	.57
2	.41	.38	.79	.65
3	-.60	.55	.83	.71
4	.91	.88	-.55	.67
5	.85	.74	.76	.63
6	.75	.63	-.70	.72
7	-.42	.50	.85	.74
8	-.51	.55	.50	.63
9	.64	.49	.65	.62
11	.91	.89	-.57	.58
12	.68	.60	.45	.48

Table 10. Continued.

Item No	Turkey		U.S.	
	Loadings	Communalities	Loadings	Communalities
13	.69	.53	.57	.59
14	.70	.61	.75	.68
15	.81	.69	.79	.67
16	.73	.56	-.77	.73
17	.65	.50	.56	.55
18	.83	.76	.82	.76
19	.51	.48	.65	.55
20	.71	.63	.48	.48
21	.54	.40	.72	.70
22	.91	.84	.70	.67
24	.54	.54	.67	.60
25	.62	.48	.70	.56
26	.57	.58	.81	.71
27	.88	.83	.88	.79
28	.85	.76	.81	.74

As seen in Table 10, in Turkish sample, the values of factor loadings of the items changed between .91 and .41; in U.S. sample they changed between .88 and .45. It can also be seen from the Table that most of the item loadings in both samples are moderate to high. These item loadings were considered as being at acceptable levels. The comparisons of item loadings between two samples were made by considering their values of factor loadings, communalities and the differences between the loadings of two samples. The results of these comparisons implied the similarities of item loadings between two samples.

3.3.2.2.2. Second-Order Factor Structures of Brief COPE in Two Samples

At this stage of analysis, first, subscale scores were computed. In the computation of subscale scores, item compositions of the original version of Brief COPE were taken as a base. Besides, the items of Using Instrumental subscale were

omitted because of the low item-total correlations obtained in the previous stage of the study. As a result, 13 subscale scores were computed.

These subscale scores were then factor analyzed to examine the factor structures of the two samples. Second-order principle component analysis with Varimax rotation followed by Kaiser Normalization procedure gave three second-order factors both in Turkish and U.S. sample, which explained 47.43% and 58.34% of the total variance, respectively. Eigenvalues of Turkish and U.S. sample were 3.048, 1.852, 1.267 and 3.844, 2.621, 1.113 respectively. The first factor accounted for 23.44% of the total variance while the second, and third, factors accounted for 14.25%, and 9.75%, respectively in Turkish sample. In U.S. sample, the first factor accounted for 29.57%, second and third factors accounted for 20.16% and 8.61% of the total variance respectively.

The subscale composition of the factors, the factor loadings and the communalities of the Brief COPE in Turkish sample were presented in Table 11.

Table 11. The Subscale Composition of the Factors, the Factor Loadings, and the Communalities of the Brief COPE in Turkish Sample.

Subscales	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Communalities
Planning	.76	.12	-.06	.60
Self-Blame	.63	-.05	.43	.58
Religion	.54	-.03	.04	.29
Active Coping	.54	.30	-.32	.48
Acceptance	.49	.20	-.16	.30
Self-Distraction	.17	.70	.11	.53
Humor	-.12	.66	.03	.46
Use of Emotional Support	.08	.57	-.00	.33
Venting	.44	.55	.04	.50
Positive Reframing	.48	.48	-.26	.52
Behavioral Disengagement	.02	-.08	.76	.59
Denial	.05	.17	.69	.51
Substance Use	-.24	.05	.65	.48

In Turkish sample, the first factor was summed up with five subscales of Brief COPE, namely, Planning, Religion, Active Coping, Acceptance, and Positive Reframing. In the second factor of Turkish sample, there were Self-Distraction, Humor, Using Emotional Support, and Venting subscales. Finally, third factor included Self-Blame, Behavioral Disengagement, Denial, and Substance Use.

Table 12. The Subscale Composition of the Factors, the Factor Loadings, and the Communalities of the Brief COPE in U.S. Sample.

Subscales	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Communalities
Active Coping	.85	-.18	-.06	.77
Using Emotional Support	.77	-.27	-.07	.67
Planning	.71	.29	.10	.60
Behavioral Disengagement	-.66	.52	.31	.80
Positive Reframing	.60	.07	.46	.58
Acceptance	.53	.40	.14	.46
Self-Blame	-.06	.78	-.08	.61
Venting	.05	.70	.07	.50
Self-Distraction	-.14	.68	.11	.50
Substance Use	-.50	.55	.28	.63
Humor	.08	.46	.25	.28
Religion	.18	.04	.79	.66
Denial	-.31	.20	.63	.54

In U.S. sample, the first factor was composed of Active Coping, Using Emotional Support, Planning, Positive Reframing, and Acceptance. The second factor included Behavioral Disengagement, Self-Blame, Venting, Self-Distraction, Substance Use, and Humor. Lastly, in the third factor, there were Religion and Denial subscales in U.S. sample.

The results of the second-order principle component factor analysis yielded three factors in both samples. First factor was characterized by more functional coping strategies and the other two were characterized by less functional coping efforts in both Turkish and U.S. samples. It was also found that factor structure of Brief COPE in Turkish and U.S. samples seemed to be similar to each other with the

exception of Using Emotional Support and Religious Coping, which displayed differences. In Turkish sample, Using Emotional Support was in the second factor and among the less functional coping subscales, however, in U.S. sample, it was in the first factor together with more functional coping subscales. Religious Coping also showed a difference, which was in the first factor with more functional coping subscales in Turkish sample, however, it was in the third factor with less functional coping subscales in U.S. sample.

3.3.2.3. Internal Consistency Reliability of the Brief COPE

The internal consistency coefficients of subscales of the Brief COPE were obtained by calculating the Cronbach alpha coefficients in Turkish and U.S. samples. These coefficients were presented in Table 13.

Table 13. Internal Consistency Coefficients of the Subscales of the Brief COPE in Both Turkish and U.S. Samples

Subscales	Turkey	U.S.
Self-Distraction	.45	.63
Active Coping	.50	.83
Denial	.59	.40
Substance Use	.91	.80
Using Emotional Support	.72	.85
Behavioral Disengagement	.64	.85
Venting	.26	.56
Positive Reframing	.73	.45
Planning	.51	.42
Humor	.73	.67
Acceptance	.55	.34
Religion	.82	.66
Self-Blame	.33	.58

As seen in Table 13, in Turkish sample, the Cronbach alpha coefficients of subscales changed between .26 and .91. In U.S. sample, these coefficients changed between .34 and .85. There were low coefficients in some subscales in both samples,

such as Venting (.26) and Self-Blame (.33) in Turkish sample; Acceptance (.34) in U.S. sample. These three subscales were excluded from the study for further analyses due to the low coefficients.

3.3.2.4. Inter-Correlations Among the Brief COPE Subscales

In order to examine inter-correlations among the subscales, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were computed for both samples. The results of inter-correlations are in Table 14.

As shown in Table 14, regarding the correlations among subscales, in the Turkish sample, the lowest correlation was between Substance Use and Self-Distraction subscales (.00) whereas highest was between both Planning and Active Coping (.42). In U.S. sample, the lowest correlation was between Using Emotional Support and Humor subscales (.00) whereas highest was between Active Coping and Using Emotional Support subscales (.70).

Table 14. Pearson Correlation Coefficients Among the Subscales of Brief COPE in Both Turkish (Lower Triangle) and U.S. (Upper Triangle) Samples

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 Self-Distraction		-.26	.25	.36	-.25	.46	.05	.04	.32	.07
2 Active Coping	.23		-.25	-.47	.70	-.65	.42	.52	-.02	.06
3 Denial	.14	-.03		.40	-.28	.42	.03	-.04	.17	.22
4 Substance Use	.00	-.22	.25		-.49	.67	-.12	-.11	.28	.09
5 Using Emotional Support	.26	.15	.03	-.06		-.64	.34	.37	.00	.07
6 Behavioral Disengagement	.07	-.20	.34	.30	.02		-.18	-.24	.20	.16
7 Positive Reframing	.33	.40	-.04	-.18	.17	-.17		.40	.18	.32
8 Planning	.20	.42	.02	-.14	.09	-.08	.36		.10	.19
9 Humor	.26	.09	.06	.10	.13	-.07	.20	.09		
10 Religion	.11	.16	-.01	-.12	.11	.05	.19	.22	-.03	.22

3.4. Procedure

The SACQ, the Brief COPE, and the Demographic Sheet (DS) were administered together to the university students in Turkey and in U.S. The timetable of the administrations of the instruments is presented in Table 15.

Table 15. Timetable of the Administrations of the Instruments

Universities	Years	Semester	N
IUSB	2000-2001	1	68
IUSB	2000-2001	2	110
ND	2000-2001	2	72
ND	2001-2002	1	198
Başkent	2001-2002	1	292
ODTÜ	2002-2003	1	403
Total		6	1143

Two different procedures were used in the administrations of the instruments. In three universities (Middle East Technical University, Başkent University, and Indiana University at South Bend), the instruments were administered to the students as a group in the classroom setting by the researcher. However, in University of Notre Dame students responded to the instruments on the Internet. The U.S subjects who participated in the study received extra two credits from the Introductory Psychology course that they attended.

The administration of the instruments lasted approximately 20 minutes. Subjects' anonymity and confidentiality were guaranteed.

3.5. Analysis of Data

In the present study, the data were analyzed by following the two stages proposed for cross-cultural studies (De Vijver & Leung, 1997). These two stages were proposed as successive stages, i.e., one could not conduct the second stage while ignoring the first. As it is suggested (De Vijver & Leung, 2001), the first stage of data analysis was allocated to the equivalence of instruments between samples for

the purpose of establishing structural equivalence. This stage of data analysis was presented in the “Equivalence Studies of the Instruments in Turkish and U.S. Samples” section of Method Chapter.

In the present study, the second stage of data analysis included a set of multiple hierarchical regression analyses for investigating the main research question.

Regression analysis investigates the relationship between one dependent variable and several independent variables. The result of regression analysis reveals a regression equation, which predicts a dependent variable from several either continuous or dichotomous independent variables. The form of regression equation is the following:

$$Y = A + B_1X_1 + B_2X_2 + B_3X_3$$

Y is the predicted value on the university adjustment; A is the Y intercept (constant of the last model); all Xs are the independent variables; and the Bs are the coefficients assigned to each of the independent variables during regression (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996).

In the present study, cross-cultural regression analyses proposed by the researchers were followed (Poortinga & De Vijver, 1987; De Vijver & Leung, 1997).

First, Turkish and U.S. samples were combined, and selected coping strategies as a result of equivalence study, were separately regressed on four dimensions and overall scores of SACQ in order to determine whether the R^2 is significant and which coping strategies are contributed to the equation.

Second, by considering the significance of R^2 , culture was coded as dummy variable (“1” was assigned to the Turkish sample and “0” was assigned to the U.S. sample) and entered as an independent variable together with coping strategies and interactions (defined as culture by coping strategies) into multiple hierarchical regression for four subscales and overall SACQ scores. Interaction was defined as “Two variables, u and v, are said to interact in their accounting for variance in Y when over and above any additive combination of their separate effects, they have a joint effect” (Cohen & Cohen, 1983, p. 302). It was calculated by converting culture and the coping strategies into standardized value (z score) since both variables were not at the same metric system. Having converted, these two values, culture and one

of the coping strategies, were multiplied by each other to obtain the interaction value. In the hierarchical regression, in the first block, all coping strategies were entered as a set. In the second block, culture was entered as dummy variable. In the third block, interactions of culture and coping strategies, which were significant in the first regression analysis, were also entered as a set.

Third, the R^2 obtained at the first block was compared with that of the R^2 at the third block in the analysis in order to examine the cross-cultural differences on the dependent variable (dimensions of university adjustment).

Finally, in order to examine the cultural differences in the effects of coping strategies following formula was used.

$$Y_1 = A + (B_1 \times \text{Coping Strategy}) + (B_2 \times \text{Culture}) + (B_3 \times \text{Culture} \times \text{Coping Strategy})$$

For Turkish sample

$$Y_1 = A + (B_1 \times \text{Coping Strategy}) + (B_2 \times 1) + (B_3 \times 1 \times \text{Coping Strategy})$$

For U.S. sample

$$Y_2 = A + (B_1 \times \text{Coping Strategy}) + (B_2 \times 0) + (B_3 \times 0 \times \text{Coping Strategy})$$

All the analyses were carried out by using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) programs for Windows 9.0 software.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

This chapter presents the results of the study, which were obtained by analyzing the data through some statistical techniques described in the data analysis section. Firstly, the means and standard deviations of, and the correlations between the independent and dependent variables were displayed. Secondly, the results of hierarchical regression analysis were presented.

4.1. Multiple Hierarchical Regression Analysis

Since first year university students were studied, both the transferred and students who were in their second or more years in the university were excluded from the study. In U.S. sample there were 43 (9.6%) students who transferred from another institution and spent at least 2 years in the university. In Turkish sample there were 70 (10.1%) students who transferred from another institution and spent at least 2 years in the university. The final total sample was composed of 1040. Turkish sample included 629 and U.S. sample had 411 first-year students.

4.1.1. Descriptive Statistics for both Turkish and U.S. Samples

Table 16 displays means and standard deviations of the independent and dependent variables' scores of the first-year university students from both Turkish and U.S. samples.

Table 16. Means and Standard Deviations of the Independent and Dependent Variables of Both Turkish and U.S. Samples

VARIABLES	TURKISH		U.S.		
	M	SD	M	SD	
DEPENDENT	Academic	108.97	22.51	102.18	20.99
	Social	78.82	19.31	77.45	16.26
	Personal/Emotional	101.29	24.37	93.62	21.34
	Attachment	89.27	17.23	86.10	14.72
	Overall	341.52	57.16	321.22	53.15
INDEPENDENT	Self-Distraction	5.81	1.60	5.59	1.68
	Active Coping	5.97	1.43	4.62	1.98
	Denial	3.51	1.56	2.99	1.21
	Substance Use	2.97	1.70	4.08	1.96
	Using Emotional Supp.	5.14	1.81	4.19	2.00
	Behavioral Disenga.	3.35	1.47	4.29	2.16
	Positive Reframing	5.90	1.65	5.46	1.47
	Planning	6.45	1.36	5.42	1.51
	Humor	5.10	1.88	4.80	1.78
	Religion	4.45	2.03	4.62	1.84

As shown in Table 16, average scores of Turkish and American first-year students' academic adjustment were 108.97 and 102.18 with the standard deviations of 22.51 and 20.99, respectively. The mean for the social adjustment score was 98.82 with the standard deviation of 21.86 for Turkish sample; the mean was 94.51 with the standard deviation 19.33 for U.S. sample. The means of Turkish sample's personal/emotional, attachment, and overall adjustment scores were 81.31, 89.27, and 341.52 with standard deviations of 21.03, 17.23, and 57.16, respectively. The means of U.S. sample's personal/emotional, attachment, and overall adjustment scores were 76.56, 86.10, and 321.22 with standard deviations of 17.63, 14.72, and 53.15, respectively. The mean scores of self-distraction, active coping, and denial of Turkish sample were 5.81, 5.97, and 3.51 with the standard deviations of 1.60, 1.43, and 1.56, respectively. For the same scores of U.S. sample the means were 5.59, 4.62, and 2.99 with the standard deviations of 1.68, 1.98, and 1.21, respectively. The

average scores of Turkish sample's substance use, using emotional support, and behavioral disengagement were 2.97, 5.14, and 3.35 with the standard deviations of 1.70, 1.81, and 1.47, respectively. For the same scores of U.S. sample the means were 4.08, 4.19, and 4.29 with the standard deviations of 1.96, 2.00, and 2.16, respectively. The means for the positive reframing scores of both Turkish and U.S. samples were 5.90 and 5.46 with the standard deviations of 1.65 and 1.47, respectively. Finally, the mean scores of planning, humor, and religion of Turkish sample were 6.45, 5.10, and 4.45 with the standard deviations of 1.36, 1.88, and 2.03, respectively. For the same scores of U.S. sample the means were 5.42, 4.80, and 4.62 with the standard deviations of 1.51, 1.78, and 1.84, respectively.

4.1.2. Intercorrelation Matrix of Variables of both Turkish and U.S. Samples

The intercorrelation of independent and dependent variables of Turkish (lower triangle) and U.S. (upper triangle) samples used in this study were presented in Table 17.

As shown in Table 17, regarding the correlations between independent and dependent variables, the highest correlation was between Behavioral Disengagement and Overall Adjustment (-.44) in the Turkish sample and was between Behavioral Disengagement and Personal/Emotional Adjustment (-.62) in U.S. sample. The correlation matrix indicated that all the correlations among predictors were moderate to low.

Table 17. Correlations between Independent and Dependent Variables of Turkish (Lower Triangle) and U.S. (Upper Triangle) Samples

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Dependent Variables															
1 Academic Adjustment		.41**	.64**	.50**	.85**	-.35**	.56**	-.33**	-.50**	.55**	-.58**	.26**	.27**	-.11*	.07
2 Social Adjustment	.41**		.40**	.80**	.71**	-.15**	.38**	-.24**	-.31**	.47**	-.32**	.15**	.15**	.08	.16**
3 Personal/Emotional Adj.	.45**	.61**		.48**	.85**	-.41**	.50**	-.38**	-.55**	.50**	-.62**	.09	.14**	-.14**	.08
4 Attachment	.49**	.81**	.61**		.76**	-.18**	.35**	-.30**	-.34**	.42**	-.31**	.10*	.09	-.02	.16**
5 Overall Adjustment	.79**	.74**	.79**	.81**		-.37**	.60**	-.40**	-.57**	.61**	-.65**	.19**	.22**	-.08	.06
Independent Variables															
6 Self-Distraction	.08	.11**	-.07	.07	.04		-.29**	.28**	.38**	-.28**	.49**	.04	.03	.33**	.09
7 Active Coping	.36**	.19**	.12**	.21**	.29**	.23**		-.27**	-.48**	.71**	-.65**	.41**	.50**	-.01	.06
8 Denial	-.23**	-.17**	-.36**	-.23**	-.33**	.16**	-.01		.40**	-.27**	.41**	.05	-.02	.18**	.21**
9 Substance Use	-.26**	-.10*	-.27**	-.22**	-.28**	.00	-.22**	.24**		-.51**	.68**	-.10*	-.09	.28**	.11*
10 Using Emotional Support	.13**	.21**	.04	.16**	.15**	.28**	.17**	.05	-.04		-.65**	.32**	.36**	-.03	.10*
11 Behavioral Disengagement	-.33**	-.26**	-.41**	-.33**	-.44**	.09*	-.20**	.34**	.29**	.03		-.16**	-.23**	.19**	.17**
12 Positive Reframing	.25**	.14**	.15**	.17**	.23**	.31**	.40**	-.03	-.18**	.19**	-.14**		.36**	.19**	.34**
13 Planning	.20**	.12**	-.00	.14**	.15**	.20**	.42**	.03	-.15**	.13**	-.08*	.35**		.12*	.19**
14 Humor	-.02	.11**	-.01	.06*	.04	.26**	.08*	.07	.10**	.14**	-.06	.21**	.09*		.13**
15 Religion	.01	-.16	-.14**	-.13**	-.13**	.10*	.14**	.02	-.11**	.10**	.08	.18**	.20**	-.03	

** p<.01 * p<.05

4.1.3. The Results of Multiple Hierarchical Regression Analysis

In the analysis of data, five separate multiple hierarchical regression analyses were conducted by following the procedure proposed by De Vijver and Leung (1997), which was previously explained in Method Chapter, Data Analysis section in details.

4.1.3.1. Predictors of Overall Adjustment

First, coping strategies were regressed on overall university adjustment and R^2 .409, was significant, R^2 change = .409, $F(10, 963) = 66.78$, $p < .001$. Table 18 presents the unstandardized regression coefficients (β), the standardized regression coefficients (Beta), R square (R^2), and R^2 change of the multiple regression analysis.

Table 18. Multiple Regression of Certain Coping Strategies on Overall Adjustment of First-Year Students

Variable	R^2	R^2 Change	β	B
<i>Coping Strategies</i>	.409	.409***		
Self-Distracton			-.224	-.006
Active Coping			5.198	.169***
Denial			-7.437	-.188***
Substance Use			-3.860	-.130***
Using Emotional Support			3.828	.133***
Behavioral Disengagement			-7.750	-.257***
Positive Reframing			2.535	.071*
Planning			.157	.004
Humor			.212	.007
Religion			-1.598	-.055*

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

As seen in Table 18, coping strategies including, active coping, denial, substance use, behavioral disengagement, using emotional support, positive reframing, and religion were significantly entered into the equation.

Second, since the R^2 of the multiple regression was significant, multiple hierarchical regression analysis was carried out. The R^2 .441, for this overall regression equation was found to be significant, R^2 change = .031, $F(18, 955) =$

41.80, $p < .001$. Table 19 presents the unstandardized regression coefficients (β), the standardized regression coefficients (Beta), R square (R^2), and R^2 change after each block of the hierarchical regression.

Table 19. Multiple Hierarchical Regression of Certain Coping Strategies on Overall University Adjustment of First-Year Students

Variable	Block	R^2	R^2 Change	β	B
<i>Coping Strategies</i>	1	.409	.409***		
Self-Distraction				-.788	-.023
Active Coping				5.971	.195***
Denial				-7.255	-.183***
Substance Use				-4.310	-.145***
Using Emotional Support				4.889	.170***
Behavioral Disengagement				-8.466	-.280***
Positive Reframing				1.551	.043
Planning				.224	.006
Humor				-.162	-.005
Religion				3.905	.133**
<i>Culture</i>	2	.409	.000	-.649	-.006
<i>Interactions</i>	3	.441	.031***		
Culture*Active Coping				1.923	.035
Culture*Denial				-.413	-.007
Culture*Substance Use				1.592	.028
Culture*Emotional Support				-1.407	-.025
Culture*Behavioral Disengagement				-5.685	-.109**
Culture*Positive Reframing				3.334	.057*
Culture*Religion				-16.820	-.233***

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

According to the hierarchical regression analysis, in block one, certain coping strategies including, active coping, denial, substance use, behavioral disengagement, using emotional support, and religion were significant predictors of first-year university students' overall university adjustment in both samples. In block two, culture's contribution was not significant. Interactions of culture and the certain

coping strategies entered into equation in block three were significant. This result indicated that the resulting R^2 was significantly different from the R^2 obtained in the first equation.

Although, not all interactions significantly predicted the overall university adjustment, contributions of the three interactions, namely, culture and religion, culture and positive reframing, culture and behavioral disengagement were significant. This result indicated that the resulting R^2 was significantly different from the R^2 obtained in the first equation. This result showed that the relationships of overall university adjustment with behavioral disengagement, positive reframing, and religion were not equivalent across two cultural samples. The negative relationship between behavioral disengagement and overall university adjustment were more powerful in Turkish sample than it was in U.S. sample. In addition, the positive relationship between positive reframing and overall university adjustment was more powerful in Turkish sample than it was in U.S. sample. The difference in religious coping indicated that when Turkish students used religious coping, their overall adjustment scores decreased whereas, in American students their scores increased when they used religious coping.

4.1.3.2. Predictors of Academic Adjustment

First, coping strategies were regressed on academic adjustment. R^2 .345, was significant, R^2 change = .345, $F(10, 951) = 50.00$, $p < .001$. Table 20 presents the unstandardized regression coefficients (β), the standardized regression coefficients (Beta), R square (R^2), and R^2 change of the multiple regression analysis.

Table 20. Multiple Regression of Certain Coping Strategies on Academic Adjustment of First-Year Students

Variable	R ²	R ² Change	β	B
<i>Coping Strategies</i>	.345	.345***		
Self-Distraction			-.0063	-.005
Active coping			2.880	.241***
Denial			-1.842	-.119***
Substance use			-1.170	-.101**
Using Emotional Support			.890	.080*
Behavioral Disengagement			-2.331	-.198***
Positive Reframing			1.280	.092**
Planning			.411	.029
Humor			-.712	-.060*
Religion			.129	.011

* p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

As seen in Table 20, certain coping strategies namely, active coping, denial, behavioral disengagement, substance use, positive reframing, using emotional support, and humor were significantly entered into the equation.

Second, since the R² of the multiple regression analysis was significant, multiple hierarchical regression analysis was carried out. The R² .351, for this overall regression equation was not significant, R² change = .007, F (18, 943) = 28.39, p > .05.

Table 21 presents the unstandardized regression coefficients (β), the standardized regression coefficients (Beta), R square (R²), and R² change after each block of the hierarchical regression.

Table 21. Multiple Hierarchical Regression of Certain Coping Strategies on Academic Adjustment of First-Year Students

Variable	Block	R ²	R ² Change	β	B
<i>Coping Strategies</i>	1	.345	.345***		
Self-Distraction				-.302	-.022
Active Coping				3.08	.258***
Denial				-1.73	-.112***
Substance Use				-1.23	-.106**
Using Emotional Support				1.28	.115**
Behavioral Disengagement				-2.56	-.218***
Positive Reframing				1.21	.087**
Planning				.496	.034
Humor				-.726	-.061*
Religion				.004	.003
<i>Culture</i>	2	.345	.000	-.972	-.022
<i>Interactions</i>	3	.351	.007		
Culture*Active Coping				1.806	.085*
Culture*Denial				.009	.004
Culture*Substance Use				.207	.010
Culture*Emotional Support				-.624	-.029
Culture*Behavioral Disengagement				-.993	-.049
Culture*Positive Reframing				-.227	-.010
Culture*Humor				-.391	-.018

* p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

According to the hierarchical regression analysis, in block one, certain coping strategies including, active coping, denial, substance use, behavioral disengagement, using emotional support, positive reframing, and humor were significant predictors of first-year university students' academic adjustment in both samples. In block two, culture's contribution was not significant. In block three, although the resulting R² was not significantly different from the R² obtained in the first equation, only one interaction, which was culture and active coping significantly, entered into the equation. This finding suggested that coping strategies that were found to be significant in the first regression analysis were predictors of academic adjustment in

both Turkish and U.S. samples. In addition, there was a relationship between academic adjustment and active coping that was not equivalent across two samples. The positive relationship between active coping and academic adjustment was more powerful in Turkish sample than it was in U.S. sample.

4.1.3.3. Predictors of Social Adjustment

First, coping strategies were regressed on social adjustment. R^2 .157, was significant R^2 change = .157, $F(10, 965) = 17.93$, $p < .001$. Table 22 presents the unstandardized regression coefficients (β), the standardized regression coefficients (Beta), R square (R^2), and R^2 change of the multiple regression analysis.

Table 22. Multiple Regression of Certain Coping Strategies on Social Adjustment of First-Year Students

Variable	R^2	R^2 Change	β	B
<i>Coping Strategies</i>	.157	.157***		
Self-Distraction			.532	.048
Active Coping			.795	.081
Denial			-1.918	-.151***
Substance Use			-.0793	-.008
Using Emotional Support			1.873	.203***
Behavioral Disengagement			-1.095	-.113**
Positive Reframing			.349	.031
Planning			-.0859	-.007
Humor			.653	.067*
Religion			-.530	-.056

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

As seen in Table 22, certain coping strategies including, active coping, denial, behavioral disengagement, using emotional support, and humor were significantly entered into the equation.

Second, since the R^2 .182, of the multiple regression analysis was significant, multiple hierarchical regression analysis was carried out. The R^2 for this overall regression equation was found to be significant R^2 change = .018, $F(15, 960) = 14.28$, $p < .001$.

Table 23 presents the unstandardized regression coefficients (β), the standardized regression coefficients (Beta), R square (R^2) and R^2 change after each block of the hierarchical regression.

Table 23. Multiple Hierarchical Regression of Certain Coping Strategies on Social Adjustment of First-Year Students

Variable	Block	R^2	R^2 Change	β	B
<i>Coping Strategies</i>	1	.157	.157***		
Self-Distraction				.386	.035
Active Coping				1.116	.113*
Denial				-1.465	-.115**
Substance Use				-.396	-.041
Using Emotional Support				2.431	.264***
Behavioral Disengagement				-1.389	-.143**
Positive Reframing				.158	.014
Planning				.116	.010
Humor				.558	.057
Religion				-.737	-.078*
<i>Culture</i>	2	.165	.008**	-4.279	-.117
<i>Interactions</i>	3	.182	.018***		
Culture*Denial				.311	.016
Culture*Emotional Support				-1.025	-.057
Culture*Behavioral Disengagement				-2.974	-.177***
Culture*Humor				-.249	-.014

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

According to the hierarchical regression analysis, in block one, certain coping strategies namely, active coping, denial, behavioral disengagement, using emotional support, and religion were significant predictors of university students' social adjustment in both samples. In block two, culture's contribution was significant: R^2 change = .008, $F(11, 964) = 17.26$, $p < .01$. Interactions of culture and the certain coping strategies entered into equation in block three were significant. This result indicated that the resulting R^2 was significantly different from the R^2 obtained in the first equation.

Although not all interactions significantly predicted the social adjustment, interaction of culture and behavioral disengagement significantly contributed into the equation. This result yielded that the resulting R^2 was significantly different from the R^2 obtained in the first equation. This finding indicated that the relationship between social adjustment and behavioral disengagement was not equivalent across two samples. The negative relationship between behavioral disengagement and social adjustment was more powerful in Turkish sample than it was in U.S. sample.

4.1.3.4. Predictors of Personal/Emotional Adjustment

First, coping strategies were regressed on personal/emotional adjustment and R^2 .335, was significant, R^2 change = .335, $F(10, 966) = 48.73$, $p < .001$. Table 24 presents the unstandardized regression coefficients (β), the standardized regression coefficients (Beta), R square (R^2), and R^2 change of the multiple regression analysis.

Table 24. Multiple Regression of Certain Coping Strategies on Personal/Emotional Adjustment of First-Year Students

Variable	R^2	R^2 Change	B	B
<i>Coping Strategies</i>	.335	.335***		
Self-Distracton			-.772	-.053
Active Coping			.726	.057
Denial			-2.990	-.181***
Substance Use			-1.769	-.142***
Using Emotional Support			.785	.065*
Behavioral Disengagement			-3.810	-.302***
Positive Reframing			1.034	.070*
Planning			-.577	-.037
Humor			.0903	.007
Religion			-1.102	-.090**

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

As seen in Table 24, certain coping strategies including, self-distracton, denial, substance use, behavioral disengagement, using emotional support, positive reframing, and religion were significantly entered into the equation.

Second, since the R^2 of the multiple regression analysis was significant, multiple hierarchical regression analysis was carried out. The R^2 .351, for this overall regression equation was found to be significant, R^2 change = .015, $F(17, 959) = 30.54$, $p < .01$.

Table 25 presents the unstandardized regression coefficients (β), the standardized regression coefficients (Beta), R square (R^2) and R^2 change after each block of the hierarchical regression.

Table 25. Multiple Hierarchical Regression of Certain Coping Strategies on Personal/Emotional Adjustment of First-Year Students

Variable	Block	R^2	R^2 Change	β	B
<i>Coping Strategies</i>	1	.335	.335***		
Self-Distraction				-.973	-.067*
Active Coping				.866	.068
Denial				-2.929	-.177***
Substance Use				-1.771	-.143***
Using Emotional Support				1.056	.088**
Behavioral Disengagement				-3.914	-.310***
Positive Reframing				.752	.051
Planning				-.716	-.046
Humor				-.0460	-.004
Religion				.314	.026
<i>Culture</i>	2	.337	.001	1.605	.034
<i>Interactions</i>	3	.351	.015**		
Culture*Denial				-1.034	-.041
Culture*Substance Use				.164	.007
Culture*Emotional Support				-.422	-.018
Culture*Behavioral Disengagement				-1.317	-.060
Culture*Positive Reframing				1.544	.064*
Culture*Religion				-4.224	-.140**

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

According to the hierarchical regression analysis, in block one, certain coping strategies including, self-distraction, denial, substance use, behavioral disengagement, and using emotional support were significant predictors of first-year university students' personal/emotional adjustment in both samples. In block two, culture's contribution was not significant. Interactions of culture and the certain coping strategies entered into equation in block three were significant. This result indicated that the resulting R^2 was significantly different from the R^2 obtained in the first equation.

Although, not all interactions significantly predicted the personal/emotional adjustment, contributions of the two interactions, namely, culture and positive reframing, culture and religion were significant. This result indicated that the resulting R^2 was significantly different from the R^2 obtained in the first equation. This result showed that the relationships of personal/emotional adjustment with positive reframing and religion were not equivalent across two cultural samples. The positive relationship between positive reframing and personal/emotional adjustment was more powerful in Turkish sample than it was in U.S. sample. That is, Turkish students who used positive reframing had higher personal/emotional adjustment scores than did American students. On the other hand, the difference in religious coping indicated that when Turkish students used religious coping, their personal/emotional adjustment scores decreased whereas, in American students their scores increased when they used religious coping.

4.1.3.5. Predictors of Goal Commitment/Institutional Attachment

First, coping strategies were regressed on attachment subscale and R^2 .181, was significant, R^2 change = .181, $F(10, 965) = 21.37$, $p < .001$. Table 26 presents the unstandardized regression coefficients (β), the standardized regression coefficients (Beta), R square (R^2), and R^2 change of the multiple regression analysis.

Table 26. Multiple Regression of Certain Coping Strategies on Goal Commitment/
Institutional Attachment of First-Year Students

Variable	R ²	R ² Change	B	B
<i>Coping Strategies</i>	.181	.181 ^{***}		
Self-Distraction			.405	.040
Active Coping			.745	.084
Denial			-1.953	-.170 ^{***}
Substance Use			-.987	-.114 ^{**}
Using Emotional Support			1.182	.142 ^{***}
Behavioral Disengagement			-.996	-.114 ^{**}
Positive Reframing			.355	.034
Planning			.0387	.004
Humor			.279	.031
Religion			-.244	-.029

* p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

As seen in Table 26, certain coping strategies including, denial, substance use, behavioral disengagement, and using emotional support were significantly entered to the equation.

Second, since the R² of the multiple regression analysis was significant, multiple hierarchical regression analysis was carried out. The R² .208, for this overall regression equation was found to be significant, R² change = .027, F (15, 960) = 16.81, p < .001. Table 27 presents the unstandardized regression coefficients (β), the standardized regression coefficients (Beta), R square (R²), and R² change after each block of the hierarchical regression.

Table 27. Multiple Hierarchical Regression of Certain Coping Strategies on Goal Commitment/Institutional Attachment of First-Year Students

Variable	Block	R ²	R ² Change	B	B
<i>Coping Strategies</i>	1	.181	.181***		
Self-Distraction				.135	.013
Active Coping				.983	.110*
Denial				-1.760	-.154***
Substance Use				-1.147	-.133***
Using Emotional Support				1.722	.207***
Behavioral Disengagement				-1.246	-.142**
Positive Reframing				.205	.020
Planning				.0651	.006
Humor				.141	.016
Religion				-.348	-.041
<i>Culture</i>	2	.181	.000	-1.026	-.031
<i>Interactions</i>	3	.208	.027***		
Culture*Denial				.497	.028
Culture*Substance Use				.208	.013
Culture*Emotional Support				-.795	-.049
Culture*Behavioral Disengagement				-3.432	-.226***

* p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

According to the hierarchical regression analysis, in block one, certain coping strategies including, active coping, denial, substance use, behavioral disengagement, and using emotional support were significant predictors of first-year university students' goal commitment/institutional attachment in both samples. In block two, culture's contribution was not significant. Interactions of culture and the certain coping strategies entered in block three were also significant. This result indicated that the resulting R² was significantly different from the R² obtained in the first equation.

Although not all interactions significantly predicted the goal commitment/institutional attachment, the interaction of culture and behavioral disengagement was significant. This result indicated that the resulting R² was significantly different from the R² obtained in the first equation. This result showed

that the relationship between goal commitment/institutional attachment and behavioral disengagement was not equivalent across two cultural samples. The negative relationship between behavioral disengagement and goal commitment/institutional attachment was more powerful in Turkish sample than it was in U.S. sample.

Table 28 and 29 summarize the present study's findings. In sum, coping strategies (religion, positive reframing and behavioral disengagement) that predicted the overall university adjustment of students were not different across two cultural samples. Regarding the academic adjustment, its relationship with active coping was not equivalent across samples. Interaction of culture and behavioral disengagement's contribution were significant in social adjustment of students. With regard to personal/emotional adjustment, its relation with religion and with positive reframing was not equivalent across two cultural samples. Interaction of culture and behavioral disengagement showed that the relationship between goal commitment/institutional attachment and behavioral disengagement was not equivalent across two cultural samples.

Table 28. Findings Regarding the Predictors of University Adjustment in Both Turkish and U.S. Samples

Coping	University Adjustment				
	Overall	Academic	Social	Personal/ Emotional	Goal Commitment/ Inst.Attach.
Denial	(-) ^{***}	(-) ^{***}	(-) ^{**}	(-) ^{***}	(-) ^{***}
Substance Use	(-) ^{***}	(-) ^{**}	NS	(-) ^{***}	(-) ^{***}
Behavioral Disengagem.	(-) ^{***}	(-) ^{***}	(-) ^{**}	(-) ^{***}	(-) ^{**}
Active Coping	(+) ^{***}	(+) ^{***}	(+) [*]	NS	(+) [*]
Emotional Support	(+) ^{***}	(+) ^{**}	(+) ^{***}	(+) ^{**}	(+) ^{***}
Religion	(-) ^{**}	NS	(-) [*]	NS	NS
Positive Reframing	NS	(+) ^{**}	NS	NS	NS
Humor	NS	(-) [*]	NS	NS	NS
Self-Distracton	NS	NS	NS	(-) [*]	NS

Note. Signs in the parentheses indicate the direction of the relationship.

NS: Not significant

* p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

Table 29. Findings Regarding Cultural Differences in Both Turkish and U.S. Samples

Coping Strategies	University Adjustment				
	Overall	Academic	Social	Personal/ Emotional	Goal Commitment/ Inst.Attach.
Religion	(-) ^{***}	NS	NS	(-) ^{**}	NS
Behavioral Disengagem.	(-) ^{**}	NS	(-) ^{***}	NS	(-) ^{***}
Positive Reframing	(+) [*]	NS	NS	(+) [*]	NS
Active Coping	NS	(+) [*]	NS	NS	NS

Note. Signs in the parentheses indicate the direction of the relationship.

NS: Not Significant

* p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter is devoted to the discussion of the results that were reported in the previous chapter, their implications and recommendations for the future studies.

5.1. Discussion of the Findings

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of coping strategies on different dimensions of university adjustment of Turkish and American first-year university students. The predictors of university adjustment were self-distraction, active coping, denial, substance use, using emotional support, behavioral disengagement, positive reframing, planning, humor, and religion. The dependent variables were overall university adjustment and its dimensions, namely academic, social, personal/emotional adjustment, and goal commitment/institutional attachment.

Five separate hierarchical regression analyses were carried out for the dimensions of university adjustment (academic, social, personal/emotional, and attachment) and overall adjustment. With the exception of planning, all the predictors were, one way or another, found to be significant in predicting the different dimensions of university adjustment.

In the following sections the discussions were presented under two headings; the predictors of university adjustment for the total sample and the cultural differences in the predictors of university adjustment.

5.1.1. Discussion Regarding the Predictors of University Adjustment for the Total Sample

In the following sections, results are presented for the overall and each dimension of university adjustment both for Turkish and American sample.

5.1.1.1. Predictors of Overall Adjustment

Overall adjustment to university involves academic, social, personal/emotional and goal commitment/institutional attachment dimensions. The hierarchical regression analysis revealed that while active coping and using emotional support positively predicted the overall adjustment, denial, behavioral disengagement, substance use, and religion negatively predicted first-year students' overall adjustment in both Turkish and American cultures. These results suggest that more than half of the coping strategies either positively or negatively relate to overall adjustment to university.

Using a wide range of coping strategies seems to indicate that the university environment has excessive academic, emotional, and social demands leading students to use a greater number of coping strategies regardless of whether they are functional or not to overcome the stressful period. In other words, the university environment for the first year students is so demanding that they use several coping strategies in order to make their lives less stressful. This idea is supported with the findings of Parkes (1986) that in environments characterized by high work demand or low support, or both, a greater number of coping strategies are endorsed.

The findings of the present study regarding positive relationships of active coping and emotional support with overall university adjustment can only be discussed based on the limited number of studies indicating that social support and active coping are significant predictors of university adjustment (Zea, Jarama, & Bianchi, 1995). Although more comprehensive than emotional support, social support is an effective coping strategy and, together with active coping, both are found to be functional in university adjustment. The findings of the present study seem to support the theoretically proposed direction of effective coping strategies and adjustment.

The findings of the present study concerning the negative relationships between denial, substance use, behavioral disengagement, religion, and overall

university adjustment seem to be in line with the theoretical propositions of Carver, Scheier, and Weintraub (1989) and Lazarus and Folkman (1984) as well as with research showing that the use of avoidance strategies are particularly evident in the transition period (Griffith, Dubow, & Ippolito, 2000).

All these findings seem to support the view that university adjustment, particularly for the first year students, is so complex and demanding that it leads students to use a variety of coping strategies.

5.1.1.2. Predictors of Academic Adjustment

Academic adjustment covers a variety of academic demands of the university, such as, academic goals, academic work, meeting academic requirements successfully, effectiveness of academic functioning, and new academic environments.

The hierarchical regression analysis revealed that while active coping, positive reframing, and using emotional support positively predicted the first-year students' academic adjustment, denial, behavioral disengagement, substance use, and humor negatively predicted it in both Turkish and American cultures.

Overall, findings of the present study demonstrated that when students were faced with academic demands of university they used most of the coping strategies. These findings seem to be supported by Folkman and Lazarus (1985) stating that the complexity of the ways people cope is especially evident in the wide range of coping strategies they used. When the coping strategies that the students used were considered in terms of effectiveness of responses (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989; Zeidner & Saklofske, 1996), the strategies found to be positively related (active coping, using emotional support, and positive reframing) can be considered as functional or adaptive whereas those (denial, behavioral disengagement, substance use, and humor) negatively related can be regarded as less functional or maladaptive. These findings seem to suggest that students perceive academic demands as challenging as well as threatening, leading them to use almost all types of coping strategies to deal with academic adjustment.

The use of a wide range of coping strategies can also be explained in terms of controllability. As Griffith, Dubow, and Ippolito (2000) found that when school stressors were perceived as controllable adolescents used approach (functional)

strategies more often than avoidance (less functional) strategies, however, no differences were found between the strategies when the stressors were perceived as uncontrollable. These findings lend support to the findings of the present study that the students who participated in the study might have perceived academic demands as less controllable.

Although few, there are some studies investigating the relationships between academic adjustment and some individual coping strategies. For example, Tao, Dong, Pratt, Hunsberger, and Pancer (2000) found that social support, which also covers emotional support was significantly less closely related to academic adjustment. Leong, Bonz, and Zachar (1997), on the other hand, found that active coping positively predicted academic adjustment. Based on these findings and for the other coping strategies identified in the present study, it can be speculated that, academic adjustment is one of the areas where first year students experience adjustment difficulties as manifested by the evidence of the usage of various effective and less effective strategies.

5.1.1.3. Predictors of Social Adjustment

The dimension of social adjustment includes participating in social activities, interacting with other persons like roommates, classmates, faculty members and so on campus. These aspects are particularly important for the first-year university students who meet with interpersonal and social demands of university life. In order to carry out these social demands of the university, students apply different ways to cope with the situation.

The hierarchical regression analysis revealed that while active coping and using emotional support positively predicted the social adjustment; denial, behavioral disengagement, and religion negatively predicted first-year students' social adjustment in both Turkish and American cultures.

There are several studies in the literature examining the relationships of different coping strategies with the social dimension of university adjustment. For example, regarding seeking emotional support, which was found to be the most powerful predictor of social adjustment in the present study, some research findings indicated a positive relationship between social support in general and social adjustment defined as social integration (Pascarella & Terenzini, 1981; Terenzini et

al., 1994). In a more recent study, Tao, Dong, Pratt, Hunsberger, and Pancer (2000) found that social support from family, peers, and faculty play an important role in the social adjustment of university students.

The overuse of emotional support in social adjustment might be due to the difficulty of identifying the social demands of university life. In other words, since university education is quite different from high school education in many ways, social expectations from the students in university are quite diverse as compared to high school. Students are expected to participate in many student organizations, to built relationships with faculty members, to get on well with their roommates, and to establish satisfying relationships with the opposite and same sex. The complexity of these expectations might create confusion on the part of the students and lead them to use emotional support; this is an argument that was also supported by Folkman and Lazarus (1985) based on their finding that subjects used emotional support more frequently when there was nothing more that could be done about the task at hand.

Active coping was another positive but weak predictor of social adjustment. Although the lack of evidence regarding the relationship between active coping and social adjustment made it difficult to interpret this finding, it can be speculated that students when they encountered social demands seemed to take an active part in dealing with that social problem at hand. However, this finding needs further investigation due to the small level of significance.

Denial and behavioral disengagement negatively and moderately, religion negatively but poorly predicted first-year students' social adjustment in both Turkish and American cultures. In one study, Griffit, Dubow, and Ippolito (2000) found that interpersonal stressors were perceived less controllable and students used more avoidance coping strategies. Carver et al. (1993) supported the finding that denial was consistently related to higher levels of concurrent distress.

Although there are studies about a positive effect of religious coping on physical and psychological problems (e.g., Carver et al., 1993), religious coping negatively predicted social adjustment. It is meaningful to find such a negative relationship because becoming involved with the social environment of the university, students should participate in various activities such as, parties, organizations, or some peer groups in which there might be some behaviors that

cannot be approved of by religion. Therefore religious coping might impede social adjustment of the students.

5.1.1.4. Predictors of Personal/Emotional Adjustment

Personal/emotional adjustment involves some physical and psychological states, such as, lack of sleep, lack of appetite, gaining/loosing weight, feeling loneliness, anxiety, some depressive symptoms, experienced by first-year students due to the high level of stress.

The strong but negative predictors of personal/emotional adjustment were denial, substance use, and behavioral disengagement. Self-distraction coping was also negative but a weak predictor. Using emotional support was found to be a positive predictor of personal/emotional adjustment.

These results are supported by most of the studies in the literature. Studies generally revealed that physical and psychological symptoms or problems tended to promote higher levels of denial, disengagement, and self-distraction (Carver et al., 1993) and a high level of disengagement (Arthur, 1998) or avoidance as a strategy in order to escape from the problems (Jung, 1993). Previous research has also suggested that people who experienced higher levels of stress, anxiety, or depression used more maladaptive coping (Aldwin & Revenson, 1987; Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). However, it was also proposed that denial, substance use, behavioral disengagement, and self-distraction coping might be used for regulating emotions (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). In other words, these strategies, especially during the primary appraisal stage are effective for reducing stress whereas they are ineffective in the secondary appraisal stage.

Using emotional support was the only positive predictor of personal/emotional adjustment. It should be noted that using emotional support as a coping strategy included items of getting moral support, sympathy, and understanding and it is conceptualized as emotion-focused coping (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989). Loneliness, homesickness, being away from family and friends might lead first-year university students to seek someone to share the feelings in order to relieve the burden of being alone and to protect themselves from the problems of personal/emotional adjustment.

5.1.1.5. Predictors of Goal Commitment/Institutional Attachment

When a student comes to a university, the degree of attachment to the particular university and having an educational goal are very important for him/herself to persist there. In other words, goal commitment/institutional attachment includes the degree of attachment to the particular university and the quality of the relationship between the student and the institution. The results of the present study revealed that denial and substance use predicted attachment of the students strongly and negatively, behavioral disengagement predicted moderately and negatively. Using emotional support was a strong and positive predictor; active coping was also a positive but weak predictor of university attachment.

Before discussing the predictors of the goal commitment/institutional attachment dimension of university adjustment, the characteristic of this dimension needs to be examined since it seems to be more complex than other dimensions. It is known that the environment an individual lives in affects his/her sense of control. It may then be speculated that, unlike the environmental and relational conditions in high school where students feel confident in controlling the elements (i.e., small building(s) and having regulated and established relationships with peers, teachers, and administrators, attending to regular classes, and so on), university students, particularly first year ones face with more complex and less controllable conditions such as living on campus and in dormitories leading them to a more dynamic interaction with faculty, classmates and roommates. Thus, they are expected to be a member of this complex society, which may provide either threat or challenge, giving them a chance of using both functional and less functional coping strategies simultaneously.

5.1.2. Discussion Regarding the Cultural Differences in the Predictors of University Adjustment

In the following sections, results are presented for the coping strategies found as the significant predictors of overall adjustment and each dimension of university adjustment across cultures.

5.1.2.1. Cultural Differences in Behavioral Disengagement Coping

Considerable cultural differences were found in behavioral disengagement in overall university adjustment and its dimension of social, personal/emotional, goal commitment/institutional attachment. These findings indicated that the effects of behavioral disengagement on these dimensions were culturally relative. Accordingly, students who used behavioral disengagement in Turkish culture were more negatively affected than were those in American culture. That is, Turkish students who used behavioral disengagement tended to have more difficulties in these dimensions of university adjustment than did their American counterparts.

There is a lack of research evidence regarding the cultural differences for this particular coping strategy. Therefore, some speculations can be made largely based on the experiences of the researcher in counseling practices with first year university students.

One of the explanations regarding the cultural differences of the effect of using behavioral disengagement on the dimensions of university adjustment can be made based on the collectivistic-individualistic dichotomy. The use of behavioral disengagement by Turkish students can be explained by the collectivist nature of Turkish culture. Considering that child-rearing practices constitute one of the determinants of cultural differences, the major difference between Turkish and American families may lie in over-protective and self-sufficient child rearing practices respectively in each culture.

An over-protected child learns to rely on a specific domain of control, which later becomes inappropriate in a new environment. A self-sufficient child, by contrast, has skills readily adaptable to coping with an environment no longer dominated by parents (Fisher, 1990; Fisher & Hood, 1988). Accordingly, the families in Turkish culture tend to cope with the problems that their children face rather than let the children deal with them themselves; therefore, the children are deprived of the coping practices. As a consequence, these children might prefer to quit trying to find a solution rather than cope with the problems because they are accustomed to having their parents partly or completely solve their problems. Such child rearing practices in Turkish culture would cause more problems in adjustment to university for the first-year students. In contrast, children in American culture learn to use different coping strategies appropriate to the situation leading them to appraise conditions and

employ coping strategies as a way of either solving the problem or regulating emotions. The findings of this study could be interpreted in the light of the assertions made above about the different ways of approaching problems. Whereas behavioral disengagement of Turkish students could be seen as resignation or quitting trying to find a solution, it might function as emotional regulation for American students and therefore, would be a means of more functional coping, and thus, results in less effect on their adjustment.

Another explanation might be related to the separation and individuation process, which is closely related to child rearing practices, and seems to have affects on social, emotional and institutional attachment aspects of university adjustment. It is the observation of the researcher that separating from family appears to be one of the hardest task that the first-year Turkish students have ever met.

Separation and individuation is a developmental task that is supposed to have significant adaptational consequences for young adults. The process involves gradually increasing independence from parents (Rice, 1992). It also engages attained independence and autonomy in rearranged family relationships. First-year students have to manage separation, detachment on the one hand, and connectedness, on the other. In Turkish culture, the separation and individuation process may be delayed and more difficult compared to that in American culture. As suggested by the researchers (Rice, Cole, & Lapsley, 1990), students who had positive feelings (not angry or anxious about separating) while separating from parents reported healthy adjustment to university. Based on this finding, it can argued that this separation-individuation process in Turkish students may not be as healthy as in American students.

5.1.2.2. Cultural Differences in Religious Coping

Cross-cultural differences in religious coping suggested that the effects of religious coping on personal/emotional and overall adjustment were culturally relative. Accordingly, students who used religious coping in Turkish culture were negatively affected whereas American students were positively affected. That is, religious coping impeded the overall and personal/emotional adjustment of Turkish students whereas American students' overall and personal/emotional adjustment was facilitated.

Although not cross cultural, there are studies demonstrating that religious coping was used to cope with physical and psychological problems (e.g., Carver et al., 1993; Ellison, Boardman, Williams, & Jackson, 2001). On the other hand, in one study, no relationship was found between religious faith and coping with daily stress (e.g., Plante, Saucedo, & Rice, 2001). However, studies generally indicate that religious coping creates effective outcomes when the situation is seen as out of one's control. In such situations, the person turns to religion, hoping for Godly intervention. Pargament, Kennel, Hathaway, Gravengood, Newman, and Jones (1988) proposed three religious coping styles, namely, the self-directing, the collaborative, and the deferring. In the deferring style the person does not take any steps in solving the problem and relies on God to do it. This type of religious coping may project Turkish culture's religious attitude.

On the other hand, personal and emotional adjustment to university requires the students do something actively. Waiting for help from God does not help the students to adjust to university or to develop personal/emotional adjustment. Therefore, students in Turkish culture might be affected by religious coping negatively.

Religious coping might also be related to primary and secondary appraisals. According to Park, Cohen, and Herb (1990) religious beliefs influence primary appraisal in life stress adjustment. Taylor (1983) also found that a traumatic event can be viewed quite differently depending on an individual's religious view and be interpreted as a challenge, a threat, or something from God designed to strengthen their faith. Accordingly, Turkish students may interpret the events as threats since, in the Islamic religion, Allah ordains the fate as an impersonal power that is part of a cosmic belief system (Pepitone, 1994). In Christianity, on the other hand, although the belief in God is the same, the way that the Christians experience religion is quite different. In America, churches are the local organizations that operate programs providing health, medical care, food, and educational services (McCarthy & Castelli, 1998, as cited in Youniss, McLellan, & Yates, 1999). Youniss, McLellan, and Yates (1999) indicated that youth were heavily involved in volunteer service. It can be asserted that since many American students are involved with voluntary services in churches for the homeless and poor people during high school period, they become aware of the fact that it is possible to cope with such problems both by taking active

roles for solutions and by receiving socioemotional support such as companionship, comfort, and spiritual support. Rather than considering the religion as a praying activity that only takes place in their spiritual world, American students experience the religion in trying to find solutions to the problems in the physical world. The representatives of American culture in the present study were predominantly catholic and attended religious activities regularly. Therefore, American students, as compared to Turkish students, might perceive religious coping as a functional strategy, leading them to experience better personal/emotional and overall university adjustment.

5.1.2.3. Cultural Differences in Positive Reframing Coping

Cross-cultural differences in positive reframing suggested that the effects of positive reframing on personal/emotional adjustment were culturally relative. Accordingly, positive reframing was more effective in Turkish culture than in American cultures. Turkish students who used positive reframing tended to experience personal/emotional and overall university adjustment slightly more than their American counterparts.

The cultural difference obtained in the present study is too slight to make further speculation, however, one point could be mentioned in Turkish culture, when people experience personal/emotional problems they have a tendency to say more than American way of “think pink” but something which is connoted to religious beliefs such as “Derdi veren dermanını verir,” “Herşeyde bir hayır vardır.”

5.1.2.4. Cultural Differences in Active Coping

A slight difference between Turkish and American cultures was found in interaction of culture and active coping. This finding suggested that the effects of active coping on academic adjustment were culturally relative. Accordingly, active coping was more effective in Turkish culture than in American culture. Turkish students who used active coping tended to adjust to university academically slightly more than their American counterparts.

A very short explanation of this finding might be related to the differences between the two cultures concerning academic expectations of families and the society at large. Since university education is one of the most competitive and

prestigious areas in the life of Turkish people, Turkish students are expected to be in need of using active coping since they may have no any other chance than being academically well adjusted. Further, in case of failure, American students may have a second chance of entering another program while Turkish ones do not seem to have such an opportunity.

5.1.3. General Conclusion

This study showed that first-year university students were more likely to use less functional coping strategies. However, these findings may be due to the developmental characteristics of this age group. Griffith, Dubow, and Ippolito (2000) found that the use of functional coping strategies increased across grade levels. Perhaps as the students gain more experience, they develop a capacity to think of different situations considering different viewpoints. At the same time, they are more likely to solve problems by taking active steps. During the first year of the university, students probably meet with many developmental tasks at the same time, and therefore, they cannot cope effectively with every situation and use less functional coping strategies.

As for the cultural differences found in the present study, the lack of research for each coping strategy limited the discussion of the findings. Yet, it can be argued that all the differences yielded in this study made contributions to the general tendency of the differentiation of Eastern and Western cultures.

5.2. Implications

In the light of the results of the present study several counseling implications can be mentioned both for prevention and intervention aimed at acknowledging university adjustment and facilitating productive coping strategies.

Several preventive strategies can be developed for both high school students and first-year university students.

First, some prevention programs can be realized to prepare the high school students for the tasks they would meet during their university life. For example, in order to develop more realistic self-appraisals of individual stress and coping responses, students could be helped to make contact and have discussions with

university students and personnel during the high school period (Nicholson, 1990). During high school, different useful types of coping responses could also be taught to the students to reduce the transition distress. For example, a brochure on general guidelines about coping with transitions could be distributed to prospective students and their parents before starting university.

Second, social support from family facilitated the students' adjustment to university (Lafreniere, Ledgerwood, & Docherty, 1997). Therefore, parental education programs can be developed to teach parents about the developmental aspects of university students (e.g. their thoughts, feelings, needs, values, and so on) so that they can support their children during their university education.

Third, during the enrollment of university period, a booklet about different aspects of university life (i.e., first weeks at university, coping with homesickness, loneliness, dealing with cultural differences, relationships with peers, roommates, family, faculty members) can be distributed to the first-year students. Another kind of booklet, which explains the physical environment of the university and the city/state where the university is in, can be prepared in order to orient the first-year students to the physical environment.

Fourth, first year university students can be guided about making friendships, dealing with roommates, taking responsibilities, learning study skills, and so on by structured programs.

Finally, an ongoing orientation program can be developed during the first-year of university, which should be compulsory for all the newcomers to alert them to mental health issues faced by many students, to develop their problem-solving strategies, to increase their awareness of available campus resources, to develop an understanding of university policies and procedures, and so on (Blimline & New, 1975; Gordon & Grites, 1984).

Several intervention strategies also were proposed in the literature in order to develop both students adjustment to university and effective coping strategies, for example, grief (loss) education to improve the acceptance of loss (i.e., precollege friendship, neighborhood that came from, home) (Paul, Brier, Er, Phan, Vereen, & Garrett, 2001); writing interventions to assimilate new experiences cognitively (Pennebaker, Colder, & Sharp, 1990); coping skills programs to overcome the problems adolescents meet (Compas, 1995; Frydenberg, 1999) and to develop a wide

range of effective coping responses that might be substituted in effective ones (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1992); and social coping skills programs (Argyle, 1999).

5.3. Recommendations

On the basis of the findings of the present study, the followings can be recommended for future studies.

1. A replication of the present study with a more representative sample of both Turkish and American cultures is needed. In the selection of samples, different ethnic groups, socioeconomic backgrounds, and religious beliefs might also be considered.
2. A comparison regarding university adjustment can be made between males and females, students who stay on campus and off campus, students who are satisfied and unsatisfied with the university, and different universities.
3. More research should be carried out about understanding why some individuals are more likely to use functional coping strategies while others use less functional or maladaptive strategies.
4. A longitudinal research is needed to assess the process of coping strategies. Because there are some studies showing that the choice of coping strategies changed over time (Carver & Scheier, 1994; Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). In order to understand the coping process during the transition to university, students should be assessed several times.
5. A cross-sectional research is also needed to compare the coping strategies and adjustment levels of the students across grades. Because types of coping strategies used and level of adjustment to university may change according to grade levels.
6. Since student-faculty interaction contributes significantly to academic and social adjustment (e.g., Pascarella & Terenzini, 1978; 1981), an advisory system should be well developed. Some programs can be prepared to increase faculty participation in first-year orientation and student residence life. These kinds of attempts may provide clear cues for the first-year students that such informal contact with faculty is a natural and accepted norm in university.

7. The role of attachment styles can be included in studying university adjustment and coping strategy relationship.
8. The role of homesickness can also be included in the study of investigating university adjustment and coping strategy relationship.
9. Types of religious coping can be studied for the future. Because religious coping is multidimensional (Pargament, Kennel, Hathaway, Gravengoed, Newman, & Jones, 1988) it is very difficult to make conclusions about whether religious coping is effective or not.
10. Acculturation, university adjustment, and coping strategies should be studied in a sample of international students. International students' adjustment to university and how they cope with this stressful transition is another important research field in Turkey. Especially in Turkish universities, the number of international students increases gradually every year. As a result of these kinds of studies counseling centers at universities could provide some programs for international students to help them adjust well.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

DEMOGRAPHIC SHEET (KİŞİSEL BİLGİLER)

1. Cinsiyetiniz: () K () E
2. Yaşınız:
3. Şu an yaşadığınız yer:
() Ailenizle () Akraba yanında () Evde-yalnız () Evde-arkadaşla
() Üniversite yurdunda () Üniversite dışında bir yurttta
() Diğer:
4. Bölümünüz:.....
5. Bu üniversitedeki kaçınıcı yılınız? () Birinci () İkinci
6. Aşağıdaki seçeneklerden size uygun olanını işaretleyiniz.
() Üniversiteye burada başladım
() Başka bir üniversiteden bu üniversiteye geçiş yaptım

APPENDIX B

STUDENT ADAPTATION TO COLLEGE QUESTIONNAIRE (ÜNİVERSİTE ÖĞRENCİLERİ UYUM ÖLÇEĞİ)

Bu ölçekte üniversitedeki çeşitli yaşantılarla ilgili ifadeleri içeren 67 madde bulunmaktadır. Her bir maddeyi okurken bu ifadenin şimdiki durumda (geçen birkaç gündür) sizi ne kadar yansıttığına karar veriniz ve yanıtınızı “bana hiç uymuyor”dan “bana bütünüyle uyuyor”a kadar uzanan dokuzlu ölçek üzerinde size uygun olan derecelerden **yalnız birini** işaretleyerek belirtiniz.

1 = bana hiç uymuyor

9 = bana bütünüyle uyuyor

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Kendimi üniversite ortamıyla uyumlu hissediyorum.									
2. Son zamanlarda kendimi gergin ve sınırlı hissediyorum.									
3. Derslerimi günü gününe yapıyorum.									

APPENDIX C

BRIEF COPE

(BAŞA ÇIKMA STRATEJİLERİ KISA FORMU)

Bu ölçekte öğrencilerin üniversite yaşantılarında kullandıkları başa çıkma yollarını tanımlayan 28 madde bulunmaktadır. Sorunlarla başa çıkmaya çalışmanın birçok yolları vardır. Bu yolların doğru veya yanlış oluşu değil, kişiye uygun olup olmadığı önemlidir. Lütfen her bir maddeyi dikkatle okuyunuz ve her birini diğerlerinden ayrı değerlendirmeye çalışarak, yanıtınızı olabildiğince sizin için doğru kılınız. Her bir ifade için verdiğiniz kararı “bunu hiç yapmıyorum”dan “bunu çok yapıyorum”a kadar uzanan dördü ölçek üzerinde size uygun olan derecelerden **yalnız birini** işaretleyerek belirtiniz.

- 1 = bunu hiç yapmıyorum
2 = bunu çok az yapıyorum
3 = bunu orta derecede yapıyorum
4 = bunu çok yapıyorum

	1	2	3	4
1. Zihnimi boşaltmak için kendimi işe veya diğer etkinliklere veriyorum.				
2. Tüm çabamı içinde bulunduğum durum için birşeyler yapmaya yoğunlaştırıyorum.				
3. Kendime “bu gerçek değil” diyorum.				

APPENDIX D

COVER PAGE

Bu çalışma öğrencilerin üniversite yaşantılarıyla ilgili çeşitli bilgileri toplamayı amaçlamaktadır. Sizden isminizi yazmanız istenmemektedir. Toplanan bilgiler yalnız araştırma amacıyla kullanılacak ve sonuçlar kesinlikle gizli tutulacaktır.

İçtenlikle vereceğinize inandığım yanıtlarınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederim.

O.D.T.Ü. Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik Hazırlık Ünitesi

Uzm. Psikolojik Danışman

Mânâ Ece Tuna

APPENDIX E

TÜRKÇE ÖZET

TÜRK VE AMERİKAN ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN ÜNİVERSİTEYE UYUMLARINI YORDAYAN BAŞA ÇIKMA STRATEJİLERİNDEKİ KÜLTÜRLER ARASI FARKLILIKLAR

Üniversite yaşamı, öğrencilerin çeşitli sorunlarla başa çıkmayı öğrenmeye gereksinim duymalarından dolayı stresli bir deneyim olarak kabul edilmektedir. Üniversite yaşamı öğrencilerden, akademik talepleri karşılamaları, üniversitenin sosyal yaşamıyla bütünleşmeleri, kazanılan yeni sosyal özgürlüklerle başetmeleri, daha fazla bireysel olmaları, kendi cinsleri ve karşı cinsle olan ilişkilerini sorgulamaları için harekete geçmeleri gibi pek çok alanda mücadeleyi gerektiren özellikleriyle, özellikle üniversiteye yeni başlayan öğrenciler için zorlu bir dönemi kapsamaktadır. Bazı öğrenciler bu geçiş sorunlarını olumlu şekilde karşılayarak üniversiteye uyumlarını arttırırken, diğer öğrenciler bu yeni rollerin taleplerini karşılayamamakta ve üniversiteye uyumda zorluk yaşamaktadırlar. Tüm bu stresli durumlar karşısında öğrencilerden üniversiteye uyumu arttırmak için daha uygun başa çıkma stratejileri geliştirmeleri beklenmektedir.

Üniversiteye uyum son yirmi yıldır çok boyutlu bir kavram olarak ele alınmaktadır (Baker, McNeil ve Siryk, 1985; Baker ve Siryk, 1984a; 1986). Baker ve Siryk (1984a), üniversiteye uyumun çok boyutlu bir yapıya sahip olduğu görüşünden hareketle yürüttükleri ölçek çalışmasında, akademik uyum, sosyal uyum, kişisel/duygusal uyum ve amaç edinme/kurumsal bağlanma olmak üzere dört ayrı

boyut tanımlamışlardır. Akademik uyum akademik amaçların, taleplerin ve çabaların değerlendirilmesini ve akademik çevrenin kabullenilmesini içermektedir. Sosyal uyum, öğrencinin kendisini destekleyici ilişkiler kurarak ve etkin bir biçimde yeni sosyal çevreyle ilişkiye girerek üniversitenin sosyal çevresine katılımını belirtmektedir. Kişisel/duygusal uyum, öğrencinin psikolojik ve bedensel olarak iyi durumda olmasını içermektedir. Amaç edinme/kurumsal bağlanmanın önemli unsurları, üniversitede olmaktan ve özellikle devam ettiği üniversitede bulunmaktan memnun olmayı kapsamaktadır.

Üniversiteye uyumun çok boyutlu doğasını araştıran çalışmalar, bu boyutların, okuldan ayrılma (örn., Gerdes ve Mallinckrodt, 1994), akademik başarı (örn., Kaczmarek, Matlock ve Franco, 1990), kalınan yer (örn., Pascarella ve Terenzini, 1980), öğrenci-öğretim üyesi etkileşimi (örn., Strage, 2000), hangi bölümde okuyacağına karar vermiş olmak (örn., Smith & Baker, 1987) gibi diğer kuramsal bağlantılı ölçütlerle anlamlı düzeyde ilişkili olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Bu çalışmaların sonuçları, öğrencilerin karşılaştığı stresli durumların üniversiteye uyumun farklı boyutlarıyla ilişkili olduğu yönündeki görüşleri desteklemektedir.

Ancak, üniversiteye uyumda başa çıkma stratejilerinin rolüne ilişkin araştırmalar sınırlıdır (Jorgensen ve Dusek, 1990; Leong, Bonz ve Zachar, 1997; Tao, Dong, Pratt, Hunsberger ve Pancer, 2000). Örneğin, üniversite uyumu ve başa çıkma üzerine yapılan bir araştırma çalışması (Jorgensen ve Dusek, 1990) daha yüksek derecede uyum sağlamış ergenlerin bir hareket planı geliştirme, duygusal destek için sosyal kaynaklardan yararlanma ve problemleri tartışma, fiziksel ve bilişsel etkinliklerle iç içe olma gibi daha işlevsel başa çıkma çabalarını daha çok kullandığını ortaya koymuştur. Bir başka çalışmada ise (Leong, Bonz ve Zachar, 1997) aktif başa çıkma stratejilerinin üniversiteye yeni başlayan öğrencilerin akademik, kişisel/duygusal uyumlarının yordayıcısı olduğu bulunmuştur. Ancak kişisel/duygusal uyum, odaklanma ve duyguların dışa vurulmasıyla olumsuz bir ilişki içindedir. Tao, Dong, Pratt, Hunsberger ve Pancer'ın (2000) çalışması başa çıkma ve uyum arasında dolaylı bir kanıt ortaya koymuş ve sosyal desteğin üniversiteye yeni başlayan öğrencilerin olumlu başa çıkma örüntüleriyle önemli ölçüde ilişkili olduğunu, sosyal desteğin akademik uyumdan çok sosyal uyumla ilişkili olduğunu ve başa çıkma stratejilerinin sosyal destek ve üniversite uyumu arasındaki ilişkide aracı olduğunu ortaya çıkarmıştır.

Uyum ve başa çıkma, bu çalışmanın odak noktası olan, kültürler arası farklılıklar bağlamında ele alındığında kültürler arası psikolojinin prensiplerini taşımaktadır. Berry, Poortinga, Segall ve Dasen'e göre (1992) "Kültürler arası psikoloji çalışmaları çeşitli kültürel ve etnik gruplardaki bireylerin psikolojik işlevlerindeki benzerlikleri ve farklılıkları; psikolojik değişkenlerle, sosyo-kültürel, ekolojik ve biyolojik değişkenler arasındaki ilişkileri; ve bu değişkenlerde zamana dayalı farklılaşmaları inceler" (s.2). Psikolojik bakış açısından kültür, "uyum, sorun çözme, öğrenme ve alışkanlıklar gibi çeşitli psikolojik özellikleri içerir" (s.166). Bu tanımlar, uyum ve başa çıkmadaki kültürler arası farklılıkları araştırırken bireyin karşılaştığı durumlar ve başa çıkma stratejilerindeki tercihini etkileyecek olan mevcut kaynaklara ilişkin değerlendirmesinde kültüre ilişkin özelliklerin dikkate alınması gerektiğine işaret etmektedir. Diğer bir deyişle, Lazarus ve Folkman'ın (1984) da belirttiği üzere, kaynakların kullanımı kültürel değer ve normlar tarafından kabul edilebilir ya da yasaklanabilir.

Literatürdeki araştırmalar, kültürler arası araştırmaların üniversite uyumu üzerinde yoğunlaşmaktan ziyade, üzüntü (Vandervoort, 2001) ve stres (Sinha, Wilson ve Watson, 2000) gibi bazı psikolojik değişkenlerle ilişkili başa çıkma davranışlarının kullanımındaki farklılıklar üzerinde odaklanmaktadır. Örneğin, Marcella, Escurado ve Gordon (1972, aktaran Essau ve Trommsdorff, 1996) yansıtma, kabullenme, din ve sebat gibi başa çıkma stratejilerinin Filipinler, Kore, ve Tayvan gibi toplulukçu (collectivist) kültürlerde kullanıldığını bulmuşlardır. Essau ve Trommsdorff'un (1996) çalışması, Kuzey Amerikalı ve Almanlarla karşılaştırıldığında Malezyalı öğrencilerin okula ilişkin sorunlarla başa çıkmada duygulara yönelik başa çıkmayı, soruna yönelik başa çıkmaya göre anlamlı düzeyde daha çok kullandıklarını göstermiştir. Olah (1995) Avrupa ülkelerindeki (İtalya, Macaristan, İsveç) ergenlerin işlevsel başa çıkma stratejilerini (örn., problem yönelimli, yapısal, yüzleşmeci, bilgi-arayışlı, amaca yönelik sosyal destek arama) Hindistan ve Yemen'deki kız ve erkeklerden çok daha fazla sıklıkta kullandıklarını bulmuştur. Yemen ve Hindistan'daki ergenler genellikle duygulara yönelik çözümleri tercih etmişlerdir. Jerusalem ve Schwarzer'ın (1989) çalışmasında, Türkler'in duygulara yönelik başa çıkma, Almanlar'ın ise amaca yönelik başa çıkma stratejilerini kullandıkları ortaya çıkmıştır.

Bu bulgulara dayanarak, üniversiteye uyumdaki boyutlar evrensel olsa da, bunların değişik toplumlardaki gençler için farklı anlamları olduğu söylenebilir. Sonuç olarak, öğrencilerden üniversite yaşamının taleplerini farklı kültürlerde farklı başa çıkma stratejileriyle karşılık vermeleri beklenir ya da karşılık vermeye cesaretlendirilirler. Diğer yandan, farklı kültürlerde aynı başa çıkma stratejileri kullanılsa bile bu stratejilerin etkileri kültüre göre farklılık da gösterebilir.

Kuramsal açıdan bakıldığında, Türkiye’de üniversiteye uyumla ilgili çeşitli çalışmalar olduğu halde (örn., Akbalık, 1997; Alperden, 1993), farklı başa çıkma stratejilerinin üniversiteye uyumun farklı boyutları üzerindeki etkilerini inceleyen bir çalışmaya rastlanmamıştır. Bununla birlikte, literatürde, başa çıkma stratejilerinin üniversiteye uyuma olan etkilerine ilişkin kültürler arası bir çalışma da bulunamamıştır. Böylece, bu çalışmanın literatürde gözlenen bu boşluğu kapatacağı düşünülmektedir. Uygulamaya yönelik olarak da, böyle bir çalışmadan elde edilen bulguların, üniversiteye uyumla ilgili psikolojik danışma programı geliştirme çalışmalarında kuramsal bir temel hazırlayacağına inanılmaktadır.

Bu çalışmada, Türkiye ve Amerika Birleşik Devletleri’nde üniversiteye yeni başlayan öğrencilerin kullandıkları başa çıkma stratejilerinin üniversiteye uyumun farklı boyutlarına etkileri açısından farklılıklar bulunup bulunmadığı araştırılmıştır.

Yöntem

Örneklem

Araştırmaya 695’i Türkiye’den 448’i Amerika Birleşik Devletleri’nden (A.B.D.) toplam 1143 üniversiteye yeni başlayan öğrenci katılmıştır. Her iki ülkedeki farklı koşullardan dolayı iki farklı örneklem yöntemi yürütülmüştür. Türkiye’de Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi (ODTÜ) ve Başkent Üniversitesi (BÜ) devlet ve özel üniversiteyi temsilen seçilmiştir. Seçkisiz katmanlı örneklem yöntemiyle üniversitelerin hazırlık okullarına devam eden 403 öğrenci ODTÜ’den, 292 öğrenci de BÜ’den çalışmaya katılmıştır. A.B.D. de ise 178 öğrenci South Bend’deki Indiana Üniversitesi’nden (SBIÜ- devlet üniversitesi) ve 270 öğrenci Notre Dame Üniversitesi’nden (NDÜ-özel üniversite) gönüllü olarak katılmıştır. A.B.D.’deki öğrencilerin tümü katılımları için devam ettikleri psikolojiye giriş dersinden 2 kredi almışlardır.

Türkiye örnekleminde 26 öğrenci, A.B.D. örnekleminde ise 33 öğrenci başka üniversiteden geçiş yaptığını, yine Türkiye örnekleminde 44 öğrenci, A.B.D. örnekleminde ise 11 öğrenci en az 2 yıl başka bir üniversitede eğitim aldıklarını belirtmişlerdir. Bu öğrenciler araştırmanın ana sorusuna yönelik analizlerde araştırma dışında bırakılarak toplam 1040 (629 Türk, 411 Amerikalı) öğrenci üzerinde yapılmıştır.

Kullanılan Ölçme Araçları

Demografik Anket (DA)

Türk ve A.B.D. örneklemelerini betimlemek amacıyla iki farklı anket geliştirilmiştir. Cinsiyet, yaş, yaşanan yer, öğrencinin üniversitede kaçınıcı yılı olduğu, başka bir üniversiteden geçiş yapıp yapmadığı gibi bilgiler her iki örneklemden de toplanmış, Amerikanlı öğrencilerden ise etnik kökenlerini belirtmeleri istenmiştir.

Üniversite Öğrencileri Uyum Ölçeği (ÜÖÜÖ-Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire).

Baker ve Siryk (1984a) tarafından geliştirilmiş olan bu ölçek üniversiteye uyumun dört boyutunu ölçmektedir: akademik, sosyal, kişisel/duygusal uyum ve amaç belirleme/kurumsal bağlanma. ÜÖÜÖ'nün son geliştirilmiş şekli (Baker ve Siryk, 1999) 67 maddeden oluşmaktadır. Her maddeye verilecek yanıtlar “bana hiç uymuyor” dan “bana bütünüyle uyuyor” a kadar uzanan seçeneklerden oluşan bir ölçek üzerinde uyumsuzluk-uyum yönünde 1 ile 9 arasında ağırlıklandırılmıştır. ÜÖÜÖ'den alınabilecek ham puan 67 ile 603 arasında değişmektedir. Yüksek puan daha yüksek üniversiteye uyumu göstermektedir.

ÜÖÜÖ'nün alt ölçeklerinin özellikleri şöyledir: Akademik uyum 24 maddeden oluşmakta ve akademik güdülenme, akademik çaba, akademik başarı (performans) ve akademik çevreden memnuniyet ile ilgili maddeleri içermektedir. Bu alt ölçekten alınabilecek ham puan 24-216 arasında değişmektedir. Sosyal uyum 20 maddeden oluşmaktadır. Maddeler sosyal etkinliklerdeki başarıyı, üniversite çevresinin sosyal yönlerini, oda arkadaşlarıyla ve karşı cinsle olan ilişkileri, ev özlemiyle ilgili ifadeleri içermektedir. Bu alt ölçekten alınabilecek ham puan 20-180

arasında değişmektedir. Kişisel/duygusal uyum 15 madden oluşmaktadır ve psikolojik ve fiziksel sağlıklılıkla ilgili maddeleri kapsamaktadır. Ham puanlar 15-135 arasında değişmektedir. Amaç belirleme/kurumsal bağlanma 15 maddeden oluşmaktadır. Bu alt ölçek, kişinin genel olarak bir üniversitede ve özelde içinde bulunduğu üniversitede olmayla ilgili memnuniyeti ve duygularını ölçen maddeleri içermektedir. Ham puanlar 15-135 arasında değişmektedir.

Baker ve Siryk (1999) ölçeğin kişilerin durağan ve değişmez özelliklerini ölçmediği için iç tutarlık güvenilirliğinin test-tekrar test güvenilirliğine göre daha uygun olduğunu belirtmiştir. İç tutarlık katsayıları .92 ile .95 arasında değiştiği rapor edilmiştir. Alt ölçeklerin Cronbach alpha güvenilirlik katsayılarının akademik uyum alt ölçeği için .81 ile .90, sosyal uyum alt ölçeği için .83 ile .91, kişisel/duygusal uyum alt ölçeği için .77 ile .86 ve amaç belirleme/kurumsal bağlanma alt ölçeği için .85 ile .91 arasında değiştiği belirtilmiştir.

Baker ve Siryk (1999) tarafından yürütülen geçerlik çalışmaları, akademik uyumun ilk yıl akademik ortalamasıyla, sosyal uyumun sosyal etkinliklerle ilişkili olduğunu; psikolojik yardım almanın kişisel/duygusal uyumdaki düşük puanlarla yordandığını ve amaç belirleme/kurumsal bağlanma alt ölçeğinin de üniversiteden sağlanan genel doyumla ilişkili olduğunu ortaya çıkarmıştır.

Başa Çıkma Stratejileri Kısa Formu (BÇS- Brief COPE)

Başa Çıkma Stratejileri Kısa Formu, Carver, Scheier ve Weintraub (1989) tarafından geliştirilmiş olan ve insanların strese karşı gösterdikleri farklı davranışları ölçen Başa Çıkma Stratejileri (COPE) adlı ölçeğin Carver (1997) tarafından geliştirilen kısa formudur. Başa Çıkma Stratejileri Kısa Formu 14 alt ölçekten oluşmaktadır. Her maddeye verilecek yanıtlar “bunu hiç yapmıyorum” dan “bunu çok yapıyorum” a kadar uzanan seçeneklerden oluşan bir ölçek üzerinde yapmama-yapma yönünde 1 ile 4 arasında ağırlıklandırılmıştır. Her bir alt ölçekten alınabilecek ham puan 2 ile 8 arasında değişmektedir.

BÇS Kısa Formunun alt ölçeklerinin özellikleri şöyledir: Aktif başa çıkma, stresi ya da etkilerini ortadan kaldırmaya yönelik adım atma sürecidir. Planlama, stresle nasıl başa çıkılacağı hakkında düşündürmektir. Amaca yönelik sosyal destek arama, yönlendirme, yardım, bilgi aramaktır. Duygusal sosyal destek arama, moral destek, sempati ve anlayış sağlamaktır. Duyguları dışa vurma, kişinin yaşadığı strese

odaklanması ve duygularını dışa vurması eğilimidir. Davranışsal uzaklaşma, kişinin stresle mücadele etme çabalarının azalması, hatta amaca ulaşmak için çaba göstermemesidir. Dikkatini başka yöne yöneltme, kişinin dikkatini stres durumundan başka bir şeye yönlendirmesidir. Olumlu yönde yeniden yorumlama, stres durumunu olumlu olarak yeniden oluşturmazdır. Reddetme, stresli durumun var olduğuna inanmayı reddetmedir. Kabullenme, stresli durumun varlığını kabul etmektir. Din, durumu olumlu yönde yeniden yorumlama yoluyla duygusal bir destek kaynağı oluşturmaktır. Madde kullanımı, alkol ve diğer maddelerin kullanımını içerir. Mizah, stres durumuyla ilgili şaka yapılması ya da dalga geçilmesidir. Kendini suçlama, kişinin kendisini eleştirme eğilimidir.

Carver (1997) alt ölçeklerin iç tutarlık katsayılarının .50'nin üstünde olduğunu rapor etmiştir. Üç uygulamanın ortalamasına göre alt ölçeklerin iç tutarlık katsayıları şöyledir: aktif başa çıkma .68, planlama .73, olumlu yönde yeniden yorumlama .64, kabullenme .57, mizah .73, din .82, duygusal sosyal destek arama .71, amaca yönelik sosyal destek arama .64, dikkatini başka yöne yöneltme, .71, reddetme .54, duyguları açığa vurma .50, madde kullanımı .90, davranışsal uzaklaşma .65 ve kendini suçlama .69.

İki ölçeğin çeviri çalışmaları aynı anda çeviri-tekrar çeviri işlemiyle yürütülmüştür. İngilizce diline hakim olan dört psikolojik danışman ve İngiliz Edebiyatı bölümünden mezun bir kişi ölçekleri Türkçe'ye çevirmiştir. Bu beş çeviri, biri İngiliz dili ve ikisi psikolojik danışma ve rehberlik alanından öğretim üyelerince incelenmiş ve her madde için en uygunu seçilmişlerdir. Daha sonra, her iki dilde ölçeklerin eşitliğini sağlamak için, ölçekler iki dili de çok iyi kullanan üç psikolojik danışmana tekrar çeviri için verilmiştir. Çeviri ve tekrar çeviri çalışmaları Türkçe ve İngilizce maddelerinin birbiriyle uyumu açısından karşılaştırılmıştır. Son olarak, Türk dili bölümünden bir öğretim üyesi, Türkçe ölçeklerin anlaşılabilirliğini değerlendirmiştir. Çeviri çalışmaları ölçeklerdeki tüm maddeler, Türkçe için açık ve doğru bulunduğu tamamlanmıştır.

Türk ve A.B.D. Örnekleminde Kullanılan Ölçeklerin Eşitlik Çalışmaları

Bu bölümde Üniversite Öğrencileri Uyum Ölçeği (ÜÖÜÖ) ve Başa Çıkma Stratejileri (BÇS) kısa formunun Türk ve A.B.D. örneklemleri için yapılmış eşitlik

çalışmaları sunulmuştur. Kùltürler arası çalışmalarda önerildiđi üzere bu çalışmada da ölçeklerin geçerlik ve güvenilirlik çalışmalarını yürütmekten ziyade ölçeklerin iki kùltürdeki eşitliđi sağlanmaya çalışılmıştır.

Veri analizinin ilk basamađında önerilen yöntem izlenerek ařađıda belirtilen analizler ÜÖÜÖ ve BÇS için ayrı ayrı yürütölmüştür.

İlk olarak, madde-toplam koresyonları her iki kùltür için hesaplanmıştır. Briggs ve Cheek'in (1986) önerdiđi gibi, her iki örnekleme de, korelasyon katsayıları .11 deđerinden düşük olan maddeler ölçeklerin dıřında bırakılmıştır. İkinci olarak, geri kalan maddeler üzerinde Varimax döndürölmüř Temel Bileřenler Analiziyle (Principle Component Analysis) her iki örnekleme için ayrı olarak faktör analizi yapılmıştır. Üçüncü olarak, her madde faktör yükleri ve benzerlikleri açasından her iki örnekleme incelenmiş ve birbiriyle karşılaştırılmıştır. Dördüncü ařamada, her iki örnekleme de yüksek faktör yüküne sahip olan maddelerin seçiminden sonra, iliřkili küme puanları her iki ölçek için hesaplanmış ve bu küme/alt ölçek puanlarına ikinci-düzey faktör analizi uygulanmıştır. Sonuçlar ölçeklerin kendi içindeki ve örneklemler arasındaki faktör yapısının uygunluđuna göre incelenmiş; küme ya da alt ölçeklerden herhangi biri birden fazla faktöre yüklenmişse, ölçeklerin orijinal faktör oluřumuna ve faktörlerin kuramsal tanımlamaları göz önüne alınarak küme ya da alt ölçeđin faktörlerdeki yerine karar verilmiştir. Son olarak, her alt ölçek için hesaplanan yeni alt puanlardan sonra, iki ölçeđin her iki kùltürde her bir küme ve alt ölçekleri için Cronbach alpha katsayıları hesaplanmıştır.

Arařtırmacılar (De Vijver, 2001; De Vijver ve Leung, 1997) yapısal eşitlik için son bir ařama daha önerdikleri halde (Confirmatory faktör analiz), böyle bir analizin uygulanması hem istatistik programının kullanımında hem de çıkan sonuçların yorumlanmasında özel bir uzmanlık gerektirmesi nedeniyle bu arařtırmada uygulanması yoluna gidilmemiştir.

ÜÖÜÖ'nün Eřitlik Çalışmaları

ÜÖÜÖ'nün eşitlik çalışmalarında madde-toplam test korelasyonları, faktör yapıları, Cronbach alpha katsayıları ve ÜÖÜÖ'nün alt ölçeklerinin birbirleriyle olan korelasyonları incelenmiştir.

ÜÖÜÖ'nün Madde-Toplam Korelasyonları

Türk ve A.B.D. örneklemi için düzeltilmiş madde-toplam test korelasyonu 67 madde için mutlak değeri .11'den düşük olan korelasyonların belirlenebilmesi amacıyla hesaplanmıştır. Sonuçlar Tablo 2'de sunulmuştur. Bir madde (madde 23) Türkçe ölçekte, 8 madde (madde 6, 11, 18, 39, 43, 46, 58, 59) de İngilizce ölçekte .11'in altında bulunmuştur.

ÜÖÜÖ'nün Türk ve A.B.D. Örneklemi için Faktör Analizi

Dokuz madde her iki örneklemden de çıkartılarak kalan 58 maddenin Temel Bileşenler Analizi ve Varimax döndürülmüş faktör çözümlemesi kullanılarak Türk ve A.B.D. örneklemindeki faktör yükleri incelenmiştir. Faktör analizinde en küçük eigen değer 1.00 olarak tanımlanmıştır. Türk örnekleminde eigen değeri 1'in üzerinde olan 16 faktör ortaya çıkmıştır. Bu 16 faktör Türk örnekleminde varyansın % 60.5'ini açıklarken A.B.D. örnekleminde ise 12 faktör varyansın % 62.76'sını açıklamaktadır. Bu ilk faktör analizinin amacı, maddelerin faktör yüklerinin incelenmesidir. A.B.D. ve Türk örneklemelerinin madde faktör yükleri Tablo 3'te sunulmuştur.

Sonuçlar, Türk örnekleminde madde yüklerinin .32 ile .90 arasında, A.B.D. örnekleminde .37 ile .83 arasında değiştiğini göstermiştir. Diğer taraftan, Türk örneklemindeki 21., 35., 37., 50., 64. ve 67. maddelerin ve A.B.D. örneklemindeki 56. maddenin yükü .30 civarındadır. Tüm madde yüklerinin kabuledilebilir seviyede olduğu düşünülmüştür. İki örneklem arasındaki madde yüklerinin karşılaştırılması, faktör yükleri, ortaklıkları ve iki örneklemden madde yükü farklılıkları göz önüne alınarak yapılmıştır.

ÜÖÜÖ'nün Türk ve A.B.D. Örneklemi için İkinci-Düzyen Faktör Analizi

Analizin bu basamağında, ilk olarak kümelerin puanları hesaplanmıştır. Küme puanları hesaplanırken orijinal ÜÖÜÖ'nün boyutlarındaki maddeler temel alınmıştır. Küme puanları hesaplanırken düşük madde-toplam korelasyonu nedeniyle 9 madde dışarıda bırakılarak puanlar toplanmıştır. Yeni küme puanları ikinci-düzyen faktör analizi ve Varimax döndürülmüş faktör çözümlemesi kullanılarak A.B.D. ve Türk örnekleminde 3 farklı ikinci-düzyen faktör ortaya çıkarmıştır. Bu 3 faktör Türk

örnekleminde varyansın % 56.87'sini açıklarken A.B.D. örnekleminde ise varyansın % 61.69'unu açıklamaktadır. Türk örnekleminde ilk faktör toplam varyansın % 35.27'sini açıklarken, ikinci faktör % 11.57'sini, üçüncü faktör % 10.03'ünü açıklamıştır. A.B.D. örnekleminde ise, ilk faktör toplam varyansın % 40.35'ini açıklarken, ikinci faktör % 11.93'ünü, üçüncü faktör % 9.40'ını açıklamıştır. ÜÖÜÖ'nün Türk örneklemindeki faktörlerinin kümeleri, faktör yükleri ve ortaklıkları Tablo 4'te verilmiştir.

Tablo 4'te görüldüğü üzere, Türk örnekleminde ilk faktör sosyal uyum alt ölçeğinin 3 kümesinden ve amaç edinme/kurumsal bağlanma alt ölçeğinin de 2 kümesinden oluşmuştur. İkinci faktör, akademik uyumun 4 kümesinden oluşmuştur. Son olarak üçüncü faktör ise, kişisel/duygusal uyum alt ölçeğinin 2 kümesinden ve sosyal uyum alt ölçeğinin bir kümesinden oluşmuştur.

A.B.D. örnekleminde ise (Tablo 5), birinci faktör akademik uyum alt ölçeğinin 3, sosyal uyum alt ölçeğinin bir kümesinden oluşmuştur. İkinci faktör, sosyal uyumun 3 ve amaç belirleme/kurumsal bağlanma alt ölçeğinin de 2 kümesinden oluşmuştur. Son olarak, üçüncü faktör akademik uyum alt ölçeğinin bir kümesini içermiştir.

İkinci-düzye temel bileşenler analizi sonuçları Türk ve A.B.D. örnekleminde ÜÖÜÖ'nün faktör yapısının benzer görüldüğünü göstermiştir. Bu sonuçlara göre, sosyal uyuma ait olan bir küme her iki örnekleminde de kişisel/duygusal uyum alt ölçeğinin kümeleriyle aynı faktörde çıktığı için kişisel/duygusal uyum alt ölçeğinin içinde kabul edilmiştir.

ÜÖÜÖ alt ölçek puanlamaları, küme değişikliği nedeniyle yeniden hesaplanmıştır.

ÜÖÜÖ'nin İçtutarlık Güvenirliği

Tablo 6'dan de görüldüğü gibi alt ölçeklerin Cronbach alpha katsayıları Türk örnekleminde .64 ile .80 arasında değişirken, A.B.D. örnekleminde ise .77 ile .80 arasında değişmektedir. Ölçeğin toplamına ilişkin içtutarlık katsayısı ise Türk örnekleminde .90 ve A.B.D. örnekleminde ise .89 olarak bulunmuştur.

ÜÖÜÖ'nin Alt Ölçekler Arası Korelasyonları

Türk örnekleminde alt ölçekler arası en düşük korelasyon sosyal ve kişisel/duygusal alt ölçekleri arasında (.39) iken en yüksek korelasyon ise (.81) ile sosyal uyum ve amaç edinme/kurumsal bağlanma arasındadır. A.B.D. örnekleminde ise en düşük korelasyon sosyal ve akademik uyum arasındayken (.40), en yüksek korelasyon ise sosyal uyum ve amaç edinme/kurumsal bağlanma arasındadır (.79). Ölçeğin tamamı ve alt ölçekler arasındaki korelasyonlara bakıldığında, Türk örnekleminde bu korelasyonlar .73 ile .81 arasında; A.B.D. örnekleminde .71 ile .85 arasında değişmektedir (Tablo 7).

BÇS Kısa Formu için Eşitlik Çalışmaları

BÇS Kısa Formu'nun eşitlik çalışmalarında madde-toplam puan korelasyonları, faktör yapıları, Cronbach alpha katsayıları ve BÇS Kısa Formu'nun alt ölçeklerinin birbirleriyle olan korelasyonları incelenmiştir.

BÇS Kısa Formu'nun Madde-Toplam Korelasyonları

Türk ve A.B.D. örneklemleri için düzeltilmiş madde-toplam puanı korelasyonu her alt ölçek için .11'den düşük olan korelasyonların belirlenebilmesi amacıyla hesaplanmıştır. Sonuçlar Tablo 9'da sunulmuştur. Madde-toplam puan korelasyonları Türk örnekleminde .15 ve .84 arasında değişirken A.B.D. örnekleminde .10 ve .75 arasında değişmektedir. A.B.D. örnekleminde Amaca Yönelik Olarak Kullanılan Sosyal Destek alt ölçeğine ait olan 2 madde (10 ve 23) .11 mutlak değerinden düşük bulunduğu için bu alt ölçek daha sonraki analizlerden çıkartılmıştır.

BÇS Kısa Formu'nun Türk ve A.B.D. Örneklemleri için Faktör Analizi

İki madde her iki örneklemden de çıkartılarak kalan 26 maddenin faktör yükleri Temel Bileşenler Analizi ve Varimax döndürülmüş faktör çözümlemesi kullanılarak Türk ve A.B.D. örnekleminde ayrı ayrı incelenmiştir. Faktör analizinde en küçük eigen değer 1.00 olarak tanımlanmıştır. Türk örnekleminde eigen değeri 1'in üzerinde olan 8 faktör ortaya çıkmıştır. Bu 8 faktör Türk örnekleminde varyansın % 60.74'ünü açıklarken A.B.D. örnekleminde ise 7 faktör varyansın % 60.74'ünü açıklamaktadır. A.B.D. ve Türk örneklemlerinin madde faktör yükleri Tablo 10'da sunulmuştur.

Sonuçlar, Türk örnekleminde madde yüklerinin .41 ile .91 arasında, A.B.D. örnekleminde ise .45 ile .88 arasında değiştiğini göstermiştir. Tüm madde yüklerinin kabul edilebilir seviyede olduğu düşünülmüştür. İki örneklem arasındaki madde yüklerinin karşılaştırılması, faktör yükleri, ortaklıkları ve iki örneklemdaki madde yükü farklılıkları göz önüne alınarak yapılmıştır.

BÇS Kısa Formu'nun Türk ve A.B.D. Örneklemi için İkinci-Düzye Faktör Analizi

Analizin bu basamağında, ilk olarak alt ölçek puanları hesaplanmıştır. Alt ölçek puanları hesaplanırken orijinal BÇS Kısa Formu'nun boyutlarındaki maddeler temel alınmıştır. Düşük madde-toplam korelasyonu nedeniyle Amaca Yönelik Sosyal Destek Arama alt ölçeği dışarıda bırakılmıştır. Bunun sonucunda 13 alt ölçek puanı hesaplanmıştır. İkinci-düzye faktör analizi ve Varimax döndürülmüş faktör çözümlenmesi kullanılarak A.B.D. ve Türk örnekleminde 3 ikinci-düzye faktör ortaya çıkarmıştır. Bu 3 faktör Türk örnekleminde varyansın % 47.43'ünü açıklarken A.B.D. örnekleminde ise varyansın % 58.34'ünü açıklamaktadır. Türk örnekleminde bu ilk faktör toplam varyansın % 23.44'ünü açıklarken, ikinci faktör % 14.25'ini, üçüncü faktör % 9.75'ini açıklamıştır. A.B.D. örnekleminde ise, ilk faktör toplam varyansın % 29.57'sini açıklarken, ikinci faktör % 20.16'sını, üçüncü faktör % 8.61'ini açıklamıştır. BÇS Kısa Formu'nun Türk örneklemindeki faktörlerinin kümeleri, faktör yükleri ve ortaklıkları Tablo 11'de verilmiştir.

Tablo 11'de görüldüğü üzere, Türk örnekleminde ilk faktör 5 alt ölçekten oluşmuştur: planlama, din, aktif başa çıkma, kabullenme ve olumlu yönde yeniden yorumlama. İkinci faktör, dikkatini başka yöne yöneltme, mizah, duygusal sosyal destek arama ve duyguları dışa vurma alt ölçeklerinden oluşurken, son olarak üçüncü faktör ise, kendini suçlama, davranışsal uzaklaşma, reddetme ve madde kullanımı alt ölçeklerinden oluşmuştur.

A.B.D. örnekleminde ise (Tablo 12), birinci faktör aktif başa çıkma, duygusal sosyal destek arama, planlama, olumlu yönde yeniden yorumlama ve kabullenme alt ölçeklerinden oluşmuştur. İkinci faktör, kendini suçlama, duyguları dışa vurma, dikkatini başka yöne yöneltme, madde kullanımı ve mizahı içerirken, üçüncü faktör, reddetme ve din alt ölçeklerini içermiştir.

İkinci-düzye temel bileşenler analizi sonuçları Türk ve A.B.D. örnekleminde BÇS Kısa Formu'nun faktör yapısının benzer görüldüğünü göstermiştir. Her iki

örnekleme de 3 faktörlü bir yapı ortaya çıkmıştır. Birinci faktör daha işlevsel başa çıkma stratejilerini içerirken, ikinci ve üçüncü faktörler daha az işlevsel başa çıkma stratejilerini içermiştir. Duygusal sosyal destek arama ve dinsel başa çıkma stratejileri farklılık göstermektedir. Duygusal sosyal destek arama, Türk örnekleminde daha az işlevsel stratejilerle birlikte aynı faktörde çıkarken bu strateji A.B.D. örnekleminde daha işlevsel stratejilerle birlikte aynı faktörde bulunmuştur. Dinsel başa çıkma ise, Türk örnekleminde birinci faktörde ve daha işlevsel stratejilerle birlikteyken, A.B.D. örnekleminde üçüncü faktörde daha az işlevsel stratejilerle birlikte bulunmuştur.

BÇS Kısa Formu'nun İçtutarlık Güvenirliği

Tablo 13'te de görüldüğü gibi alt ölçeklerin Cronbach alpha katsayıları Türk örnekleminde .26 ile .91 arasında değişirken, A.B.D. örnekleminde ise .34 ile .85 arasında değişmektedir. Her iki örnekleme de bazı alt ölçeklerin düşük katsayıları olduğu gözlenmiştir. Örneğin, Türk örnekleminde duyguları dışa vurma (.26) ve kendini suçlama (.33), A.B.D. örnekleminde ise kabullenme (.34) düşük katsayılarıdır. Bu 3 alt ölçek düşük katsayıları nedeniyle sonraki analizlerin dışında tutulmuştur.

BÇS Kısa Formu'nun Alt Ölçekler Arası Korelasyonları

Alt ölçekler arası korelasyonlara bakıldığında, Türk örnekleminde en düşük korelasyon madde kullanımı ve dikkatini başka yöne yöneltme arasında iken (.00), en yüksek korelasyon planlama ve aktif başa çıkma (.42). A.B.D. örnekleminde ise en düşük korelasyon duygusal sosyal destek arama ve mizah (.00), en yüksek korelasyon ise aktif başa çıkma ile duygusal sosyal destek arama kullanma arasındadır (.70) (Tablo 14).

İşlem

ÜÖÜÖ, BÇS Kısa Formu ve Demografik Anket Türkiye ve A.B.D.'de birlikte uygulanmıştır. Ölçeklerin uygulanmasında iki farklı işlem yürütülmüştür. Üç üniversitede (O.D.T.Ü., Başkent Üniversitesi ve South Bend'deki Indiana Üniversitesi) ölçekler öğrencilere grup halinde araştırmacı tarafından uygulanmıştır.

Diğer taraftan Notre Dame Üniversitesi öğrencileri ölçekleri İnternet üzerinden cevaplandırmışlardır. Amerikalı öğrenciler araştırmaya katıldıkları için Psikolojiye Giriş dersi için 2 kredi almışlardır. Ölçeklerin uygulaması yaklaşık 20 dakika sürmüştür.

Verilerin Analizi

Bu çalışmada, veriler kültürler arası çalışmalar için önerilen iki aşama (De Vijver ve Leung, 1997) izlenerek analiz edilmiştir. Bu analizde birinci aşama yapılmadan ikinciye geçilememektedir. Birinci aşamada, yapısal eşitliği oluşturmak amacıyla ölçeklerin örneklemeler arasındaki eşitliği sağlanmaktadır (De Vijver, 2001). Bu aşamadaki analizler “Türk ve A.B.D. Örnekleminde Kullanılan Ölçeklerin Eşitlik Çalışmaları” bölümünde anlatılmıştır.

İkinci aşama veri analizi ise ana araştırma sorusunu incelemeye odaklanmıştır. Bu çalışmada, bir seri çoklu hiyerarşik regresyon analizi kullanılmıştır. Araştırmacılar (Poortinga ve De Vijver, 1987; De Vijver ve Leung, 1997) tarafından önerilen kültürler arası regresyon analizi süreci izlenmiştir.

İlk olarak, Türk ve A.B.D. örneklemleri birleştirilmiştir. Faktör analizi sonucunda seçilen başa çıkma stratejilerinden ÜÖÜÖ'nün alt ölçekleri ve ölçeğin tamamına katkısını belirlemek ve R²'nin önemli olup olmadığı görmek için beş ayrı çoklu regresyon analizi yapılmıştır.

İkinci olarak, anlamlı R² göz önüne alınarak, kültür dummy değişkeni olarak kodlanmıştır (1 Türk örneklemleri için, 0 A.B.D. örneklemleri için atanmıştır). Başa çıkma stratejileri ve etkileşimlerle (kültür x başa çıkma stratejileri) birlikte bağımsız değişken olarak çoklu hiyerarşik regresyona katılmıştır.

Üçüncü olarak, çoklu hiyerarşik regresyonda birinci blokta elde edilen R² ile üçüncü blokta elde edilen R² bağımlı değişkende kültürler arası fark olup olmadığını anlamak için karşılaştırılmıştır.

Son olarak, başa çıkma stratejilerinin etkilerindeki kültürel farkları incelemek için aşağıdaki formül kullanılmıştır.

$$Y = A + B_1 \times \text{Başa Çıkma Stratejisi} + B_2 \times \text{Kültür} + B_3 \times \text{Kültür} \times \text{Başa Çıkma Stratejisi}$$

Y, üniversiteye uyumun tahmini değeri; A regresyondaki son modelin sabit değeri; tüm B'ler, regresyonda her bir bağımsız değişken için atanmış olan katsayılarıdır (Tabachnick ve Fidell, 1996).

Bulgular

Çoklu Hiyerarşik Regresyon Analizi Sonuçları

Tablo 16'da Türk ve A.B.D. örneklemelerindeki birinci sınıf üniversite öğrencilerinin bağımlı ve bağımsız değişken puanlarının ortalamaları ve standart sapmaları gösterilmiştir.

Bağımlı ve bağımsız değişkenler arasında hesaplanan korelasyon katsayıları Tablo 17'de gösterilmiştir. Türk örneklemindeki en yüksek korelasyon davranışsal uzaklaşma ve üniversiteye uyum ölçeğinin toplam puanı arasında (-.44) bulunmuştur. A.B.D. örnekleminde ise, davranışsal uzaklaşma ve kişisel/duygusal uyum arasındadır (-.62). Yordayıcılar arasındaki tüm korelasyon katsayıların düşük ya da orta düzeyde olduğu görülmektedir.

ÜÖÜÖ'nin Toplam ve Alt Ölçek Puanlarını Yordayan Başa Çıkma Stratejilerindeki Kültürler Arası Farklar

Toplam ÜÖÜÖ'de üçüncü bloktaki kültür ve başa çıkma stratejilerinin etkileşimleri anlamlı düzeydedir (.441) (R^2 değişimi =.031, $F(18, 955) = 41.80$, $p < .001$). Tablo 19'da da görüldüğü gibi etkileşimler arasında kültür x din, kültür x davranışsal uzaklaşma ve kültür x olumlu yönde yeniden yorumlama önemli bulunmuştur. Dinsel başa çıkma stratejisini kullanan Türk öğrencilerinin toplam uyum puanları düşerken Amerikalı öğrencilerin uyum puanlarının arttığı görülmüştür ($p < .001$). Davranışsal uzaklaşma stratejisini kullanan Türk öğrencilerinin Amerikalı öğrencilere göre uyum puanlarının daha çok düştüğü bulunmuştur ($p < .01$). Diğer yandan, olumlu yönde yeniden yorumlama stratejisini kullanan Türk öğrencilerin toplam uyum puanlarının Amerikalı öğrencilere göre biraz daha fazla arttığı bulunmuştur ($p < .05$).

ÜÖÜÖ'nün akademik uyum altölçeğinin üçüncü bloktaki kültür ve başa çıkma stratejilerinin etkileşimleri anlamlı düzeyde çıkmamasına rağmen (.351) (R^2 değişimi = .007, $F(18, 943) = 28.39$) $p > .05$ kültür x aktif başa çıkma $p < .05$

düzeyinde anlamlılık göstermiştir (Tablo 21). Aktif başa çıkma stratejisini kullanan Türk öğrencilerin akademik uyum puanlarının Amerikalı öğrencilerinkine göre biraz daha yüksek olduğu bulunmuştur.

ÜÖÜ'nün sosyal uyum altölçeğinin üçüncü bloktaki kültür ve başa çıkma stratejilerinin etkileşimleri anlamlı düzeydedir (.182) (R^2 değişimi = .018, $F(15, 960) = 14.28$, $p < .001$). Tablo 23'de de görüldüğü gibi etkileşimler arasında kültür x davranışsal uzaklaşma önemli bulunmuştur. Davranışsal uzaklaşma stratejisini kullanan Türk öğrencilerinin sosyal uyum puanlarının Amerikalı öğrencilere göre daha çok düştüğü bulunmuştur ($p < .001$).

ÜÖÜ'nün kişisel/duygusal uyum altölçeğinin üçüncü bloktaki kültür ve başa çıkma stratejilerinin etkileşimlerinin anlamlı düzeyde olduğu görülmüştür (.351) (R^2 değişimi = .015, $F(17, 959) = 30.54$, $p < .01$). Tablo 25'te de görüldüğü gibi etkileşimler arasında kültür x din ve kültür x olumlu yönde yeniden yorumlama önemli bulunmuştur. Dinsel başa çıkma stratejisini kullanan Türk öğrencilerinin kişisel/duygusal uyum puanları düşerken Amerikalı öğrencilerin puanlarının arttığı bulunmuştur ($p < .01$). Diğer yandan, olumlu yönde yeniden yorumlama stratejisini kullanan Türk öğrencilerin kişisel/duygusal uyum puanlarının Amerikalı öğrencilere göre biraz daha fazla arttığı bulunmuştur ($p < .05$).

ÜÖÜ'nin amaç belirleme/kurumsal bağlanma altölçeği üçüncü bloktaki kültür ve başa çıkma stratejilerinin etkileşimlerinin anlamlı düzeyde olduğu görülmüştür (.208) (R^2 değişimi = .027, $F(15, 960) = 16.81$, $p < .001$). Tablo 27'de de görüldüğü gibi etkileşimler arasında kültür x davranışsal uzaklaşma önemli bulunmuştur. Davranışsal uzaklaşma stratejisini kullanan Türk öğrencilerinin Amerikalı öğrencilere göre amaç belirleme/kurumsal bağlanma puanlarının daha çok düştüğü bulunmuştur ($p < .001$).

Tartışma

Bu çalışmanın temel amacı, üniversiteye yeni başlayan Türk ve Amerikan öğrencilerinin başa çıkma stratejilerinin üniversiteye uyumun farklı boyutlarındaki etkileri arasındaki farklılıkları araştırmaktır. Üniversiteye uyumun yordayıcıları dikkatini başka yöne yöneltme, aktif başa çıkma, reddetme, madde kullanımı, duygusal sosyal destek arama, davranışsal uzaklaşma, olumlu yönde yeniden

yorumlama, planlama, mizah ve dindir. ÜÖÜÖ'nün toplam puanı ile akademik, sosyal, kişisel/duygusal uyum ve amaç edinme/kurumsal bağlanma alt boyutları da bağımlı değişkenlerdir.

Davranışsal Uzaklaşma Başa Çıkma Stratejisindeki Kültürel Farklılıklar

Davranışsal uzaklaşma başa çıkma stratejisinin sosyal, amaç edinme/kurumsal bağlanma ve toplam uyum üzerindeki etkilerinin kültüre göre değiştiği ortaya çıkmıştır. Bulgular, Türk kültüründe davranışsal uzaklaşma kullanan öğrencilerin Amerikan kültüründeki öğrencilere göre toplam uyumda, amaç edinme/kurumsal bağlanma ve sosyal uyumda daha olumsuz etkilendiklerini göstermiştir. Yani, davranışsal uzaklaşma kullanan Türk öğrenciler Amerikan öğrencilerine göre üniversiteye toplam uyumda ve uyumun bu boyutlarında daha fazla güçlük yaşıyor görünmektedir. Davranışsal uzaklaşma başa çıkma stratejisindeki kültürel farklılıklar üzerinde herhangi bir araştırmaya rastlanmamıştır. Bu nedenle, bulgular araştırmacının üniversiteye yeni başlayan öğrencilerle yürüttüğü psikolojik danışma uygulamalarına dayalı olarak açıklanmaya çalışılmıştır.

Davranışsal uzaklaşma stratejisinin üniversiteye uyumun boyutları üzerindeki etkilerinin kültürel farklılıkları toplulukçuluk-bireysellik (collectivistic-individualistic) boyutlarına dayalı olarak tartışılabilir. Türk öğrencilerin davranışsal uzaklaşma kullanmaları Türk kültürünün toplulukçu doğasıyla açıklanabilir. Çocuk yetiştirme uygulamalarının kültürel farklılıkların belirleyicilerinden birini oluşturduğu dikkate alındığında, Türk ve Amerikan aileleri arasındaki en belirgin farkın aşırı korumacı ve kendi kendine yetebilen (self-sufficient) çocuk yetiştirme stillerine bağlı olduğu söylenebilir. Belirli bir sahada kontrol sahibi olmaya alışan aşırı derecede korunan çocuk daha sonra yeni durumlara uyum sağlamakta güçlük çekerken, tersine, kendi kendine yetebilen (self-sufficient) çocuk, artık anne-babaların baskın olmadığı yeni bir çevre ile başa çıkmak için uyum sağlamaya hazırdır (Fisher, 1990; Fisher ve Hood, 1988). Buna bağlı olarak, Türk kültüründe, çocuklar karşılaştıkları sorunlarla kendileri değil, ailelerinin başa çıkma eğilimi göstermelerinden dolayı, sorunlarla başa çıkma pratiğinden yoksun kalırlar. Çocuk, kendi sorunlarının anne-babası tarafından kısmen ya da tamamen çözümlenmesine alıştığı için, problemle başa çıkmak yerine bir çözüm bulma çabasından vazgeçer. Türk kültüründeki böyle bir çocuk yetiştirme uygulaması üniversiteye yeni başlayan

öğrencilerin üniversiteye uyumunda daha fazla soruna neden olur. Tersine, Amerikan kültüründeki bir çocuk içinde bulunduğu durumu değerlendirerek ya problemi çözmek ya da duyguları düzenlemek için farklı başa çıkma stratejilerini kullanmayı öğrenir. Başka bir deyişle, Amerikan öğrencilerinde davranışsal uzaklaşma seçimi ve bunun üniversiteye uyumdaki farklı ölçekler üzerindeki etkisi, öğrencilerin duygularını düzenlemesi ve böylece uyumlarında daha az sorun yaşamalarını sağlayacak bir yol olarak yorumlanabilir.

Başka bir açıklama ayrılma ve bireyselleşme süreçleriyle ilgili olabilir. Araştırmacının kendisinin gözlemlemiş olduğu şey, aileden ayrılmanın üniversiteye yeni başlayan öğrencilerin o güne kadar karşılaşmış oldukları yerine getirilmesi gereken en büyük ödevlerden (task) birisi olduğudur. Bu süreç, çocuk yetiştirme uygulamaları ile çok yakından ilişkili olduğu halde, üniversiteye uyumda sosyal, duygusal ve kurumsal bağlanma üzerinde olumsuz etkilere sahip görünmektedir.

Ayrılma ve bireyselleşme, genç yetişkinler için önemli derecede uyum sonuçları olması beklenen gelişimsel bir görevdir. Süreç, aileden bağımsızlığın aşamalı olarak artmasını içerir (Rice, 1992). Aynı zamanda süreç, kazanılmış bağımsızlık ve aile ilişkilerinde yeniden düzenleme yolunda bir özerklikle ilişkilidir. Üniversiteye yeni başlayan öğrenciler bir yanda ayrılma ve uzaklaşmayla, diğer yanda bağlılıkla başa çıkmak zorundadır. Türk kültüründe ayrılma ve bireyselleşme süreçleri gecikebilir ve Amerikan kültürüyle kıyaslandığında daha da güç olabilir. Rice, Cole ve Lapsley (1990), ailelerinden ayrılırken olumlu duygulara sahip olan (ayrılmayla ilgili kızgınlık ve kaygı olmadan) öğrencilerin üniversiteye sağlıklı bir şekilde uyum sağladıkları bulmuşlardır. Bu bulguya dayanarak, Türk öğrencilerinin ayrılma-bireyselleşme süreçleri Amerikalı öğrencilerde olduğu kadar sağlıklı olmayabilir.

Dinsel Başa Çıkma Stratejisindeki Kültürel Farklılıklar

Dinsel başa çıkma stratejisinin kişisel/duygusal ve toplam uyum üzerindeki etkisinin kültüre göre değiştiği ortaya çıkmıştır. Bulgular, Türk kültüründe dinsel başa çıkmayı kullanan öğrencilerin olumsuz yönde etkilendiklerini, Amerikalı öğrencilerin ise olumlu yönde etkilendiklerini göstermiştir. Yani, dinsel başa çıkma Türk öğrencilerinin toplam ve kişisel/duygusal uyumlarını zayıflatırken Amerikalı öğrencilerin toplam ve kişisel/duygusal uyumlarını güçlendirmiştir.

Kültürler arası bir çalışma olmamasına rağmen, dinin psikolojik ve fiziksel sorunlarla başa çıkmada kullanıldığını gösteren araştırmalar mevcuttur (örn., Carver ve ark., 1993; Ellison, Boardman, Williams ve Jackson, 2001). Diğer yandan, başka bir çalışmada dinsel inanç ile günlük stresle başa çıkma arasında bir bağlantı bulunamamıştır (örn., Plante, Saucedo ve Rice, 2001). Ancak, araştırmalar genellikle sorunlar kontrol dışı olarak görüldüğünde dinsel başa çıkmanın etkili sonuçlar yarattığını göstermiştir. Böyle durumlarda kişi dine döner ve Tanrı'dan karşılaşılan durum için bir şeyler yapmasını bekler. Pargament, Kennel, Hathaway, Gravengoad, Newman ve Jones (1988) üç dinsel başa çıkma stili önermiştir: Kendini yönlendiren (self-directing), işbirlikçi (collaborative) ve boyun eğici (deferring). Boyun eğici stilinde, kişi sorunun çözümü için herhangi bir adım atmaz ve Tanrı'nın sorunu çözeceğine güvenir. Bu tip dinsel başa çıkmanın Türk kültürünün dinsel tutumunu yansıttığı söylenebilir.

Diğer yandan, kişisel/duygusal uyum öğrencinin etkin olarak bir şeyler yapmasını gerektirir. Tanrı'dan yardım beklemek, üniversiteye uyumda ya da kişisel/duygusal uyumun gelişiminde öğrencilere yardım etmez. Bu nedenle, Türk öğrenciler dinsel başa çıkmadan olumsuz olarak etkilenmiş olabilirler.

Dinsel başa çıkma aynı zamanda birincil ve ikincil değerlendirmelerle ilgili olabilir. Park, Cohen ve Herb'e göre (1990) dinsel inançlar yaşam stresine uyumda birincil değerlendirmeyi etkileyebilir. Taylor (1983), travmatik bir olayın, bireyin dinsel bakış açısına göre farklı görünebileceğini ve bir mücadele, tehdit ya da inancı kuvvetlendirmek için Tanrı tarafından gönderilmiş bir şey olarak yorumlanabileceğini bulmuştur. Buna bağlı olarak, İslam dininde Allah insanın yazgısını belirlediğinden (Pepitone, 1994), Türk öğrenciler olayları tehdit olarak yorumlayabilirler. Hıristiyanlıkta ise, Tanrıya inanış aynı olduğu halde, Hıristiyanların dini yaşayış biçimleri farklıdır. Yani Amerikalı öğrenciler fakirler ve evsizler için lise dönemlerinde genellikle kiliselerdeki gönüllü hizmetlere katıldığından bu öğrenciler çözüm için somut adımlar atarak ve ruhsal destek, arkadaşlık gibi sosyal ve duygusal destekler alarak bu tür problemlerle başa çıkmanın mümkün olabileceği gerçeğinin farkına varırlar. Amerikalı öğrenciler dini, sadece ruhsal dünyada yer alan bir dua etme etkinliği olarak görmektense, dini fiziksel dünyadaki sorunlara çözüm bulmayı denemek için kullanırlar. Bu çalışmada yer alan çoğunluğu Katolik Amerikalı öğrenciler dinsel etkinliklere düzenli olarak

katılmaktaydılar. Bu nedenle, Türk öğrencileriyle karşılaştırıldığında Amerikalı öğrenciler, dinsel başa çıkma stratejisini kullandıklarında daha iyi bir kişisel/duygusal ve toplam üniversite uyumuna sahip olmuş olabilirler.

Olumlu Yönde Yeniden Yorumlama Başa Çıkma Stratejisindeki Kültürel Farklılıklar

Olumlu yönde yeniden yorumlama stratejisinin kişisel/duygusal uyum üzerindeki etkisinin kültüre göre değiştiği ortaya çıkmıştır. Bulgular, bu başa çıkma stratejisinin Türk kültüründe Amerikan kültüründe olduğundan daha fazla etkili olduğunu göstermiştir. Olumlu yönde yeniden yorumlama stratejisini kullanan Türk öğrencilerin Amerikalı öğrencilere göre biraz daha fazla toplam üniversiteye uyumda ve kişisel/duygusal uyum boyutunda yüksek puan aldıkları ortaya çıkmıştır.

Bu çalışmada elde edilen kültürel farklılıklar daha fazla tartışmak için azdır. Ancak, şöyle bir nokta belirtilebilir: Türk kültüründe insanlar kişisel/duygusal problemler yaşadıklarında Amerikan tarzı olumlu düşünmekten daha farklı olarak dinsel yan anlamları olan “Derdi veren dermanını verir,” “Her şeyde bir hayır vardır” gibi sözler söylemeye yatkındırlar.

Aktif Başa Çıkma Stratejisindeki Kültürel Farklılıklar

Kültür ve aktif başa çıkmanın etkileşiminde Türk ve Amerikan kültürü arasında küçük farklılıklar bulundu. Bu bulgu, aktif başa çıkmanın akademik uyum üzerindeki etkisinin kültürle ilişkili olduğunu göstermiştir. Bununla ilişkili olarak, aktif başa çıkma Türk kültüründe Amerikan kültüründe olduğundan daha etkindir. Aktif başa çıkma stratejisini kullanan Türk öğrencilerinin akademik uyumlarının Amerikalı öğrencilere göre biraz daha yüksek olduğu bulunmuştur.

Bu bulguya ilişkin çok kısa bir açıklama olarak ailelerin ve daha geniş olarak toplumun akademik beklentileri bağlamında iki kültür arasında farklılıkların olduğu söylenebilir. Üniversite eğitimi, Türk toplumu için en çok rekabet edilen ve en çok prestij gören alanlardan birisi olması nedeniyle, Türk öğrencileri akademik olarak uyum sağlama şansından başka bir şansa sahip olamayabileceklerinden aktif başa çıkma stratejisini kullanmaları beklenir. Buna ek olarak, üniversitede başarısız olma durumunda Amerikalı öğrencilerin ikinci bir şansa başka bir bölüme girme olasılıkları varken, Türk öğrenciler böyle bir fırsata sahip olmayabilirler.

Her bir başa çıkma stratejisiyle ilgili arařtırmaların olmaması, bulguların tartıřmasını sınırlandırmıřtır. Fakat, bu alıřmada ortaya ıkan farklılıklar, Doęu ve Batı kltrlerindeki ayrımın genel eęilimine katkıda bulunduęu sylenebilir.

Elde edilen bulgular, bu alıřmada farklı rneklem ve veri toplama yntemlerinin kullanılmasından dolayı dikkatli yorumlanmalıdır.

VITA

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