



PROBLEMS AND COPING STYLES OF NON-THAI STUDENTS FROM ASIAN  
COUNTRIES IN ASSUMPTION UNIVERSITY, BANGKOK

ZHANG JUN

A Project Submitted in Partial  
Fulfillment of the Requirements  
for the Degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

Graduate School of Counseling Psychology

ASSUMPTION UNIVERSITY

December 2004



PROBLEMS AND COPING STYLES OF NON-THAI STUDENTS FROM ASIAN  
COUNTRIES IN ASSUMPTION UNIVERSITY, BANGKOK

ZHANG JUN

102 pages

December 2004

This project aims to study the problems and coping styles of Non-Thai students from Asian countries in Assumption University, Bangkok as related to selected demographic variables.

APPROVED:

*Vorapot Ruckthum*

DR. VORAPOT RUCKTHUM, Ph. D  
Chairperson

*Bro. Thinaratana Komkris f.s.g.*

BRO. THINARATANA KOMKRIS, f.s.g., Ph. D  
Advisor

*Chancha Suwannathat*

DR. CHANCHA SUVANNATHAT, Ed. D

*Jean Barry*

FR. JEAN BARRY, S.J, Ed.D

*Robert Ho*

DR. ROBERT HO, Ph.D

PROBLEMS AND COPING STYLES OF NON-THAI STUDENTS FROM ASIAN  
COUNTRIES IN ASSUMPTION UNIVERSITY, BANGKOK

ZHANG JUN

102 pages

December 2004

The study was conducted for the following purposes: first, to examine the problems and coping styles of non-Thai students from Asian countries in Assumption University ABAC; second, to determine the differences between problems as well as between coping styles in relation to the selected demographic variables, namely, gender, age, nationality, and living arrangement; and third, to discover the relationships between the problems and the coping styles of these students.

The population of the study consists of 1898 Non-Thai students who enrolled for the first semester in academic year 2004. with the purposive sampling technique, the Non-Thai students in the section of Business Ethics Seminar were chosen to be respondents for the study, and 336 questionnaires were qualified for the study, the instruments employed were the Mooney Problem Checklist (College form), and the Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WCQ). The data was analyzed by using mean and standard deviation, the general linear model (GLM) multivariate analysis of variance, and pearson product moment correlation coefficient. The findings were as follows:

1. It was found that Social and Recreational Activities (SRA) was the top problem of non-Thai students from Asian countries in Assumption University; on the other hand, their least personal problem area turned out to be Morals and Religion (MR).
2. Findings on the coping styles indicated that Positive Reappraisal (PR) was the top coping style of the respondents; Escape-Avoidance (EA), in contrast, was the least employed.
3. No significant differences were found between the problem areas of Finance,

Living Condition and Employment (FLE), Social and Recreational Activities (SRA), Social-Psychological Relations (SPR), Personal-Psychological Relations (PPR), Home and Family (HF), Morals and Religion (MR), Adjustment to College Work (ACW), Future Vocational and Educational (FVE), and Curriculum and Teaching Procedure (CTP) and the demographic variable “age.” However, there were significant differences between the Health and Physical Development (HPD) and Courtship, Sex, and Marriage (CSM) and “age” at 0.05 level of significance.

4. There were no significant differences found between HPD, FLE, SRA, SPR, PPR, CSM, HF, ACW, FVE, and CTP problem areas and the demographic variable “nationality.” However, a significant difference was found between the problem area MR and “nationality” at 0.05 level of significance.
5. Results show that there were no significant differences between HPD, FLE, SRA, PPR, CSM, HF, MR, ACW, FVE, and CTP problem areas and the demographic variable “living arrangement”. However, there was a significant difference between SPR and PPR problems areas and the demographic variable “living arrangement” at 0.05 level of significance.
6. No significant differences were found between Confrontational Coping (CC), Self-Controlling (SC), Seeking Social Support (SSS), Accepting Responsibility (AR), Escape-Avoidance (EA), Planful Problem Solving (PPS), and Positive Reappraisal (PR) coping styles and the demographic variable “age.” However, a significant difference was found between the Distancing (D) coping style and the characteristic “age” at 0.05 level of significance.
7. No significant differences were found between CC, EA, and PR coping styles and the demographic variable “nationality.” However, significant differences were found between the D, SC, SSS, AR, and PPS coping styles and the characteristic “nationality” at 0.05 level of significance.
8. Results show that there were no significant differences between CC, D, SC, SSS, AR, EA, and PPS coping styles and the variable “living arrangement.” However, a significant difference was found between the PR coping style and “living arrangement” at 0.05 level of significance.

9. And finally, it was found that no significant relationships existed between the following problem areas: HPD, ACW, MR, CTP and any coping style. In contrast, however, it was found that significant relationships did exist between the following problem areas and coping styles: FLE and the coping styles SC, SSS, and PR; problem area SRA and the coping styles CC and SSS; SPR problem and the coping styles EA and PR; PPR and EA; CSM and EA; HF and the coping styles CC, SC, EA, and PR; and between the problem area FVE and the following coping styles: SC, SSS, EA, and PPS at the 0.05 level of significance.

APPROVED:

*Vorapot Ruckthum*

DR. VORAPOT RUCKTHUM, Ph. D  
Chairperson

*Bro Thinaratana Komkris f.s.g.*  
BRO. THINARATANA KOMKRIS, f.s.g., Ph. D  
Advisor

*Chancha Suwannathat*

DR. CHANCHA SUVANNATHAT, Ed. D

*Jean Barry*  
FR. JEAN BARRY, S.J., Ed.D

*Robert Ho*  
DR. ROBERT HO, Ph.D

PROBLEMS AND COPING STYLES OF NON-THAI STUDENTS FROM ASIAN  
COUNTRIES IN ASSUMPTION UNIVERSITY, BANGKOK

ZHANG JUN



Graduate School of Counseling Psychology

ASSUMPTION UNIVERSITY

December 2004

APPROVED:

*Vorapot Ruckthum*

DR. VORAPOT RUCKTHUM, Ph. D  
Chairperson

*Bro Thinaratana Komkris fsg*

BRO. THINARATANA KOMKRIS, f.s.g., Ph. D  
Advisor

*Chancha Suwannathat*

DR. CHANCHA SUVANNATHAT, Ed. D

*Jean Barry*

FR. JEAN BARRY, S.J, Ed.D

*Robert Ho*

DR. ROBERT HO, Ph.D

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to say a “special thank you” to my advisor, Bro. Thinaratana Komkris, for all his kind advice, in the study and helping me to complete my aspiration.

My sincerely thanks to Dr. Vorapot Ruckthum, our dean who supports and helps all MSCP students.

I would like to express “many thanks” to all teachers who ever taught me, special thank Fr Jean Barry for giving me many encouragement.

Many thanks to my classmates and unknown friends who ever helped me for all their kind friendship.

I would like to thank to my parent for giving me the biggest love in any condition.

Finally I will try my best to work for reciprocating all people who gave me help, concern, support, encouragement, friendship and love. In my paper, I think that there must be a lot of shortcoming and mistakes; I truly expect all readers can give me criticism.



CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	i
CONTENTS	ii
LIST OF TABLES	iv
LIST OF FIGURES	v
CHAPTER	
I. THE PROBLEM AND ITS BACKGROUND	1
Introduction	1
Objectives of the Study	4
Statement of the Problem	4
Hypothesis	5
Significance of the Study	5
Scope and Limitation of the Study	6
Definition of Terms	6
Conceptual Framework	8
II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	9
Problems of Students	9
Coping Styles of Students	29
III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	43
Research Design	43
Sample and Population	43
Instrument of the Study	44

Pilot Study	50
Procedure of the Study	51
Statistical Treatment	52
IV PRESENTATION OF THE FINDINGS	53
General Demographic Characteristics	54
Problems	55
Coping Styles	56
Comparison between Problem and Demographic Data	58
Comparison between Coping Styles and Demographic Data	65
Correlation between the Problems and Coping Styles	71
V CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	75
Overview of the Study	76
Summary of the Findings	77
Discussion of the Findings	79
Conclusion	88
Recommendations	89
REFERENCES	92
APPENDIX A	97

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Reasons for the Exclusion of Questionnaires	52
Table 2. Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Demographic Variables	54
Table 3. Mean Score and Standard Deviation and Rank of the Problems	55
Table 4. Mean Score and Standard Deviation and Ranking of Coping Styles	56
Table 5. Frequencies of MPCL Scores According to Gender	58
Table 6. Frequencies of MPCL Scores According to Age	59
Table 7. Frequencies of MPCL Scores According to Nationality	61
Table 8. Frequencies of MPCL Scores According to Living Arrangement	63
Table 9. Frequencies of WCQ Scores According to Gender	65
Table 10. Frequencies of WCQ Scores According to Age	66
Table 11. Frequencies of WCQ Scores According to Nationality	67
Table 12. Frequencies of WCQ Scores According to Living Arrangement	69
Table 13. The Correlation between the Problems and Coping Styles	71



## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Comparison of Mean MPCL Scores	56
Figure 2. Comparison of Mean WCQ Scores	57



## CHAPTER I

### The Problem and Its Background

#### *Introduction*

What do college students immediately think of when they are asked about the concept of “problem?” Perhaps they think of math problems of the kind they worked on when they were in high school. Or perhaps they think of a problem only in terms of the difficulty that it poses - a car that will not start, or a jacket that can no longer be used because it is torn. When people, particularly students, think of a problem in these ways, they tend to think of it as something that is just “sitting there,” or as an obstacle; and this negative view of *problem* can itself be an obstacle to their learning.

There is another way to look at problems. Problems are never just sitting there. The nature of a problem is that it is an unfinished situation that needs a resolution. If people look at problems as dynamic, not static, they will realize that the difficulties they pose are temporary. By seeing oneself as an active participant in problem solving, one will perceive problems as challenges. This researcher believes that students, especially foreign students like himself who may be facing a number of problems while studying away from home, should approach these in a more dynamic and proactive way.

In Bangkok, there are a number of renowned international schools such as Assumption University where there are two groups of students: Thai students and Non-Thai students. Thailand is generally perceived to have a strong economy and a more advanced educational system than many of its neighboring Asian countries; hence, a good number of students, particularly high school graduates from many Asian nations have

opted to come to Thailand for their college education.

At the time of study, there are 2,078 foreign students studying in Assumption University ABAC; and, not surprisingly, about 1,898 or 91.3% of these come from neighboring Asian countries, according to internal statistical records. Being non-Thai, they have been encouraged to study in the international program where English is used as the medium of instruction.

The level of proficiency in the English language varies from one foreign student to another, which often results in bigger problems in learning for some than for others. Meanwhile, because of basic culture differences, foreign students are likely to encounter many other problems in the new environment, apart from language difficulties. The new environment is bound to be perceived as being different, novel, and probably even strange in one way or another. Foreign students, particularly in their first study term, have to contend with a multitude of hurdles such as living arrangements, culture changes, new peer relations, new teaching styles and school policies, and suchlike, while being away from home. These students may suffer from *adjustment reaction*, a psychological maladjustment unique to foreign students; that is, when they enter international school in unfamiliar circumstances, foreign students may suddenly lack status and authority, feel disoriented, and even distressed.

Student transition under this new condition is a complex and challenging process. Some of the more difficult experiences these students have to deal with include confusion over the enrollment process, concern about finances, and the need to balance their lives while being away from home. According to David (1997), at the time of transition from one's own homeland to a strange country, students are more likely to be experiencing



new adjustment demands of the college environment. By the same token, Townes and Cohen (1996) opined that college students, especially foreign students, are a group particularly prone to stress. They must adjust to being away from home, maintain a high level of academic achievement, and adjust to a new social environment.

In a similar vein, Furnham and Tresize (as cite in Kamolwan Rungrongthanin) asserted that problems facing the foreign student include language problems, accommodation difficulties, financial stress, and loneliness. Hodge (1996), likewise, established that foreign students undergo stressful situations, and that various researches in this area revealed that a number of influential variables are associated with high anxiety among foreign students. These variables include culture adjustment and difficulties with the host country, psychosocial concerns, loneliness, boredom, and homesickness.

Having explored some related literature and researches, as well as having experienced such difficulties first-hand, this researcher decided to study the problems of foreign students as they relate to gender, age, nationality, and living arrangement, with the added dimension of determining their most preferred coping styles. The researcher anticipates that the study will help other foreign students like him in Assumption University ABAC, who face similar difficulties and challenges, to perceive problems as being surmountable, temporary, and less overwhelming than they appear to be, as well as to get them to realize that there are actually a number of coping mechanisms that they can try to overcome their difficulties.

*Objectives of the Study*

This study was conducted on the basis of the following objectives:

1. To determine the differences between the problems of non-Thai students from Asian countries in Assumption University ABAC in relation to their gender, age, nationality, and living arrangement.
2. To determine the differences between the coping styles of the same group of students in relation to the given demographic variables.
3. To determine the relationships between the problems and the coping styles of these students.

*Statement of the Problem*

This study which focused on the problems and coping styles of non-Thai students from Asian countries in Assumption University aimed to answer and clarify the following research questions:

1. Are there significant differences in the problems of non-Thai students from Asian countries in Assumption University as a function of their demographic variables of gender, age, nationality, and living arrangement?
2. Are there significant differences in the coping styles of non-Thai students from Asian countries in Assumption University as a function of their demographic variables of gender, age, nationality, and living arrangement?
3. Are there significant relationships between the problems and the coping styles of non-Thai students from Asian countries in Assumption University?

### *Hypothesis*

Based on the objectives and research problems of the study, the following alternative hypotheses were generated for testing:

1. Are there significant differences in the problems of Non-Thai students from Asian countries in Assumption University?
2. Are there significant differences in the coping styles of Non-Thai students from Asian countries in Assumption University?
3. Are there significant relationships between the problems and the coping styles of Non-Thai students from Asian countries in Assumption University?

### *Significance of the Study*

The researcher expects the findings of this study to serve as additional knowledge and data base for the information and guidance of school administrators, counselors, and instructors in international schools who have the responsibility to help students, particularly those from other countries. By having a wider understanding of the problems faced by the students, they would be in the vantage position of being able to give timely advice to students on the best ways to cope or deal with difficulties, and lead them to adjust more smoothly to their adopted “home away from home.”

In the same vein, the result of this study is anticipated to serve as a guideline for foreign students themselves who would find it of paramount importance to know the array of coping mechanisms open to them when confronted with the usual difficulties other students “in the same boat” have to face.

Furthermore, the findings of this study can be used by student personnel officers in



international schools who have the conviction to help other students like themselves by pushing for cultural immersion orientation programs at the outset, and any other relevant service for new foreign students to help them settle in as early as possible.

### *Scope and Limitation of the Study*

This research focused on the problems and coping styles of non-Thai students from Asian countries only. The results of this study may not apply to foreign students in the same institution who have come from other continents such as Europe, America, Africa, and the Middle East. Having been conducted in Assumption University only, the findings cannot be fully generalized to foreign students in other international schools. Moreover, the study is limited to an analysis of the problems and coping styles of the targeted sample of respondents as a function of only four of their demographic variables, namely, gender, age, nationality, and living arrangement. In spite of these limitations, however, the researcher opined that the findings of the study would prove to be socially relevant and beneficial to a number of individuals and groups, at least within the parameters of the selected independent and dependent variables.

### *Definition of Terms*

#### *Problem*

A problem is something that causes trouble or difficulty. In this study, the concept of problem was analyzed within the context of the difficulties encountered by college students. Operationally, problems were confined to the type of problem areas listed in the Mooney Problem Check List, one of the instruments of the study. This list

included problem areas such as living conditions, social-psychological relations, personal-psychological relations, and adjustment to college school work, the future, curriculum and teaching procedure, and others.

### *Coping styles*

This refers to conscious, rational ways of dealing with the anxieties of life. As used in this research, the term is used for those strategies designed to deal with the source of the anxiety of foreign students.

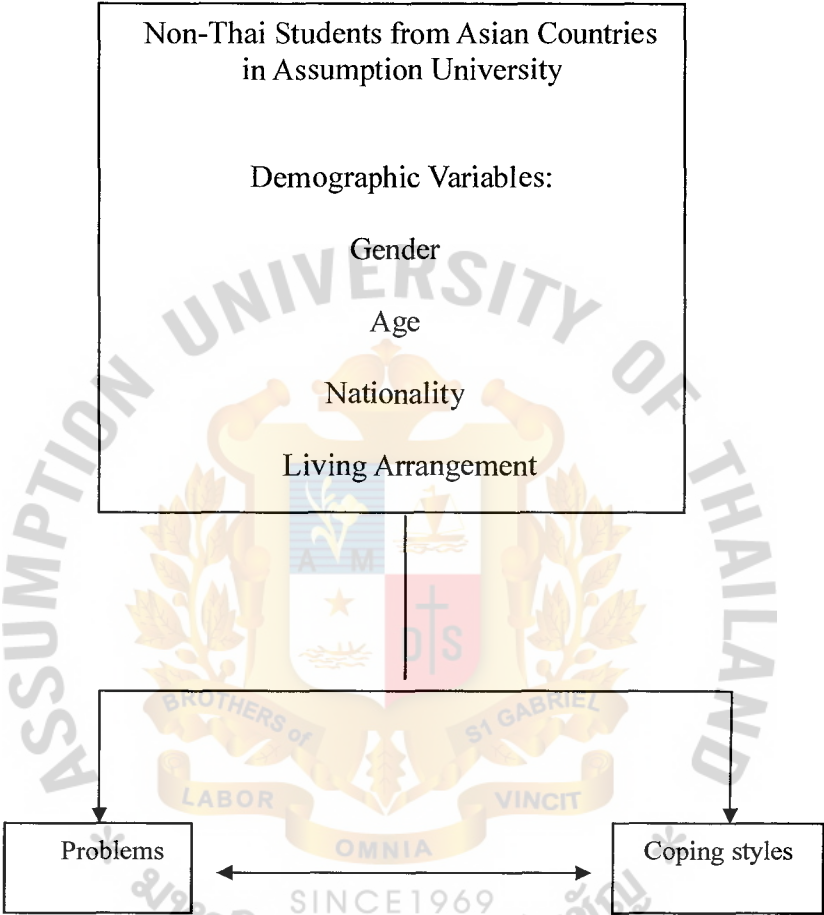
### *Non-Thai Students from Asian Countries.*

As used in this study, this term refers to full-time students of Assumption University who are not Thai-born nor bred, and who came from Asian countries only. Specifically, this group consisted of Chinese, Indian, Myanmar, Cambodian, Laotian, Filipino, Hong Kongian, Malaysian, Indonesian, Japanese, Korean, Pakistani, Bangladeshi, Singaporean, Taiwanese, and Vietnamese. In this study, to be divided into four groups, Chinese, Indian, Myanmar, and others.

### *Assumption University (AU or ABAC)*

Assumption University is a non-profit educational institution administered by the Brothers of St. Gabriel, a worldwide Catholic Religious Order. It used to be known as Assumption Business Administration College or ABAC. The university has two large campuses, Bang Na and Hua Mak, both located in Bangkok, Thailand.

Conceptual Framework





## CHAPTER II

### Review of Related Literature

This chapter presents a review of related literature in the form of relevant theoretical formulations and research findings that directly concern the major variables of the study. The review of related literature is presented in the following order:

1. Problems of Students and Young People
2. Coping Styles of Students and Young People

#### *Problems of Students*

Foreign students from Asian countries who come to Thailand for their college education will most likely be confronted by a number of problems involving: health, finances, living arrangement, social interaction, sexuality, family, morals, adjustment, education, and teaching.

#### *Health and Physical Development*

General speaking, girls typically become quite concerned about their appearance and worry about how other people will respond to them. In general, teenage girls hope to be perceived as attractive, and changes that are congruent with the “feminine ideal” of slimness are often welcomed. However, they are often concerned that they are growing too tall or too fat, and their body images become increasingly negative from early to late adolescences. Even well-proportioned teenage girls may try to compensate for perceived

physical faults by slouching, wearing flats, or trying endless fad diets (Shaffer, 2002).

Girls' reactions to menarche are mixed. They are often excited but somewhat confused as well, especially if they mature very early or have not been told what to expect. Few girls today are traumatized by menarche, but at the same time, few are overjoyed about becoming a woman (Shaffer, 2002).

Boys' body images are more positive than those of girls, and they are much more likely than girls to welcome their weight gains. Teenage boys also hope to be tall, hairy, and handsome, and they may become preoccupied with the aspects of body image that center on physical and athletic prowess. Whereas menarche is a memorable event for girls, boys are often only dimly aware of the physical changes they are experiencing. They rarely tell anyone about their first ejaculation, often were not prepared for it and, like girls, express mixed reactions to becoming sexually mature (Shaffer, 2002).

#### *Finances and Living Conditions*

According to Farran and Margolis (1987), a family challenged by the economic stresses of poverty places its children at risk for problems of behavior and health. These implications of financial stress on youth development exist for families living in both rural and urban areas. Clark-Lempers, Lempers, and Netusil (1990) claim that parents from farm families report higher levels of family financial stress and of depression than do parents from non-farm families. In both farm and non-farm families, however, financial stress felt by parents is related to depression among adolescents. According to Felner et al. (1995), youth living in poor, rural families have more social and emotional problems and poor academic adjustment and school performance than do adolescents

3048 e 1

living in less financially disadvantaged households. In a study of poor families who either did or did not receive welfare benefits, as revealed by Kalil & Eccles (1998), there was little evidence that welfare receipt has a negative impact on parent-child interactions, although mothers on welfare do show less effective strategies for managing the behavior of their youth (Lerner, 2002).

The influence of economic hardship on youth development appears to occur through a process involving feelings of economic pressure by parents (e.g., the inability to pay monthly bills), which result in parents feeling depressed and demoralized. These feelings are associated with marital conflicts and disruptions of skillful parenting, which eventuates in problems of adolescent behavior. Problematic outcomes of this process include the use of alcohol, antisocial behavior, depression, anxiety, and/or hostility among young adolescents. Despite the negative outcomes of poverty, parents in even the poorest families can promote positive outcome in their children. Among poor African-American families, social support to mothers from their kin was associated with adolescent and mother well-being and with higher quality practices. Consistent with Taylor and Robert's research is a study of about 250 urban African American adolescent males. These youth, living in single-parent, female head-of-household homes, reported more parental support than did youth living in stepparent, dual-parent, mother-and-extended-family, and extended-family-only households (Lerner, 2002).

### *Social-Psychological Relations*

Many theorists suggest that young adulthood is the period of life during which people tend to establish themselves as independent members of society. However, Jeffrey

Arnett (2000) suggests that in the United States they have a period that bridges adolescence and independence: *emerging adulthood*.

According to psychologist Jeffrey Arnett (2000), emerging adulthood is a hypothesized period of development that spans the ages of 18 through 25 years and exists only in societies that permit young people extended periods of independent role exploration. These societies have the ability to grant young people the luxury of development, their unique identities and their individual life plans through parental help, government-funded student loans, and the like. This is not to say that people undergoing emerging adulthood are spoiled. After all, they are dealing with their own reality as it is (Rathus, 2002).

Erikson (1968) had earlier noted that industrialized societies tend to prolong the period of adolescence. He wrote that there is commonly a moratorium in the extended adolescence during which the individual engages in a deep search for personal identity. Although some people in such societies get a job right out of high school or get married or bear children early, many others—perhaps most—tend to further their education and to delay marriage into their mid to late 20s, or their 30s (Rathus, 2002).

Arnett (2000) notes that when people in their late teens and early 20s are asked whether they have reached adulthood, nearly 60% say something to the effect, “In some respects yes, and in other respects no.” They seem to feel that they are beyond the conflicts and types of exploration they underwent in adolescence, but they are not yet ready to assume the responsibilities they equate with being adults (Rathus, 2002).

During young adulthood, people tend to leave their families of origin and to create families of their own. Erikson (1963) characterized young adulthood as the stage



of intimacy versus isolation. Erikson saw the establishment of intimate relationships as central to young adulthood. Young adults who have evolved a firm sense of identity during adolescence are ready to “fuse” their identities with those of other people through marriage and abiding friendships. People who do not reach out to develop intimate relationships risk retreating into isolation and loneliness (Rathus, 2002).

### *Personal-Psychological Relations*

Most western men consider separation and individuation to be key goals of personality development during young adulthood, according to Guisinger and Blatt (1994). For women, however, the establishment and maintenance of social relationships are also of primary importance. Women, as Gilligan has pointed out, are likely to undergo a transition from being cared for by others to caring for others. In becoming adults, men are more likely to undergo a transition from being restricted by others to autonomy and perhaps control of other people (Rathus, 2002).

Helson (1993) asserted that although there are differences in the development of women and men, between the ages of 21-27 years, college women also develop in terms of individuation and autonomy. Women, like men, assert increasing control over their lives. College women, on average, are relatively liberated and career oriented compared with their less-well-educated peers (Rathus, 2002).

### *Sex and Marriage*

Puberty is the process by which the body gradually becomes capable of reproduction. Menarche, spermatarche, body hair, voice change, breast development, and

other bodily transformations are among the physical signs of sexual maturation. Psychological changes such as an increase in sexual interest and erotic attraction to others also begin in puberty. Autoerotic activities such as romantic or sexual fantasies to accompany masturbation typically begin as well (Galliano, 2003).

In industrialized societies, the socially constructed period of time between childhood and full adulthood is known as adolescence. During that life segment, males, and females have full reproductive capacity but do not possess the social and economic rights and responsibilities of full adulthood. Since the 1960s, industrial and postindustrial societies have gradually become more permissive regarding non-marital sexual behavior among both women and men. However, many vestiges of the sexual double standard remain (Galliano, 2003).

Societies vary regarding attitudes toward breast development and menarche. The Mescalero Apache Indians in the southwestern United States hold an annual celebration for all the young women who began to menstruate in the previous year. This ritual is a public affirmation of women's power and fertility. In contrast, menstruation is a private event in European-American society and is surrounded by ambivalent social attitudes (Galliano, 2003).

Among girls in western society, the process of sexual objectification begins during adolescence, particularly regarding comparisons to gender ideals for female weight and size. Physical appearance becomes a central concern for girls. For boys, puberty and spermarche are not crises or negative experiences, most boys look forward to adulthood and are not ambivalent about leaving childhood. Male puberty is associated with positive masculinity, physical competence, agency, and active sexuality (Galliano,

2003).

During adolescence, social messages regarding sexual expression become highly differentiated according to gender. In some societies, young women are veiled and sequestered from men. People in most industrialized nations consider that young women should inhibit their desires to varying degrees and be wary of sexual overtures until they are in a committed relationship. They must avoid casual sexual encounters and guard against a “loose” reputation. Recognition and acceptance of young women’s erotic interests and sexual desires are noticeably missing from the sexual scripts. Masculine sexual scripts center on frequent casual sexual encounters. Beliefs in the strength and power of male sexual drive and erotic interests are encouraged (Galliano, 2003).

#### *Home and Family*

Essentially, this stage has to do with coming to see ourselves as autonomous adults separate from our families of origin. Since the separation from our families is never complete, it may be more accurate to understand “leaving home” in terms of the transformation of emotional ties between young persons and their families that takes place during this period. The external aspects include moving out of the family home, becoming less dependent financially on our parents, and entering new roles and responsibilities. The internal aspects include increasing differentiation of oneself from parents and more autonomous decision making. It is this psychosocial transition, however, that is most essential for entering adulthood. Some youths may run away from an unhappy home at an early age, but take a long time before growing up emotionally. Others, mostly because of a lengthy education, may remain home well into their twenties,

choosing to achieve self-sufficiency in other ways. In both cases, it is the “symbolic” leaving home that is so crucial to attaining emotional autonomy (Atwater, 1990).

Haley (1980) points out that maladjustment at this stage often reflect problems in separating both from home and from the dynamics of the family itself. Separation troubles can take many forms, including drug addiction, delinquent behavior, emotional disturbances, and failure at school or work, paralyzing apathy, or suicide. In many instances young people have difficulty leaving home because of their parents’ unwillingness to “let go”. Such parents may complain of a young person’s problems at school or with drugs, while deriving an unconscious satisfaction from knowing they are still needed as parents. Young people themselves also experience conflicts over leaving home. On the one hand, they may feel impatient and resentful toward their parents for their attempts to control them, but they may also feel anxious about their ability to make it on their own (Atwater, 1990).

Going away to college often tips the balance of forces toward independence, and in the process improves the relationship between young people and their parents. This can be seen in a study by Kenneth and Sullivan (1980) that included 242 male students from 12 high schools in Pennsylvania, New Jersey, New York, and Massachusetts. They compared two groups of students: those who attended residential colleges and those who remained at home and commuted to school. Questionnaires completed by students and their parents at the high school and college stage included questions about affection and communication between parents and students as well as the latter’s independence. The level of the young man’s independence was well measured, first by whether his family encouraged him to make his own decisions or criticized him and tried to dictate such



things as hair style, and second by the degree to which he made decisions without their help. The results showed marked differences between the groups. Those who had gone away to college reported not only that they enjoyed better communication with their parents but also that they and their parents had more affection for each other than did students living at home (Atwater, 1990).

At the same time, a curious thing has been happening in the 1980s. Like birds flying back to the nest, more young adults are moving in with their parents after years of absence from home. The increase in “nesters”, as some social service workers call them, is partly due to there being more people this age in our society. Yet, much of the increase is the result of economic pressures of the past few years. The economy has made it difficult for young people to maintain their own apartments or homes. Many college graduates, as well as high school graduates, are having a hard time finding a suitable job. Then too, young women, often with a child or two, who find themselves recently divorced, may feel forced to return home for a while to regroup. As you might expect, there are pros and cons to such an arrangement. On the minus side, the increased food bills are sometimes incredible, though some young people must pay board to offset these expenses. Parents may find it natural to ask “Where were you last night?” forgetting their son or daughter is older now. But there are also pluses to having this additional time at home. Individuals and their parents often find this a satisfying time for sharing and strengthening their ties before a son or daughter leaves home again, usually for good (Atwater, 1990).

### *Moral Development*

Morality is conceptualized in terms of three interrelated aspects. The first component is moral reasoning: How do people think about the rules of ethical conduct? The second issue involves moral behavior: How do people behave in real-life situations where a moral principle is at stake? The third domain is moral emotion: How do individuals feel after making a moral decision and engaging in a behavior that is ethical (or unethical)? Although Kohlberg's theory of moral development focuses primarily on moral reasoning, it has some implications for how adults adjust to emotionally charged life events and how adults behave in moral contexts.

### *Age-Related Changes in Moral Reasoning*

Kohlberg's initial research led to the conclusion that individuals completed the moral stage sequence by the end of adolescence. However, longitudinal data collected by Kohlberg and Kramer (1969) showed that the adolescents who had attained post conventional morality during high school regressed to a preconventional level in their college years. Such a clear violation of the stage criterion of invariant progression forced Kohlberg and his associates to make major changes in the theory and measurement of moral development.

Using a revised and more stringent scoring system, Colby, Kohlberg, Gibbs, and Lieberman (1983) reanalyzed Kohlberg and Kramer's longitudinal data and found no evidence of regressive stage movement. Furthermore, Colby et al. (1983) analyzed the data from a 20-year longitudinal study of moral development that began in the late 1950s. A clear relationship emerges between age and moral reasoning. Over the 20-year period,

reasoning at stages 1 and 2 decreased. Stage 3 peaked in late adolescence or early adulthood and declined thereafter. Reasoning at stage 4 did not appear at all among the 10-year-olds in the study; yet it was reflected in 62 % of the judgments of the 36-year-olds in the study. Stage 5 moral reasoning did not appear until the age of 20 to 22. Furthermore, it never rose above 10% of the total number of the participants' judgments. Armon (1991) obtained similar results.

Based on these results, Kohlberg (1987) suggested that children and young adolescents reason at the preconventional level, most older adolescents and adults reason at the conventional level, and a small percentage of adults (mostly middle-aged and older) reason at the postconventional level. Therefore, it seems as if adulthood (not adolescence, as originally suggested) is marked by the ability to construct a universal set of moral principles. Kohlberg's main discovery was that moral development occurs during all epochs of the life span: childhood, adolescence, and adulthood.

#### *Gender differences*

There is some evidence of gender differences in the development of moral reasoning. Particularly during early adolescence, girls may be more advanced than boys. Carol Gilligan (1982) argues that approaches such as Kohlberg's stress the male "voice" of moral reasoning, a voice focused on "justice," rather than the female voice of reasoning, a voice focused on "care." Although not all research supports Gilligan's viewpoint, there are findings consistent with her perspective (Lerner, 2002).

Adolescent girls, more so than adolescent boys, show a care-based morality that involves caring for other people. Girls also have more personal, real-life dilemmas,

whereas boys have more impersonal ones. Girls' emotions relate to their interpersonal caring and their involvement in the problems of other significant people in their lives. Girls are more concerned about hurting others and maintaining friendships; boys are concerned more about leisure activities and avoiding trouble (Lerner, 2002).

Although not associated with Gilligan's (1982) ideas, other research does suggest gender differences in moral reasoning. From childhood through adolescence and into adulthood, women's overall prosocial moral reasoning increases more so than is the case for men. However, for both women and men there are relations among prosocial reasoning, feelings of sympathy, the cognitive ability to take another person's perspective, and prosocial behavior. The prosocial behavior of both men and women is related to having socially integrative goals, as compared to self-enhancing goals (Lerner, 2002).

There are also gender differences in ideas about punishments for violating behavioral rules. Young adolescent boys see disciplinary interventions for cheating as more acceptable than for breaking classroom rules for talking or getting more accepting of applying discipline for any infraction of rules (Lerner, 2002).

There is diversity in moral reasoning, moral behavior, and in other morality-related thoughts and feelings (e.g., perspective taking, judging rule violations, empathy, and caring) linked to variation across development and to gender (Lerner, 2002).

### *Adjustment to College Work*

The process of coping with such changes traditionally has been called adjustment. This includes the changes people make in them and in their environment in order to meet their needs, as well as the demands made upon them, and to achieve



satisfying relationship with others (Atwater, 1990).

Originally, the meaning of adjustment was borrowed from the concept of adaptation in biology. At the biological level, adaptation refers to changes in an organism that facilitate the survival of the species. Adaptation is considered successful as long as the species is able to survive, regardless of whether individual organism here and there fails to adapt (Atwater, 1990).

At the psychological level, however, adjustment refers to the individual's struggle to survive in his or her surroundings. Here, the emphasis is on the learned, functional changes—rather than on the biological ones—that we must make in order to survive. Just think of all the energy we spend on surviving in daily life—not only in meeting our creaturely needs but also in getting along with others. When given the familiar greeting “How are you?” or “How’s your learning?”, people respond with a variety of phrases such as “I am coping,” “I am trying my best to study”. When asked what they mean by such phrases, people readily admit that “life is a struggle.” The process of adjustment continues to usurp much of our energy; the labels we use to describe it change with the times (Atwater, 1990).

#### *Vocational and Educational*

The gender differentials regarding interest in and preparation for careers in mathematics, science, engineering, and information technology remain overwhelming (Galliano, 2003).

There have been persistent findings of lower performance by girls and women on standardized mathematics tests. Brain-based physiological differences were ostensibly

the reasons for women's inferior mathematics performance. However, more recent research has revealed a steady narrowing of the gender gap in math scores on standardized tests as girls take more math courses. The gender gap in math performance also disappears if different criteria are used to measure math achievement. For example, girls' course grades and classroom test grades are superior to those of boys up through high school. Furthermore, findings of gender differences in mathematics performance vary widely across cultures. For example, girls tend to demonstrate superior scores on standardized tests in nations as diverse as Finland, Hungary, and Thailand. They tend to demonstrate essentially equal performance in British Columbia (Canada), Hong Kong, Nigeria, Scotland, and Sweden, but tend to score lower than boys in France, Israel, Netherlands, Ontario (Canada), and Swaziland. A recent study of French-speaking Canadian high school students revealed that boys' negative attitudes toward mathematics increased over time, whereas girls' attitudes actually become more favorable (Galliano, 2003).

Generally, there are no gender differences in mathematics performance in elementary school, but girls begin outperforming boys in computation in grades 5-6 (10 to 12 years old). However, boys begin outperforming girls on mathematical concepts and applied word problems during this same age period. Across several societies, adolescent boys begin performing better on math achievement tests, and this advantage persists and increases from adolescence onward. Girls seem to use rules and algorithms more than boys do. As early as the first grade, girls seem to use different strategies in solving math problems. Didactic instruction on solving math problems, a less competitive classroom atmosphere, and classroom techniques requiring cooperation all result in better

mathematics performance among girls and women compared to similar boys. However, in Europe and North America, boys vastly outnumber girls in classes for the mathematically gifted, often at a ratio of 12:1. The ratio of Asian-American students in such classes (22%) far exceeds their proportion in the general population. In contrast, the ratio of African-American students is far below their proportion in the general population (at only 2%). For another insight into the complexities of group differences in mathematics achievement, consider that in one study of gifted math students, 70% of female students and 63% of male students were eldest or only children. Thus birth order is a better predictor of mathematical giftedness than is gender, but little attention is given to this fact (Galliano, 2003).

More boys have more trouble learning to read and write. They receive lower grades, are more likely to repeat a grade, and are more likely to be suspended or expelled. Boys drop out at higher rates and placed in special education classes more often. In the United States, schooling seems to fail in educating a substantial proportion of poor white and minority group boys (Galliano, 2003).

Occupational choices are also always influenced by one's personal experiences, self-perceived abilities, cultural norms, family norms and peers. In addition to these more internal factors, external realities also come into play. Popular media presentations influence overall occupational knowledge and what are considered appropriate work. Economic conditions are also powerful arbiters of occupational choice (Galliano, 2003).

According to Curry et al. (1994), today, women in industrial and postindustrial societies develop more flexible self-concepts than men do, and they imagine themselves in a broader array of life domains (school, neighborhood, work, home, family, and so on).

Although women's career aspirations have increased over the past several decades, women still experience greater self-efficacy in women-dominated fields. Boys and men remain more restrictive about appropriate work preparation and selection. Although vocational roles still remain central in men's lives, family and home responsibilities are increasingly demanding attention and consideration as men select and prepare for their occupations (Galliano, 2003).

Cook et al. (1996) examined the interplay of both internal and external factors in one particular segment of the population as well as the development of occupational aspirations and expectations among inner-city boys, from the second through the eighth grades, and found increasing occupational realism with increasing age. Occupational expectations gradually began to mirror actual ethnic and class differences in adult job holdings. These findings suggested that lower occupational expectations were strongly related to increasingly lower educational expectations. The occupational aspirations of these boys reflected and re-created the world they knew. The myth is that jobs are open to all regardless of color, class, or residence. Talents, interests, and industriousness alone are supposed to decide one's occupation. Schools and popular media support this myth by presenting ethnic models of high achievement, but actually, parental social class remains the most powerful predictor of educational and occupational aspiration. By the way, there was little support for a second popular myth—namely, that most inner-city boys aspire to be athletes and thus downplay their schoolwork. By the eighth grade, fewer than 5% of boys sought to be professional athletes. Also, contrary to the previously mentioned misidentification hypothesis, boys in this study believed that more education would pay off for them but were conscious of their seeming inability to achieve academically.



Another research, that by Wulff and Steitz (1997) exploded another commonly held notion--that collegiate aspirations are associated with greater androgyny among girls. Androgyny was evaluated in an upper-level math class where all were college-bound. A second sample was on a vocational track in a cosmetology class. These researchers found greater androgyny in the cosmetology group, whereas a more traditionally feminine orientation prevailed among the women in the math class (Galliano, 2003).

### *Curriculum and Teaching Procedure*

Why are girls and women underrepresented in mathematics, science, engineering, and computer classroom? Why do they seem to avoid or leave these domains of study even though these fields will be among the major areas of employment in the decades ahead? They are also the fields that will have great impact on people's lives in the future (Lener, 2003).

It might be comfortable to believe that stereotypes regarding gender, mathematics, science, and information technology are decreasing and that young boys and that girls now choose their educational pathways freely and without bias, but this seems far from true. For example, students in the United States, aged 9 through 13 were asked to choose a course for themselves and for students of the other gender. Boys chose significantly more math and science courses for them, and girls chose significantly fewer. When asked to select science courses for the other gender, the stereotype effect was even more powerful. Both genders saw physical science and technology courses as suitable for boys. Life sciences (biology, ecology, and so on) were the only courses judged suitable for girls (Lener, 2003).

Mathematics constitutes the critical filter that facilitates students' entry into scientific and computer studies. Several recent studies continue to document the continued stereotyping of mathematics as a male domain, even among those who are talented in this area. Thus it appears that the current generation of students is likely to carry the same stereotypes into their course and career selections, and the present relationship among gender, mathematics, science, and technology will be reproduced (Lener, 2003).

Various explanations have been offered to account for women's relatively low level of representation in these areas. Difference models claim that men and women behave differently in these domains. Deficit models claim that women and men are subject to unequal treatment within these areas (Lener, 2003).

*Foreign Research Related to the Mooney Problem Check List (MPCL)*

Emme (1993) conducted one of the earlier comprehensive studies in 1993 with 550 students to discover the areas of experience on which freshmen found difficulty in making adjustment. He isolated a list of 400 different problems which were distributed among the 19 generalized areas of experience. Emme observed that students tended to view their individual problems as being unique and significant that their perspective of the entire college situation was colored by them.

Mooney (1943), one of the originators of the MPCL, conducted a study of freshmen girls at Ohio State University. These 171 women indicated an average of 29.8 problems checked, with a range of from 3 to 108. The adjustment to college work was the most commonly indicated area of problems with personal-psychological relations, social

and recreational activities, and health and physical development following in rank order.

Tolle (1957) found that 519 St. Petersburg Junior College students reported a mean of 34.7 problems check on the MPCL who participated in the survey, and the area of Adjustment to College Work was, by far, the area of most concern. He also found that female students reported a higher number of problems than did male students.

Williams (1957) administered the MPCL to freshmen, women students taking the course at North Texas State College and also to the control group of freshmen at East Texas State College. He concluded that college freshmen recognize and will admit many of their problems but need the help of college instructors and administrators in the solution for many of them.

Hortman (1968) conducted a survey of 79 males and 62 females who were randomly selected from area junior colleges and confirmed that male and female problems were in the same three areas namely, adjustment to college work, personal-psychological relations, and social and recreational activities, but found differences in the rank order of serious problems; also, males were willing to talk over their problems with a counselor than were the females.

Lee (1970) gave the MPCL to 1,237 freshmen from different departments at the Seoul National University and found that the problem on social recreational activities and curriculum and teaching procedure showed generally high frequency than home and family. Courtship, sex and marriage were seen as having the lowest frequency throughout all the colleges.

Barria (1971) conducted a study on 350 freshmen from De La Salle University in Manila and found that adjustment to college work and personal-psychological relations

were predominant problem concern areas and that most concern problem items were having a poor background for some subjects, getting low grades, and weak in logical reasoning.

Beit-Hallahmi (1972) surveyed 583 freshmen and sophomores at Michigan State University and found that adjustment to college work received the highest number of problem check for every group.

Lee (1974) administered a survey questionnaire on 3,238 freshmen on student problems and found that there was a need for assistance among students and that they were given some help, although crudely.

Maurer (1982) conducted a study through MPCL on male and female university seniors at University of Pennsylvania, for a total of 114 university students, and revealed that women reported significantly more problems than men, and that all students expressed concern about social skills and friendship.

Singh and Goburdhum (1982) conducted a study on the problems of Indian and foreign students at Delhi university campus, on 80 Indian and foreign students. The study revealed that foreign students reported significant problems related to health and physical development, adjustment to college work, and curriculum and teaching procedure, whereas Indian students indicated more problems related to finance and living conditions, morals and religion, and the future: vocational and educational.

#### *Related Local Research*

Sopa (1973) used the MPCL to investigate the problems of college students in Mahidol University and found that all had problems in three areas: adjustment to college work, future: vocational and educational, and social and recreational activities. She found

out that students admit many of their problems but the help of college instructors and administrators was the solution for many of them.

Pranna (1982) undertook a study of the problems of 150 males and 150 females in their last year of college at Ramkhamhaeng University, and revealed that female students reported problems areas that are significantly related to health and physical development, adjustment to college work, and curriculum and teaching procedure, whereas male students indicated more problems related to finance and living conditions, morals and religion, and the future: vocational and educational plans.

Thana's (1991) study of 500 intern-teacher students in 5 regions of Thailand revealed that the major area of concern problem was in their future and occupation. Moreover the students whose hometowns are in the north region expressed the most problems. For this reason, their problems were affected by their parents' education and income which is less than in the other parts of the country.

### *Coping Styles of Students*

#### *The Concept of Coping*

Coping is primarily a psychological concept and although there are many definitions, all appear to share a basic thought--that coping is a struggle with demands, conflicts, and emotions. The Webster New World Dictionary (1984) defines coping as "1. To fight or contend successfully or on equal terms. 2. To deal with problems, troubles, etc." (p. 313). Coping is different from defense mechanisms which the same reference book defines as "...any behavior or thought process unconsciously brought into use by an



individual to protect himself against painful or anxiety-provoking feelings, impulses, perception, etc.” (p. 376). The important distinction is that coping involves some degree of thought by the individual.

Cohen and Lazarus (1979) defined coping as the action-orientated and intrapsychic efforts to manage environments and internal demands, and conflicts among them, which tax or exceed a person's resources. Later, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) revised this definition to be the constantly changing cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person. Within this definition is the inclusion of both defensive and coping strategies.

#### *Theories Related to Coping Styles*

Research on coping and the methods individuals use to deal with stressful situations has a long history. Cosway et al. (1993) believed that Freud viewed coping as an unconscious mechanism of defense.

Folkman and Lazarus reported that there are eight ways of coping when faced with a stressful situation: confrontative coping, distancing, self control, seeking social support, accepting responsibility, escape-avoidance, planful problem solving, and positive appraisal. They believed that these eight ways of coping reflected two basic styles of coping: problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping (as cited in Cosway et al., 2000)

One of the measurement tools that have been developed by this newer school of thought is the Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations (CISS), according to Endler and

Parker (as cited in Cosway et al. 2000). This instrument attempts to index the different coping strategies that people may use in stressful situations. These coping strategies are: task-oriented, in that they deal with the problem at hand; emotion-oriented, in that they concentrate on the resultant emotions (e.g. becoming angry or upset); and avoidance-oriented, in that they try to avoid the problem. Avoidance-oriented coping can be divided further into two types: distraction and social diversion.

It is possible that the factors of emotion-oriented coping and avoidance-oriented coping could at one level be related to one another and be labeled nontask-oriented coping (Cosway et al. 2000). Folkman and Lazarus (as cited in Cosway et al., 2000) proposed that coping consists of the following two dimensions: (a) emotion-focused coping and (b) problem-focused coping. Emotion-focused coping is aimed at regulating distressing emotions, whereas problem-focused coping consists of purposeful efforts aimed at solving a problem. Earlier work by Pearlin and Schooler (as cited in Cosway et al. 2000) found the following three categories for coping strategies: (a) coping strategies that are aimed at changing the situation, (b) coping strategies that are aimed at adapting the situation, and (c) coping strategies that are aimed at controlling distressing emotions.

#### *Historical Overview of Coping*

Parker and Endler (as cited in Zeidner & Endler, 1996) noted that the problem-focused coping dimension involves strategies that attempt to solve, re-conceptualize, or minimize the effects of a stressful situation. The emotion-focused coping dimension, on the other hand, includes strategies that involve self-preoccupation, fantasy, or other conscious activities related to affect regulation. The avoidance coping

dimension has been conceptualized as involving person-oriented/or task-oriented response. An individual can react to a stressful situation by seeking out other people (social diversion) or engage in a substitute task (distraction).

Coping is a stabilizing factor that can help individuals maintain psycho-social adaptation during stressful periods; it encompasses cognitive and behavioral efforts to reduce or eliminate stressful conditions and associated emotional distress (Lazarus & Folkman, as cited in Zeidner & Endler, 1996).

#### *Categories of Coping Resources*

Coping resources may either be internal or external, according to Wheaton (1980). Internal coping resources are learned individual responses due to a person's ability or effort or a combination of both. External coping resources include an individual's social support network. More specifically, there are at least five categories of coping resources:

1. *Health/Energy/Moral* - imply that a sickly, weak, despondent person would have more difficulty coping than one who is healthy, strong, and optimistic.
2. *Problem solving skills* - at both concrete and abstract levels, are important for understanding and effective intervention.
3. *Social networks* - are indicated to provide buffers and supports, because people really do need people.
4. *Utilitarian resources* - include money as well as tools and references that make life easier for those who have access to them than for those who do not.
5. *General and specific beliefs* - influence whether people think they can master

most situations or are merely victims of circumstances and include the explanations they make for occurrence of events (Folkman & Lazarus, 1979).

### *Coping Assessment*

#### *Intra-individual Coping Measures.*

According to Latack and Havlocvic (1992), intra-individual measures assess basic coping strategies or responses for responding to a specific stressful situation (e.g., broken down love, job loss, failure to pass exam). The items used with these measures assess coping activities congruent with the particular situation. Job loss and unemployment are other stressors that have generated a large number of situation-specific coping measures.

The study of the relationship between coping and health, in particular, has evolved into one of the most popular topics in the coping area (Auerbach, 1989). A variety of models have appeared that conceptualize coping as an integral part of the interaction of psychological, environmental, and biological factors influencing health and well-being (Thomae, 1987).

Aldwin (1994) has noted that three general coping and health models have tended to be utilized. The first model, used most often in the coping and health literature, assumes that coping strategies or behavior have a direct effect on specific health variables (e.g., blood pressure, rate of recovery). The second model, used less frequently in the coping literature, takes the view that coping behaviors have an indirect effect on health by creating a change in some health-related behavior (e.g., maintaining regular contact with health professionals). The third model, also used

less often in the literature, takes the view that coping strategies moderate or buffer the stress generated by a specific health problem.

#### *Situational-Specific Measures.*

The second type of measure assesses a number of basic coping strategies or responses that could be used in a variety of stressful situations. The items used with these measures assess a broad range of potential coping activities so that the scales can be used with individuals experiencing an array of different stressful situations. Respondents are usually asked to identify a recent stressful event. Both types of measures can be used on multiple occasions with the same respondents to study coping responses over the course of a specific stressful episode or similar stressful situations. Thus, researchers can obtain an indirect measure of coping processes.

The intra-individual coping measure that has had the greatest impact on the coping area is the Ways of Coping Checklist (WCC) devised by Folkman and Lazarus in 1980; this was later revised and renamed as the Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WCQ) (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988). Because the WCC and WCQ have been used to study coping in hundreds of published studies, and have also been used as models for the development of other coping measures, a few historical comments about the development of these scales needs to be made.

The WCC was a 68-item self-report measure (Yes/No format) developed to assess two basic coping strategies: problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping. In a study with 425 medical students, Vitaliano, Russo, Carr, Maiuro, and Becker (1985) factor-analyzed the WCC and found six factors. From these six factors, five interpretable coping scales were created: Problem-focused, Seeking Social Support, Blamed-self,



Avoidance, and the Wishful Thinking scales were created using a pattern of items different from scales with these names identified by Folkman and Lazarus.

Folkman and Lazarus (1985) subsequently modified the WCC by dropping some items and adding new ones. The response format was changed from a Yes/No format to a 4-point Likert frequency scale and the revised 66-item scale, now known as the Ways of Coping Questionnaire or WCQ was administered to 198 undergraduates on three separate occasions.

#### *Inter-individual Coping Measures*

During the 1980s and early 1990s, the topic of coping styles (or predispositions) has again attracted the attention of some coping researchers. The Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations (CISS) was developed by Endler and Parker in 1990 in a series of factor-analytic studies to reliably assess three basic coping styles: task-oriented coping, emotion-oriented coping, and avoidance-oriented coping. The factor structure of the CISS had been cross-validated in samples of undergraduates, normal adults, and psychiatric in-patients. Normal structures for men and women were also compared in the various samples and were found to be virtually identical (Endler & Parker, 1990).

#### *Coping Strategies about Stress between Women and Men*

How people deal with the events in their lives makes a critical difference in the amount of stress they experience, making coping strategies an essential part of the stress process. Coping is the process of changing thoughts and behaviors to manage the situation that involves a potential stressor according to Lazarus and Folkman (1984).

These management strategies vary among people and situations, and these differences may distinguish among people who feel more or less stressed.

Researchers have considered gender-related factors involved in coping with stress. Ptacek, Smith, and Zanas (1992) discussed the differences between two views of gender and coping. One view of gender differences in coping strategies concerns the socialization of men and women. This socialization view holds that the expectations for women and men differ, with women expected to react to stress emotionally and men expected to react with active, problem-solving strategies. This view predicts that men and women will react differently in similar situations, whereas the structural view holds that the major differences between men and women come from the different stressful situations the two encounter.

Folkman and Lazarus (1980) found evidence of gender differences in the experience of stress but few differences in coping strategies in a community sample of adults. Their results showed that women were more likely to report stress from health-related concerns and men were more likely to report stressful situations at work. More of the men than the women in their study were employed, so their results may have reflected situation rather than strategy differences.

The men in Folkman and Lazarus' study were likely to use problem-focused coping strategies to deal with their workplace stress, being more likely to employ cognitive efforts or take action to solve the problem that produced the stress. This tendency for men to use action-oriented techniques is consistent with the stereotypical view of men as taking action to solve problems. But Folkman and Lazarus found no difference in the frequency of emotion-focused coping efforts--cognitive and

behavioral efforts that are directed at managing or reducing emotional distress. The stereotypical view holds that women should be more likely than men to use this type of strategy, but this study failed to confirm these stereotypes. Indeed, it found that both men and women tended to use both types of strategies to manage any particular stress. Folkman and Lazarus acknowledged that the gender difference they found might not reflect a difference in strategies but a difference in situation: that is, women and men in their study did not have comparable lives.

Several studies have attempted to assess coping strategies for men and women in comparable situations. Hamilton and Fagot (1988) interviewed male and female college students over a two-month period to test for frequency and perception of stressors and use of coping strategies. Women reported more stressors, but few other gender differences emerged. Both women and men reported the same types of events as stressful and not stressful and the same strategies for dealing with each. Interestingly, the situations each judged as not stressful may have been rendered so by the use of direct, problem-focused coping techniques, which both women and men said they used in these situations. Both reported that negative interpersonal interactions were sources of stress, and both said that they did not often approach these situations with problem-solving strategies. This study showed few gender differences but did demonstrate that both men and women use similar coping strategies in similar situations.

Another study that compared men's and women's coping in similar situations measured coping strategies on the job. Fontenot and Brannon (1991) matched women and men for job experience and pay and asked them to report on stressful situations and how they coped with these situations. These researchers found few gender differences but

significant situational differences. Both women and men said that personal conflict situations were more likely to prompt emotion-focused coping and that task-related stress situations were more likely to elicit problem-focused coping strategies. This study also demonstrated that were more likely than gender to be the source of differences in coping efforts.

Ptacek et al. (1992) studied college students and also found that women reported that they found more events stressful than men, but women and men both tended to use a variety of coping methods and to use problem-focused coping more often than other strategies. Women, however, made greater use of social support as an aid to coping than did men. As detailed earlier, women are likely to be part of a network of people who provide social support for each other, so it is not surprising that they use these resources to help them deal with stress. The women in the Ptacek et al. study tended to use social support as a coping strategy for relationship stresses, but both men and women were similar in their approach to coping with school-related stress.

Both men and evaluated problem-focused coping as most effective and emotion-focused coping strategies as least effective, with seeking of social support ranked between the other two strategies as least effective. Although few gender differences appeared in the results from the Ptacek et al. study, their results indicated that women reported more stress and less control over stress than did the men in the study. Both tended to use coping strategies that could be classified as problem-focused, but women used a greater variety of coping strategies, including seeking social support. This and other studies indicated few gender differences in coping with stress but larger differences in coping related to the types of stressful situations.

Overall, these studies failed to confirm the stereotypical view of men as problem-focused and women as emotion-focused in their coping efforts. Instead, both women and men show a variety of coping techniques in that they use these to help them deal with the stresses of their lives. This body of research reiterated the greater stress felt by women but did not reveal great gender differences in coping.

Thus, gender differences in coping with stress are not the source of gender differences in stress; those differences seem to be more easily attributable to lifestyle and social circumstances. The magnitude of the gender differences in stress and coping does not account for the preponderance of women in treatment for behavior problems. Possibilities for the source of these differences lie in the criteria used and in the process of diagnosis.

### *Coping Research Studies*

#### *Related Foreign Research*

In the 1960s, a new line of research, initially related to work being conducted on defense mechanisms, began to coalesce under the “coping” label. Before this period, the word coping had been used informally in the medical social science literature (Lazarus, 1993).

The concept of coping began to acquire a technical leaning for some researchers. A number of writers began to label certain adaptive “defense mechanisms” (e.g., sublimation or humor) as “coping” activities (Alker, 1968). According to Haan (1965), coping behavior is distinguished from defensive behavior, since the latter by definition is rigid, compelled, reality-distorting, and undifferentiated, whereas, the former is flexible,



purposive, reality-oriented, and differentiated.

Although coping researchers would eventually turn their attention to studying a broad range of stressful situations, their initial preoccupation with extreme situations had the unforeseen effect of promoting the study of situational variables in coping research at the expense of person (predisposition) variables. In the older defense mechanism literature, derived from classic psychoanalytic theory, person variables were of prime importance. By focusing attention on coping activities in highly stressful situations, however, the early coping researchers inadvertently increased the likelihood that person variables would be found to be poor predictors of specific coping activities. Although individuals may have habitual coping preferences, life-threatening or extreme situations typically permit only a narrow range of possible coping responses (Moshe & Norman, 1996).

The distinction between those coping researchers who emphasize the importance of predisposition variables (traits) and those researchers who emphasize situational factors (coping as a process) has sometimes been referred to in the coping literature as the distinction between an inter-individual and an intra-individual approach to coping (Endler & Parker, 1990). The inter-individual approach to coping attempts to identify basic coping styles: habitual coping strategies used by particular individuals across different types of stressful situations. The intra-individual approach to coping, on the other hand, attempts to identify basic coping behaviors or strategies used by individuals in particular types of stressful or upsetting situations. This approach “assumes that individuals have a repertoire of coping options available to them from which they can build what they believe to be the most effective strategy, depending on the nature of the situation” (Cox

and Ferguson, 1991). Although almost an unlimited number of potential coping strategies and reactions are available to a person in a particular situation, there is the assumption that these activities can be classified into a small number of basic coping dimensions.

### *The Related Local Research*

Termask (1997) conducted a study of 1,708 first year second year diploma students, 944 males and 756 females, of Rajamangala Institute of Technology, Bangkok and found that the students' academic achievements, personalities, study habits, classroom atmosphere, and interpersonal relationships indicated direct effects on their ways of coping in academic problems; and that students' ways of coping in academic problems related with their academic achievements, study habits, and classroom atmospheres except their interpersonal relationships and their personalities.

Sodsai (1998) carried out a study of the learning, personal, and social problems as well as the coping strategies of 860 upper secondary school students under the General Education Department in Bangkok. The findings revealed that the upper school students coped with their personal and social problems by facing them, at the higher percentage, by compromising, at the lower percentage, and by withdrawal, at the lowest percentage. Further, no significant differences in coping strategies were found between male and female students.

Korapin (1999) accomplished a study of 49 first year students and 67 second year students' learning problems and ways of coping with learning problems. The subjects were nursing students of Boromajonani Napparatvajira Nursing College in Bangkok. It was found that the first year and second year students coped with their

learning problems by the confrontational style. There were significantly different ways of coping with learning problems of nursing students among class level, study habits, and instructional atmosphere; but differences were not found in the following variables: academic achievement, personality, and relationships, among class levels.



## CHAPTER III

### Research Methodology

This chapter contains a description of the methodology used in studying the problems and coping styles of non-Thai students from Asian countries in Assumption University. The research methods are detailed in sections presented in the following order: Research Design, Sample and Population, Instrument of the Study, Pilot Study, Procedure of the Study, and Statistical Treatment.

#### *Research Design*

To support the hypotheses generated, the researcher used the descriptive research design. The survey method was used to gather information directly from the respondents of the study. The correlational method was used to basically to examine the relationships between and among variables as they occurred naturally; a process that did not involve manipulation of the variables, and which, in the context of the stated problem, did not require judgment on causal relationships.

#### *Sample and Population*

The population of the study consisted of 1,898 non-Thai students from Asian countries who enrolled for the first semester of the academic year 2004 in Assumption University, Bangkok.

The sample size was determined by utilizing the random sampling method with the population through the Yamane-derived formula, as follows:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + Ne^2}$$

When e = Error of Sampling

N = Population Size

n = Sampling Size

For this study, the error of sampling was 0.05 and the population size was 1,898.

Thus, the sampling size was obtained through the following computation:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + Ne^2}$$

$$n = \frac{1898}{1 + 1898(0.05)^2}$$

$$n = 330.4$$

As a result of the given computational process, it was determined that the acceptable sample size for this type of research is at least 331 subjects.

The instrument used in the study to gather relevant data from each participant was a set of three questionnaires. Every set consisted of the following: a researcher-constructed close-ended Personal Data Questionnaire to gather the required demographic characteristics of the participants; the Mooney Problem Check List, a standardized questionnaire selected to identify the problem areas of the respondents; and the Ways of Coping Questionnaire, also a standardized survey instrument, to determine the respondents' coping styles. Each of the given questionnaires is described as follows:



### *Part I. Personal Data Questionnaire*

This instrument was devised by the researcher to collect relevant data concerning the selected demographic characteristics of the respondents. Close-ended questions were so designed as to gather information on the respondents' gender, age, nationality, and living arrangement.

### *Part II. Mooney Problem Check List (College Form) or MPCL*

The Mooney Problem Check List (MPCL), developed by Ross L. Mooney and Leonard V. Gordon, was designed to systematically discover what problems are bothering college students in eleven categories or problem areas. This questionnaire was chosen by the researcher because it was especially designed to explore both the minor and major concerns often encountered by college students. The accuracy of this instrument is dependent only, however, on the respondents' awareness of their problems and their willingness to reveal them.

The questionnaire is so arranged that when the respondent is through checking the items, the summarizing process results in a count of checks made in the following problem areas:

- I. Health and physical Development (HPD)
- II. Finances, Living Conditions, and Employment (FLE)
- III. Social and Recreational Activities (SRA)
- IV. Social-Psychological Relations (SPR)
- V. Personal-Psychological Relations (PPR)

- VI. Courtship, Sex, and Marriage (CSM)
- VII. Home and family (HF)
- VIII. Morals and Religion (MR)
- IX. Adjustment to College Work (ACW)
- X. The Future: Vocational and Educational (FVE)
- XI. Curriculum and Teaching Procedure (CTP)

*Administration.*

The MPCL is self-administering. It has 11 categories or problem areas from which 30 items are listed for each. Respondents were asked to read the list of troublesome problems they often encounter as college students, underline the problems which are of concern to them, circle the numbers in front of the items which are of most concern to them from groups of underlined phrases, and finally, make a summary interpretation of their problem. Completing the problem checklist required approximately 35 to 50 minutes. To expect honest and accurate answers from the respondents, the examiner established rapport with the students and assured them of confidentiality concerning the problems they would reveal.

*Scoring.*

The format of the checklist and arrangement of the items made it easy to count and put the score according to the appropriate category. Six groups having five items for each group totaling to 30 items were put together in one column. Two columns representing two problem areas were designed for every page except the eleventh column at the last page. The circled items were counted and the number written under the column. The underlined items and the scores were written next to the number of the circled items.

The sum of the circled items were taken with the underlined items, and recorded next to the first two scores obtained. The same procedure was done for each problem area. The total for all the areas was taken afterwards and recorded at the bottom of the first page of the questionnaire.

The criteria of the MPCL were used to classify the problems which were of “concern” and “most concern” to the respondents. The underlined items which were of “concern” to the respondent were scored 1, the circled items which were of “most concern” to the respondent were scored 2, and the skipped items of which the respondents had no concern were scored 0.

*Validity.*

The Mooney Problem Check List was built not as a test, but for checking students' problem areas. Validity by popularity was applied in this context: its acceptance by educators and counselors is unquestioned. Over a million copies of this problem checklist, from the time the revised version was published in 1950, have been used in schools and colleges throughout the United States and around the world. Furthermore, this particular problem checklist has been among the principal research tools used for collecting data of sociological, psychological and educational import to school administrators, student counselors, psychologists, and others.

*Reliability.*

If data obtained from the Mooney Problem Check List are to be used for survey purposes, there must be some assurance that they reflect concerns of the group which remain reasonably stable over a period of time. According to the MPCL Manual, evidence on this point came from two sources. The first was an unpublished study by

Gordon in which the college form of the pre-1950 revision of the problem check list was administered twice to 116 college students. The frequency with which each of the items was marked on the first administration was correlated with the frequency with which each of the same items was marked on the second administration. A correlation coefficient of .93 was found.

The second source was a study of four educational groups in which the problem check list was repeated from one to ten weeks after a first administration. The rank order of the eleven problem areas, arranged by size of mean number of problems checked in the area, remained virtually the same from one administration to the other for each of the groups. The rank order correlation coefficients varied from .90 to .98.

It can therefore be concluded that, while the problem check list must be, and was, so designed as to reflect changing situations and experiences in the individual case, they nevertheless exhibit sufficient stability to warrant general program planning on the basis of survey results.

### *Part III. The Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WCQ)*

The questionnaire used in the study is a modified version of the Ways of Coping Questionnaire devised by Folkman and Lazarus in 1985. The WCQ contains 50 coping statements reflecting a wide range of thoughts and actions that people use to deal with taxing events. The authors identified eight varieties or scales of coping, described briefly as follows:

*Confrontational Coping (Scale 1)* - describes aggressive efforts to alter the situation and suggests some degree of hostility and risk-taking.

*Distancing (Scale 2)* - describes cognitive efforts to detach oneself and to minimize the significance of the situation.

*Self-Controlling (Scale 3)* - describes efforts to regulate one's own feelings.

*Seeking Social Support (Scale 4)* - describes efforts to seek informational support, tangible support, and emotional support.

*Accepting Responsibility (Scale 5)* - acknowledges one's own role in the problem with a concomitant theme of trying to put things right.

*Escape-Avoidance (Scale 6)* - describes wishful thinking and behavioral efforts to escape or avoid the problem. Items on this scale contrast with those on the distancing scale, which suggests detachment.

*Planful Problem Solving (Scale 7)* - describes deliberate problem-focused efforts to alter the situation, coupled with an analytic approach to solving the problem.

*Positive Reappraisal (Scale 8)* - describes efforts to create positive meaning by focusing on personal growth. It also has a religious dimension.

#### *Administration*

The Ways of Coping Questionnaire asks participants to rate major events of their lives. The response format of the questionnaire was a 4-point Likert-type scale with the following indications: 0 = "not used," 1 = "used rather often," 2 = "used really often," and 3 = "used a great deal." The participants were asked to read each statement and then circle to the right of the statement to indicate how often they apply to them.

#### *Scoring*

Scores based on the given Likert-scale indications were categorized according to the eight coping scales in the following order:



Scale1 (6 items) - Nos. 2, 3, 13, 21, 26, and 37

Scale 2 (6 items) - Nos. 8, 9, 11, 16, 32, and 35

Scale 3 (7 items) - Nos. 6, 10, 27, 34, 44, 49, and 50

Scale 4 (6 items) - Nos. 4, 14, 17, 24, 33, and 36

Scale 5 (4 items) – Nos. 5, 19, 22, and 42

Scale 6 (8 items) - Nos. 7, 12, 25, 31, 38, 41, 46, and 47

Scale 7 (6 items) - Nos. 1, 20, 30, 39, 40, and 43

Scale 8 (7 items) - Nos. 15, 18, 23, 28, 29, 45, and 48

### *Validity*

The researcher had to make slight adjustments to the statements of the Ways of Coping Questionnaire to suit the context of the problem. The revised version of WCQ was validated by two experts connected with Assumption University: one from the Graduate School of Counseling Psychology and the other from the Center for Mental and Personality Development, Office of Student Affairs.

### *Reliability*

The eight coping scales had moderate alpha coefficients in the derivation sample, ranging from 0.61 to 0.79.

### *Pilot Study*

A pilot study was conducted using the set of three questionnaires. This pre-test was undertaken to test the quality and reliability of these instruments by using Cronbach's alpha coefficient. The researcher conducted the reliability test on 30 non-Thai students from Asian countries in Assumption University. These 30 students were not included in

the final sampling.

An acceptable alpha reliability coefficient should not be less than 0.60 and preferably higher than 0.70. As determined from the results of the pilot study, the reliability coefficient for the MPCL instrument was 0.894 and for the WCQ, the reliability coefficient obtained was 0.921.

#### *Procedure of the Study*

1. The researcher used two ways for distributing questionnaires: first, a number of questionnaires were distributed to students in the classroom, with the permission of the university president; and second, a number of questionnaires were also distributed to students in the campus. Those approached in and around the campus were given a simple token of appreciation. The researcher made sure that only non-Thai students from Asian countries received the questionnaires.
2. The process of distribution of the questionnaires commenced in June 2004. According to the formula of random sampling from the population, at least 331 sets of questionnaires must be accomplished for use in the study. In total, 400 questionnaires were distributed, but only 336 were considered valid. The 64 other questionnaires were excluded for different reasons: 41 were not returned and presumed lost; 13 MPCL questionnaires were not completely answered; and 10 WCQ questionnaires were, likewise, not properly completed. See Table 1 for more details.

*Table 1. Reasons for the Exclusion of Questionnaires*

Reasons	Number of Respondents	Percentage
The questionnaires were not return	41	65%
The Mooney Problem Checklist was not completed	13	20.3%
The Ways of Coping Questionnaire was not completed	10	14.7%

3. The MPCL and the WCQ questionnaires were then analyzed, scored, and interpreted according to the prescribed scoring rules. All the relevant demographic information were analyzed, tabulated, and summarized for presentation in tabular form.

#### *Statistical Treatment*

The collected data were statistically analyzed by using the following formulae:

*Mean and Standard Deviation* - to examine the distribution of the population for problems and coping styles.

*The general linear model (GLM) multivariate analysis of variance*- to determine the problems as a function of the demographic variables of gender, age, nationality, and living arrangement.

*Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient* – to determine the relationship between problems and coping styles of the targeted respondents.

## CHAPTER IV

### Presentation of the Findings

This chapter reports the results obtained through the survey questionnaires that were distributed to the non-Thai students from Asian countries in Assumption University. The findings of the study are presented in the following sequence:

1. General Demographic Characteristics
2. Problems
3. Coping Styles
4. Comparison between Problems and Demographic Data
  - 4.1 Problems and Gender
  - 4.2 Problems and Age
  - 4.3 Problems and Nationality
  - 4.4 Problems and Living Arrangement
5. Comparison between Coping Styles and Demographic Data
  - 5.1 Coping Styles and Gender
  - 5.2 Coping Styles and Age
  - 5.3 Coping Styles and Nationality
  - 5.4 Coping Styles and Living Arrangement
6. Correlation between the Problems and Coping Styles

## Section 1. General Demographic Characteristics

Table 2

*Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Demographic Variables*

Demographic Variable	N	Percentage
Gender		
Male	178	53
Female	158	47
Age		
20 years and below	54	16.1
21 – 25 years old	193	57.4
26 – 30 years old	61	18.2
31 years and above	28	8.3
Nationality		
Chinese	130	38.7
Indian	38	11.3
Myanmar	51	15.2
Others	117	34.8
Living Arrangement		
Alone	195	58.0
Relatives	12	3.6
Friends	118	35.1
Family	11	3.3
Total	336	100

Table 2 shows that out of a total of 336 respondents, there were 178 (53%) males and 158 (47%) females. For the demographic variable “age”, students of age group 21-25 years old comprised the majority (57.4%), whereas, students aged 31 and above were the least in number (8.3%). Considering the demographic variable “nationality,” 130 (38.7%) were Chinese, followed by others at 117 (34.8%); 51 (15.2%) were from Myanmar, and 38 (11.3%) were from India. And for the demographic variable “with whom do you live”,



195 (58%) responded with “alone;” while 118 (35.1%) answered “friends.”

## Section 2. Problems

Table 3

*Mean Score and Standard Deviation and Rank of the Problems*

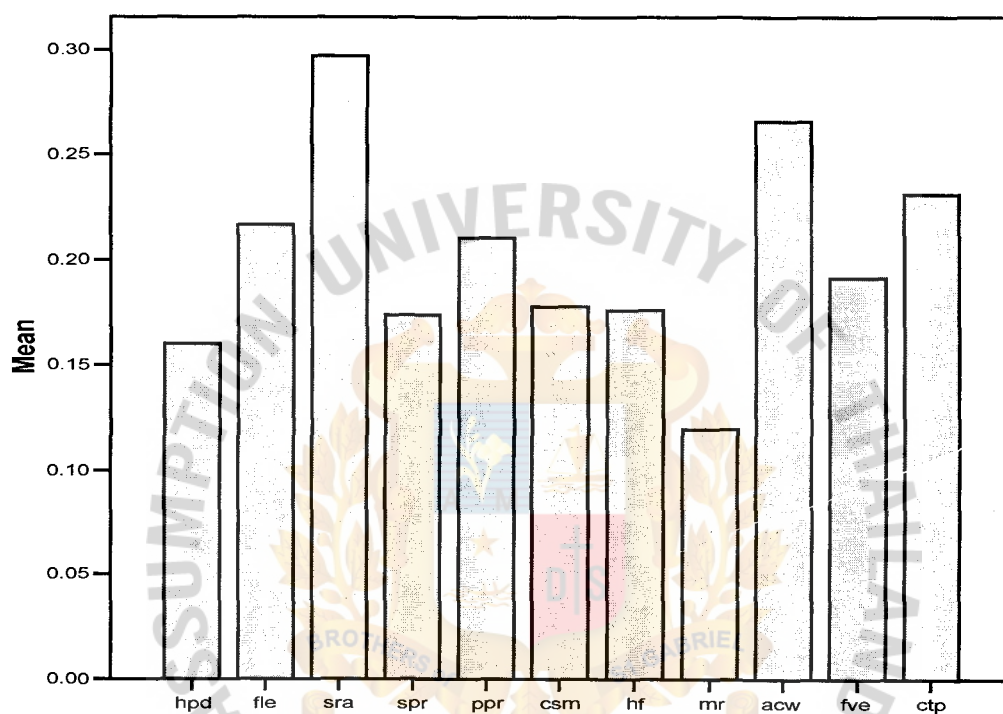
Problem Categories	N	Mean	S.D.	Rank
Health and Physical Development (HPD)	336	.1601	.11770	10
Finance, Living Condition and Employment (FLE)	336	.2168	.16427	4
Social and Recreational Activities (SRA)	336	.2972	.17434	1
Social-Psychological Relations (SPR)	336	.1740	.13696	9
Personal-Psychological Relations (PPR)	336	.2106	.16683	5
Courtship, Sex, and Marriage (CSM)	336	.1780	.09806	7
Home and Family (HF)	336	.1760	.12466	8
Morals and Religion (MR)	336	.1194	.12019	11
Adjustment to College Work (ACW)	336	.2658	.13426	2
Future Vocational and Educational (FVE)	336	.1912	.12572	6
Curriculum and Teaching Procedure (CTP)	336	.2311	.14205	3

Table 3 indicates that the Social and Recreational Activities (SRA) was the problem most experienced by the respondents, with the highest mean score of 0.2972. This was followed by Adjustment to College Work (ACW) with a mean score of 0.2658. The other problems and their means scores are as follows: Curriculum and Teaching Procedure (CTP) had a mean score of 0.2311; Finance, Living Condition and Employment (FLE) had a mean score of 0.2168; Personal-Psychological Relations (PPR) had a mean score of 0.2106; Future Vocational and Educational (FVE) had a mean score of 0.1912; Courtship, Sex, and Marriage (CSM) had a mean score of 0.1780; Home and Family had a mean score of 0.1760; Social-Psychological Relations (SPR) had a mean score of 0.1740; Health and Physical Development (HPD) had a mean score of 0.1601; Morals and

Religion (MR) had a mean score of 0.1194.

The findings are illustrated with the use of a bar graph and are presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1 Comparison of mean MPCL scores



### Section 3. Coping Styles

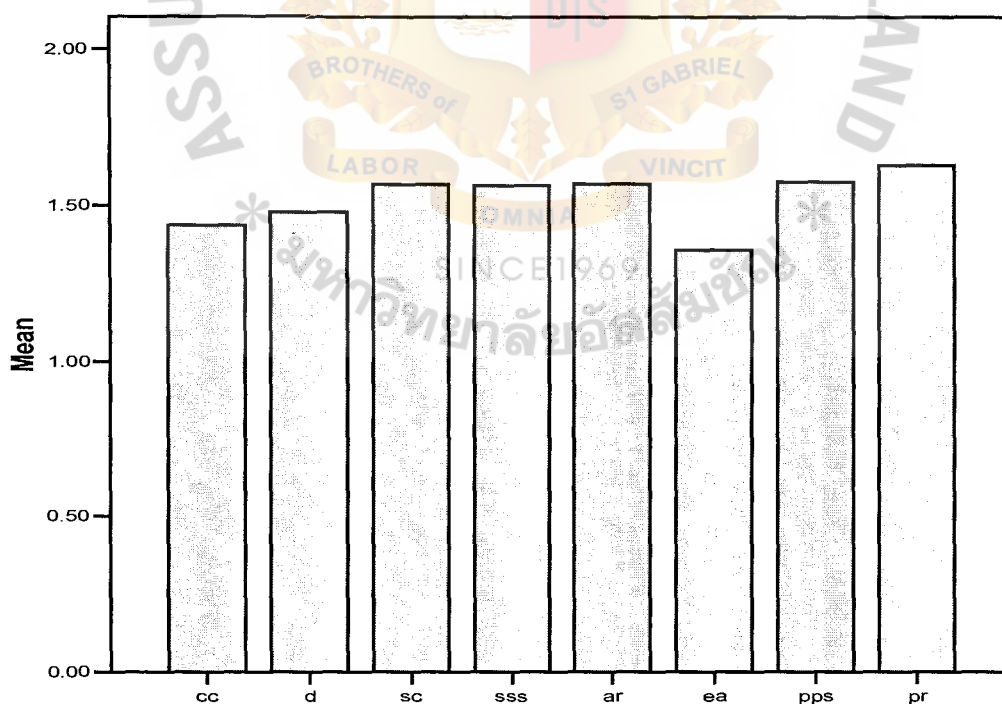
Table 4

Mean Score and Standard Deviation and Ranking of Coping Styles

Coping Scale	N	Mean	S.D.	Rank
Confrontational	336	1.4365	.45922	7
Distancing	336	1.4782	.45786	6
Self-Controlling	336	1.5668	.43643	4
Seeking Social Support	336	1.5640	.52083	5
Accepting Responsibility	336	1.5685	.44655	3
Escape-Avoidance	336	1.3568	.44846	8
Planful Problem Solving	336	1.5744	.47605	2
Positive Reappraisal	336	1.6267	.46725	1

Table 4 showed that most of the respondents used the Positive Reappraisal coping style as it generated the highest mean score of 1.6267. The second highest mean score of 1.5744 was in Planful Problem Solving followed by Accepting Responsibility with a mean score of 1.5685. The fourth most used coping style was Self-Controlling with a mean score of 1.5668; the fifth most used coping style was Seeking Social Support with a mean score of 1.5640; the sixth was Distancing with a mean score of 1.4782; the seventh was Confrontational Coping with a mean score of 1.4365; and the least used coping style turned out to be Escape- Avoidance with the lowest mean score of 1.3568. The findings were illustrated in a graph and are presented in Figure 2.

*Figure 2 Comparison of Mean WCQ Scores*



#### Section 4. Comparison between Problems and Demographic Data

Table 5

*Frequencies of MPCL Scores According to Gender*

	Gender	N	Mean	S.D.	F	Sig.
HPD	male	178	.1530	.12185	1.388	.240
	female	158	.1681	.11270		
FLE	male	178	.2307	.18667	2.742	.099
	female	158	.2011	.13351		
SRA	male	178	.2931	.19123	.214	.644
	female	158	.3019	.15357		
SPR	male	178	.1704	.14609	.260	.610
	female	158	.1781	.12623		
PPR	male	178	.2069	.19644	.184	.668
	female	158	.2148	.12588		
CSM	male	178	.1841	.09522	1.470	.226
	female	158	.1711	.10103		
HF	male	178	.1846	.13719	1.828	.177
	female	158	.1662	.10845		
MR	male	178	.1311	.12505	3.578	.059
	female	158	.1063	.11344		
ACW	male	178	.2730	.13598	1.107	.293
	female	158	.2576	.13225		
FVE	male	178	.1976	.12712	.979	.323
	female	158	.1840	.12414		
CTP	male	178	.2453	.16127	3.851	.051
	female	158	.2150	.11507		

\* Significant at 0.05 level.

Table 5 is in response to the generated alternative hypothesis that: There are significant differences in the problems of non-Thai students from Asian countries in Assumption University as a function of the demographic variable of gender.

The general linear model (GLM) multivariate analysis of variance was used to compare male and female respondents. It was found that there were no significant differences between genders on any of the problems. The null hypothesis is accepted.

Table 6

*Frequencies of MPCL Scores According to Age*

	age	N	Mean	S.D.	F	Sig.
HPD	20 and below	54	.1352	.09415	6.887	.000*
	21-25 years old	193	.1454	.11259		
	26-30 years old	61	.2066	.12778		
	31 and above	28	.2083	.13414		
FLE	20 and below	54	.1667	.12354	2.476	.061
	21-25 years old	193	.2190	.17128		
	26-30 years old	61	.2383	.14591		
	31 and above	28	.2512	.20397		
SRA	20 and below	54	.3185	.13106	.585	.625
	21-25 years old	193	.2869	.18012		
	26-30 years old	61	.3055	.17588		
	31 and above	28	.3095	.20485		
SPR	20 and below	54	.1668	.12355	.477	.062
	21-25 years old	193	.2189	.17127		
	26-30 years old	61	.2380	.14590		
	31 and above	28	.2510	.20395		
PPR	20 and below	54	.1951	.15247	.858	.463
	21-25 years old	193	.2047	.17621		
	26-30 years old	61	.2268	.13955		
	31 and above	28	.2464	.18152		
CSM	20 and below	54	.1778	.09180	3.681	.012*
	21-25 years old	193	.1699	.09221		
	26-30 years old	61	.2137	.10739		
	31 and above	28	.1560	.11333		
HF	20 and below	54	.1605	.08737	1.121	.340
	21-25 years old	193	.1758	.13208		
	26-30 years old	61	.1984	.13143		
	31 and above	28	.1583	.11605		
MR	20 and below	54	.1086	.09781	1.228	.300



	21-25 years old	193	.1140	.11634		
	26-30 years old	61	.1454	.15516		
	31 and above	28	.1214	.09350		
ACW	20 and below	54	.1640	.10361	1.201	.301
	21-25 years old	193	.1980	.12860		
	26-30 years old	61	.1970	.13779		
	31 and above	28	.1760	.11321		
FVE	20 and below	54	.1648	.10369	1.208	.307
	21-25 years old	193	.1986	.12873		
	26-30 years old	61	.1978	.13782		
	31 and above	28	.1762	.11326		
CTP	20 and below	54	.2210	.11625	.555	.645
	21-25 years old	193	.2330	.14845		
	26-30 years old	61	.2448	.15274		
	31 and above	28	.2071	.11841		

\* Significant at 0.05 level; \*\* Significant at 0.001 level.

Table 6 is in response to the generated hypothesis that: There are significant differences in the problems of non-Thai students from Asian countries in Assumption University as a function of the demographic variable of age.

The results showed no significant age differences for FLE, SRA, SPR, PPR, HF, MR, ACW, FVE, and CTP at  $P > 0.05$ ; therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted, but only in this case.

The results showed, however, that there were significant age differences for Health Physical Development (HPD) and Courtship, Sex, and Marriage (CSM). HPD:  $F(3,332) = 6.89$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; CSM  $F(3,332) = 3.68$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ; therefore, the hypothesis as regards age differences on HPD and CSM is rejected.

Moreover, by using multiple comparisons for the HPD and CSM by age of Scheffé Method, for HPD: it was found that there were significant differences between the age groups below 20 and 26-30 years old, between 21-25 years old and 26-30 years old; for CSM: there were significant differences between 21-25 years old and 26-30 years old.

Thus, the results indicated that among the age groups, below 20 engaged in significantly more HPD than 26-30 years old; 21-25 years old engaged in significantly more HPD and CSM than 26-30 years old.

Table 7

*Frequencies of MPCL Scores According to Nationality*

	nationality	N	Mean	S.D.	F	Sig.
HPD	Chinese	130	.1728	.12092	2.073	.104
	Indian	38	.1570	.11148		
	Myanmar	51	.1771	.09557		
	Others	117	.1396	.12294		
FLE	Chinese	130	.2146	.15402	.793	.498
	Indian	38	.2289	.10771		
	Myanmar	51	.2438	.12953		
	Others	117	.2034	.20016		
SRA	Chinese	130	.3190	.18096	2.501	.059
	Indian	38	.2342	.09251		
	Myanmar	51	.3072	.20702		
	Others	117	.2892	.16797		
SPR	Chinese	130	.1728	.11796	.119	.949
	Indian	38	.1711	.10659		
	Myanmar	51	.1667	.12454		
	Others	117	.1795	.16832		
PPR	Chinese	130	.2115	.14079	.339	.797
	Indian	38	.2167	.13328		
	Myanmar	51	.2275	.18302		
	Others	117	.2003	.19488		
CSM	Chinese	130	.1849	.09823	1.635	.181
	Indian	38	.1465	.08509		
	Myanmar	51	.1856	.09481		
	Others	117	.1772	.10224		
HF	Chinese	130	.1787	.11052	.463	.708
	Indian	38	.1535	.07292		
	Myanmar	51	.1784	.12144		
	Others	117	.1792	.15185		

MR	Chinese	130	.1026	.10611	2.942	.033*
	Indian	38	.1360	.09535		
	Myanmar	51	.1582	.16341		
	Others	117	.1160	.11708		
ACW	Chinese	130	.2828	.13565	1.695	.168
	Indian	38	.2421	.13986		
	Myanmar	51	.2752	.15900		
	Others	117	.2504	.11692		
FVE	Chinese	130	.2128	.11437	2.191	.089
	Indian	38	.1781	.10802		
	Myanmar	51	.1706	.10299		
	Others	117	.1803	.14805		
CTP	Chinese	130	.2300	.12269	.225	.879
	Indian	38	.2474	.12890		
	Myanmar	51	.2229	.10614		
	Others	117	.2305	.17679		

\* Significant at 0.05 level.

Table 7 is in response to the generated hypothesis that: There are significant differences in the problems of non-Thai students from Asian countries in Assumption University as a function of the demographic variable of nationality.

According to Table 7, the results showed no significant differences between nationality for HPD, FLE, SRA, SPR, PPR, CSM, HF, ACW, FVE, and CTP ( $P > 0.05$ ), therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted.

The results showed that there were significant nationality differences for Morals and Religion,  $F(3,332) = 2.94$ ,  $P < 0.05$ . Therefore, in this case, the hypothesis of nationality difference on MR is rejected.

Moreover, by using multiple comparisons for MR by nationality of Scheffe Method, there were significant differences between Chinese and Indian, between Myanmar and Chinese. Thus, the results indicated that among the levels of nationality, Chinese engaged in significantly more MR than Indian; Myanmar engaged in significantly more MR than

Chinese.

Table 8

*Frequencies of MPCL Scores According to Living Arrangement*

	Living	N	Mean	S.D.	F	Sig.
HPD	Alone	195	.1612	.11944	2.531	.057
	Relatives	12	.1556	.11040		
	Friends	118	.1503	.11446		
	Family	11	.2515	.10150		
FLE	Alone	195	.2311	.17935	2.480	.061
	Relatives	12	.1722	.11177		
	Friends	118	.1910	.14086		
	Family	11	.2879	.11951		
SRA	Alone	195	.2310	.17933	0.251	.060
	Relatives	12	.1723	.11178		
	Friends	118	.1012	.14089		
	Family	11	.2880	.11960		
SPR	Alone	195	.1713	.13738	4.021	.008**
	Relatives	12	.1556	.08800		
	Friends	118	.1675	.12865		
	Family	11	.3121	.19509		
PPR	Alone	195	.2072	.16541	17.672	.000***
	Relatives	12	.1750	.05882		
	Friends	118	.1890	.12203		
	Family	11	.5424	.30843		
CSM	Alone	195	.1757	.10161	.872	.456
	Relatives	12	.1611	.05832		
	Friends	118	.1794	.09193		
	Family	11	.2212	.12933		
HF	Alone	195	.1668	.12357	.480	.063
	Relatives	12	.2189	.17128		
	Friends	118	.2380	.14590		
	Family	11	.2510	.20395		
MR	Alone	195	.1641	.10361	.211	.301
	Relatives	12	.1982	.12860		
	Friends	118	.1977	.13778		
	Family	11	.1764	.11333		
ACW	Alone	195	.1752	.10150	.892	.402
	Relatives	12	.1600	.05820		

FVE	Friends	118	.1754	.09187	2.476	.061
	Family	11	.2108	.12873		
	Alone	195	.1667	.12354		
	Relatives	12	.2190	.17128		
CTP	Friends	118	.2383	.14591	1.208	.307
	Family	11	.2512	.20397		
	Alone	195	.1648	.10369		
	Relatives	12	.1986	.12873		
	Friends	118	.1978	.13782		
	Family	11	.1762	.11326		

\* Significant at 0.01 level; \*\* Significant at 0.001 level.

Table 8 is in response to the generated hypothesis that: There are significant differences in the problems of non-Thai students from Asian countries in Assumption University as a function of the demographic variable of living arrangement.

Table 8 showed no significant differences between living arrangement for HPD, FLE, SRA, CSM, HF, MR, ACW, FVE, and CTP ( $P > 0.05$ ). Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted in so far as these problems are concerned.

The results also showed that there were significant living arrangement differences for Social-Psychological Relations and Social-Psychological Relations (PPR). SPR:  $F(3,332)=4.02$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ; PPR:  $F(3,332)=17.67$ ,  $P < 0.001$ . Therefore, the hypothesis of living arrangement differences on SPR and PPR was rejected.

Moreover, by using multiple comparisons for SPR and PPR by living arrangement of Scheffe Method, for SPR: there were significant differences between alone and family, between friend and family; for PPR: there were significant difference between alone and family, between relatives and family, and between family and friend. Thus, the results indicated that among the levels of living arrangement, those who lived with family engaged in significantly more SPR and PPR than those who live with a friend; those with family engaged in significantly more SPR and PPR than those who live alone; and those



with their family engaged in significantly more PPR than those who live with relatives.

### Section 5. Comparison between Coping Styles and Demographic Data

Table 9

*Frequencies of WCQ Scores According to Gender*

	Gender	N	Mean	S.D.	F	Sig.
CC	Male	178	1.4850	.43262	4.265	.040*
	Female	158	1.3819	.48301		
D	Male	178	1.4775	.41412	.001	.978
	Female	158	1.4789	.50396		
SC	Male	178	1.6051	.41450	2.945	.087
	Female	158	1.5235	.45736		
SSS	Male	178	1.5412	.46892	.724	.395
	Female	158	1.5897	.57417		
AR	Male	178	1.6011	.43378	2.033	.155
	Female	158	1.5316	.45910		
EA	Male	178	1.3954	.46261	2.819	.094
	Female	158	1.3133	.42926		
PPS	Male	178	1.6124	.42281	2.416	.121
	Female	158	1.5316	.52777		
PR	Male	178	1.6461	.44304	.650	.421
	Female	158	1.6049	.49360		

\* Significant at 0.05 level.

Table 9 is in response to the generated alternative hypothesis that: There are significant differences in the coping styles of non-Thai students from Asian countries in Assumption University as a function of the demographic variable of gender.

According Table 9, the results showed no significant differences between genders for D, SC, SSS, AR, EA, PPS, and PR ( $P > 0.05$ ). Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted.

The results also showed that there were significant gender differences on Confrontational Coping,  $F(1,334) = 4.27$ ,  $P < 0.05$ . Therefore, the hypothesis of gender difference on CC is rejected.

Table 10

*Frequencies of WCQ Scores According to Age*

	Age	N	Mean	S.D.	F	Sig.
CC	20 and below	54	1.4043	.48844	1.003	.392
	21-25 years old	193	1.4724	.44107		
	26-30 years old	61	1.3661	.48191		
	31 and above	28	1.4048	.47451		
D	20 and below	54	1.6235	.47272	3.570	.014*
	21-25 years old	193	1.4836	.44991		
	26-30 years old	61	1.4071	.44982		
	31 and above	28	1.3155	.43824		
SC	20 and below	54	1.6508	.47475	2.278	.079
	21-25 years old	193	1.5329	.42533		
	26-30 years old	61	1.5316	.41823		
	31 and above	28	1.7143	.44501		
SSS	20 and below	54	1.5802	.52579	2.104	.100
	21-25 years old	193	1.5967	.51833		
	26-30 years old	61	1.4153	.51426		
	31 and above	28	1.6310	.51191		
AR	20 and below	54	1.6065	.51989	.290	.832
	21-25 years old	193	1.5725	.42380		
	26-30 years old	61	1.5328	.43893		
	31 and above	28	1.5446	.48138		
EA	20 and below	54	1.4352	.43352	1.283	.280
	21-25 years old	193	1.3562	.42261		
	26-30 years old	61	1.2746	.51022		
	31 and above	28	1.3884	.49923		
PPS	20 and below	54	1.5463	.47849	.466	.706
	21-25 years old	193	1.6002	.49246		
	26-30 years old	61	1.5273	.46066		
	31 and above	28	1.5536	.39298		
PR	20 and below	54	1.5979	.46525	.294	.830
	21-25 years old	193	1.6195	.48238		
	26-30 years old	61	1.6745	.44503		
	31 and above	28	1.6276	.42652		

\* Significant at 0.05 level;

Table 10 is in response to the generated alternative hypothesis that: There are

significant differences in the coping styles of non-Thai students from Asian countries in Assumption University as a function of the demographic variable of age.

The results showed no significant difference between age for CC, SC, SSS, AR, EA, PPS, and PR ( $P>0.05$ ). Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted in this case.

The results also showed that there were significant age differences for Distancing,  $F(3,332)=3.57$ ,  $P<0.05$ . Therefore, the hypothesis of age difference on Distancing is rejected.

Moreover, by using multiple comparisons for the Distancing by Scheffe Method, it was found that there were significant differences only between the age group below 20 and 31 and above. Thus, the results indicated that among the levels of age, 20 and below engaged in significantly more Distancing than 31 and above.

Table 11

*Frequencies of WCQ Scores According to Nationality*

	Nationality	N	Mean	S.D.	F	Sig.
CC	Chinese	130	1.4372	.48191	.797	.496
	Indian	38	1.3421	.33095		
	Myanmar	51	1.4216	.48916		
	Others	117	1.4729	.45641		
D	Chinese	130	1.5064	.46330	3.105	.027*
	Indian	38	1.4079	.46450		
	Myanmar	51	1.3235	.40745		
	Others	117	1.5370	.45806		
SC	Chinese	130	1.5736	.42875	6.779	.000***
	Indian	38	1.4098	.38758		
	Myanmar	51	1.4090	.45805		
	Others	117	1.6789	.41898		
SSS	Chinese	130	1.6090	.52447	7.066	.000***
	Indian	38	1.2807	.42111		
	Myanmar	51	1.4281	.54798		

AR	Others	117	1.6652	.49446	3.397	.018*
	Chinese	130	1.5500	.44721		
	Indian	38	1.4013	.46331		
	Myanmar	51	1.5441	.47882		
EA	Others	117	1.6538	.41111	1.429	.234
	Chinese	130	1.3577	.43434		
	Indian	38	1.2533	.42463		
	Myanmar	51	1.3088	.42965		
PPS	Others	117	1.4103	.47594	4.711	.003**
	Chinese	130	1.5628	.47289		
	Indian	38	1.3860	.51129		
	Myanmar	51	1.4935	.44964		
PR	Others	117	1.6838	.45664	2.563	.055
	Chinese	130	1.5923	.44331		
	Indian	38	1.5489	.44129		
	Myanmar	51	1.5574	.50649		
	Others	117	1.7204	.47432		

\* Significant at 0.05 level; \*\* Significant at 0.01 level; \*\*\* Significant at 0.001 level.

Table 11 is in response to the generated alternative hypothesis that: There are significant differences in the coping styles of non-Thai students from Asian countries in Assumption University as a function of the demographic variable of nationality.

The results showed no significant difference between nationality for CC, EA and PR ( $P>0.05$ ). Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted.

The results showed that there were significant nationality differences for Distancing, Self-Controlling, Seeking Social Support, Accepting Responsibility, and Planful Problem Solving, Distancing:  $F(3,332)=3.11$ ,  $P<0.05$ ; Self-Controlling:  $F(3,332)=6.78$ ,  $P<0.001$ ; Seeking Social Support:  $F(3,332)=7.07$ ,  $P<0.001$ ; Accepting Responsibility:  $F(3,332)=3.40$ ,  $P<0.05$ ; Positive Reappraisal:  $F(3,332)=4.71$ ,  $P<0.01$ . Therefore, the hypothesis of nationality differences on Distancing, SC, SSS, AR, and PR is rejected.

Moreover, by using multiple comparisons for Distancing, SC, SSS, AR, and PPS by nationality of Scheffe Method, for SC: there were significant differences between Indian

and others, between Myanmar and others; for SSS: there were significant differences between Chinese and Indian, between Indian and others; for AR: there were significant differences between Indian and others; for PPS: there were significant differences between Indian and others.

The results indicated, therefore, that among the levels of nationality, other nationalities engaged in significantly more SC, SSS, AR, PPS than Indian; Chinese engaged in significantly more SC than Indian; other nationalities engaged in significantly more SC than those from Myanmar.

Table 12

*Frequencies of WCQ Scores According to Living Arrangement*

	living	N	Mean	S.D.	F	Sig.
CC	alone	195	1.4111	.43974	.543	.653
	relatives	12	1.5278	.57662		
	friends	118	1.4647	.46576		
	family	11	1.4848	.61217		
D	alone	195	1.4547	.46814	1.100	.349
	relatives	12	1.6389	.29158		
	friends	118	1.5113	.43838		
	family	11	1.3636	.60008		
SC	alone	195	1.5216	.43300	1.927	.125
	relatives	12	1.7024	.35758		
	friends	118	1.6150	.44612		
	family	11	1.7013	.40635		
SSS	alone	195	1.5359	.51174	.643	.588
	relatives	12	1.7083	.46669		
	friends	118	1.5960	.54407		
	family	11	1.5606	.50151		
AR	alone	195	1.5340	.51170	.630	.601
	relatives	12	1.7080	.46650		
	friends	118	1.6930	.54300		
	family	11	1.5678	.50131		



EA	alone	195	1.3423	.44309	2.484	.061
	relatives	12	1.6875	.35556		
	friends	118	1.3570	.42122		
	family	11	1.2500	.75208		
PPS	alone	195	1.5590	.47693	.621	.602
	relatives	12	1.7361	.44072		
	friends	118	1.5890	.48122		
	family	11	1.5152	.46221		
PR	alone	195	1.5707	.44601	4.185	.006**
	relatives	12	1.4643	.21211		
	friends	118	1.7446	.49447		
	family	11	1.5325	.52718		

\* Significant at 0.01 level

Table 12 is in response to the generated alternative hypothesis that: There are significant differences in the coping styles of non-Thai students from Asian countries in Assumption University as a function of the demographic variable of living arrangement.

The results showed no significant differences between living arrangement for CC, D, SC, SSS, AR, EA, and PPS ( $P > 0.05$ ). Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted in this case.

The results showed that there was significant living arrangement differences for Positive Reappraisal, PR:  $F(3,332) = 4.19$ ,  $P < 0.01$ . Therefore, the hypothesis of living arrangement on PR is rejected.

Moreover, by using multiple comparisons for PR by living arrangement of Scheffe Method, for PR: there were significant differences only between friends and alone. Thus, the results indicated that among the levels of living arrangement, respondents who live with friends engaged in significantly more PR than those who live alone.

*Section 6. Correlation between the Problems and Coping Styles*

Table 13

*The Correlation between the Problems and Coping Styles*

		CC	D	SC	SSS	AR	EA	PPS	PR
<b>HPD</b>	Pearson	-.004	-.062	.044	-.025	-.081	.070	.082	.075
	Correlation								
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.937	.257	.422	.651	.139	.203	.134	.198
<b>FLE</b>	Pearson	.035	-.056	.114	.134	-.022	.033	.050	.178
	Correlation								
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.517	.302	.037*	.014*	.691	.529	.364	.001**
<b>SRA</b>	Pearson	.108	.039	.054	.125	.018	.050	.102	.076
	Correlation								
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.048*	.477	.320	.022*	.741	.358	.062	.167
<b>SPR</b>	Pearson	.066	-.025	.076	.067	.004	.119	.090	.116
	Correlation								
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.228	.645	.162	.218	.948	.029*	.099	.034*
<b>PPR</b>	Pearson	.053	-.004	.080	.054	.024	.137	.021	.088
	Correlation								
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.337	.946	.146	.327	.662	.012*	.702	.106
<b>CSM</b>	Pearson	.088	-.003	.042	-.031	.025	.114	.066	.037
	Correlation								
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.107	.957	.438	.566	.642	.036**	.229	.497
<b>HF</b>	Pearson	.124	.022	.140	.085	.010	.184	.090	.125
	Correlation								
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.023*	.686	.010*	.120	.849	.001*	.110	.022*
<b>MR</b>	Pearson	.051	.023	.088	-.011	.007	.106	.062	.058
	Correlation								
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.349	.681	.106	.842	.897	.053	.254	.291
<b>ACW</b>	Pearson	.038	.067	.019	.039	-.065	.084	.007	.002
	Correlation								
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.484	.220	.727	.473	.235	.122	.902	.965
<b>FVE</b>	Pearson	.062	.061	.139	.157	.025	.115	.139	.030
	Correlation								
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.254	.261	.011*	.004*	.642	.035*	.011*	.631
<b>CTP</b>	Pearson	.057	.050	.045	.083	.060	.075	.061	.092
	Correlation								

	Sig. (2-tailed)	.295	.364	.406	.129	.275	.158	.273	.091
--	-----------------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------

\* Significant at 0.05 level; \*\* Significant at 0.01 level

Table 13 is in response to the generated alternative hypothesis that: There are significant relationships between the problems and the coping styles of non-Thai students from Asian countries in Assumption University.

In answer to the stated hypothesis, the Pearson correlation coefficient (  $r$  ) was employed to investigate the relationship between the two variables:

1. The problems (HPD, FLE, SRA, SPR, PPR, CSM, HF, MR, ACW, FVE, CTP).
2. Coping Styles (Confrontational Coping, Distancing, Self-Controlling, Seeking Social Support, Accepting Responsibility, Escape-Avoidance, Planful Problem Solving, and Positive Reappraisal)

The specific results of the Pearson correlation analysis are as follows:

1. a) The results showed that there is a significant positive relationship between FLE and SC ( $r=0.11$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), thus, the higher the problem of FLE, the more respondents used the coping style of SC.
- b) The results showed that there is a significant positive relationship between FLE and SSS ( $r=0.13$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), thus, the higher the problem of FLE, the more respondents used the coping style of SSS.
- c) The results showed that there is a significant positive relationship between FLE and PR ( $r=0.18$ ,  $p<0.01$ ), thus, the higher the problem of FLE, the more respondents used the coping style of PR.
2. a) The results showed that there is a significant positive relationship between SRA and PR ( $r=0.11$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), thus, the higher the problem of SRA, the more respondents used the coping style of CC.
- b) The results showed that there is a significant positive relationship between SRA and SSS ( $r=0.13$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), thus, the higher the problem of SRA, the more respondents used the coping style of SSS.
3. a) The results showed that there is a significant positive relationship between SPR and EA ( $r=0.12$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), thus, the higher the problem of SPR, the more respondents used the coping style of EA.

- b) The results showed that there is a significant positive relationship between SPR and PR ( $r=0.12$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), thus, the higher the problem of SPR, the more respondents used the coping style of PR.
4. The results showed that there is a significant positive relationship between PPR and EA ( $r=0.14$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), thus, the higher the problem of PPR, the more respondents used the coping style of EA.
5. The results showed that there is a significant positive relationship between CSM and EA ( $r=0.11$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), thus, the higher the problem of CSM, the more respondents used the coping style of EA.
6. a) The results showed that there is a significant positive relationship between HF and CC ( $r=0.12$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), thus, the higher the problem of HF, the more respondents used the coping style of CC.
- b) The results showed that there is a significant positive relationship between HF and SC ( $r=0.14$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), thus, the higher the problem of HF, the more respondents used the coping style of SC.
- c) The results showed that there is a significant positive relationship between HF and EA ( $r=0.18$ ,  $p<0.01$ ), thus, the higher the problem of HF, the more respondents used the coping style of EA.
- d) The results showed that there is a significant positive relationship between HF and PR ( $r=0.13$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), thus, the higher the problem of HF, the more respondents used the coping style of PR.
7. a) The results showed that there is a significant positive relationship between FVE and SC ( $r=0.14$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), thus, the higher the problem of FVE, the more respondents used the coping style of SC.
- b) The results showed that there is a significant positive relationship between FVE and SSS ( $r=0.16$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), thus, the higher the problem of FVE, the more respondents used the coping style of SSS.
- c) The results showed that there is a significant positive relationship between FVE and EA ( $r=0.12$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), thus, the higher the problem of FVE, the more respondents used the coping style of EA.
- d) The results showed that there is a significant positive relationship between FVE

and PPS ( $r=0.14$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), thus, the higher the problem of FVE, the more respondents used the coping style of PPS.

In summary, Table 13 indicates that, with respect to the general hypothesis generated on the relationship between the problems and coping styles of the respondents, significant positive relationships were found between specific problems and coping styles as listed in the last section.

On the other hand, however, no significant relationships were found between HPD and coping styles, MR and coping styles, between ACW and coping styles, and between CTP and coping styles.





## CHAPTER V

### Conclusion and Recommendations

This study focused on the problems and coping styles of non-Thai students from Asian countries in Assumption University. The researcher conducted the study to determine if there are significant differences in the problems and coping styles of the participants as a function of their selected demographic variables, namely, gender, age, nationality, and living arrangement. It was also within the context of the stated problem to determine if there are significant relationships between the problems and the coping styles of the subjects of the study.

This chapter is divided into the following sections:

1. Overview of the Study
  - 1.1. Purpose of the Study
  - 1.2. Research Design
  - 1.3. Sampling Procedure
  - 1.4. Research Instrument
2. Summary of the Findings
3. Discussion of the Findings
4. Conclusion
5. Recommendations

## *Overview of the Study*

### *Purpose of the Study*

The study was conducted for the following purposes: first, to examine the problems and coping styles of non-Thai students from Asian countries in Assumption University ABAC; second, to determine the differences between problems as well as between coping styles in relation to the selected demographic variables, namely, gender, age, nationality, and living arrangement; and third, to discover the relationships between the problems and the coping styles of these students.

### *Research Design*

To support the hypotheses generated for testing in the study, the researcher used the descriptive research design. The survey method was used to gather information directly from the respondents of the study. The correlational method was used to look at the relationships between and among variables as they occurred naturally; a process that did not involve manipulation of the variables, and which, in the context of the stated problem, did not require judgment on causal relationships.

### *Sampling Procedure*

The purposive sampling technique was employed in the study. The population of the study consisted of 1,898 non-Thai students from Asian countries who enrolled for the first semester of the academic year 2004 in Assumption University, Bangkok. It was determined that the sample size should not be less than 331 participants. To secure the required number of respondents, 400 questionnaires were distributed. After inspection of

the completed papers, the researcher set the number of valid questionnaires at 336, for data analysis. Hence, the study involved the participation of 336 subjects.

### *Research Instrument*

The instrument used in the study to gather relevant data from each participant was a set of three questionnaires. Every set consisted of: a researcher-constructed close-ended Personal Data Questionnaire to gather the required demographic characteristics of the participants; the Mooney Problem Check List (MPCL), a standardized questionnaire selected to identify the problem areas of the respondents; and the Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WCQ), also a standardized survey instrument, to determine the respondents' coping styles.

### *Summary of the Findings*

The findings of the study were based on the tabular data and their accompaniment textual interpretation presented earlier in Chapter IV. These findings are summarized as follows:

1. It was found that Social and Recreational Activities (SRA) was the top problem of non-Thai students from Asian countries in Assumption University; on the other hand, their least personal problem area turned out to be Morals and Religion (MR).
2. Findings on the coping styles indicated that Positive Reappraisal (PR) was the top coping style of the respondents; Escape-Avoidance (EA), in contrast, was the least employed.
3. No significant differences were found between the problem areas of Finance, Living

Condition and Employment (FLE), Social and Recreational Activities (SRA), Social-Psychological Relations (SPR), Personal-Psychological Relations (PPR), Home and Family (HF), Morals and Religion (MR), Adjustment to College Work (ACW), Future Vocational and Educational (FVE), and Curriculum and Teaching Procedure (CTP) and the demographic variable “age.” However, there were significant differences between the Health and Physical Development (HPD) and Courtship, Sex, and Marriage (CSM) and “age” at 0.05 level of significance.

4. There were no significant differences found between HPD, FLE, SRA, SPR, PPR, CSM, HF, ACW, FVE, and CTP problem areas and the demographic variable “nationality.” However, a significant difference was found between the problem area MR and “nationality” at 0.05 level of significance.
5. Results show that there were no significant differences between HPD, FLE, SRA, PPR, CSM, HF, MR, ACW, FVE, and CTP problem areas and the demographic variable “living arrangement”. However, there was a significant difference between SPR and PPR problems areas and the demographic variable “living arrangement” at 0.05 level of significance.
6. No significant differences were found between Confrontational Coping (CC), Self-Controlling (SC), Seeking Social Support (SSS), Accepting Responsibility (AR), Escape-Avoidance (EA), Planful Problem Solving (PPS), and Positive Reappraisal (PR) coping styles and the demographic variable “age.” However, a significant difference was found between the Distancing (D) coping style and the characteristic “age” at 0.05 level of significance.
7. No significant differences were found between CC, EA, and PR coping styles and the

demographic variable “nationality.” However, significant differences were found between the D, SC, SSS, AR, and PPS coping styles and the characteristic “nationality” at 0.05 level of significance.

8. Results show that there were no significant differences between CC, D, SC, SSS, AR, EA, and PPS coping styles and the variable “living arrangement.” However, a significant difference was found between the PR coping style and “living arrangement” at 0.05 level of significance.
9. And finally, it was found that no significant relationships existed between the following problem areas: HPD, ACW, MR, CTP and any coping style. In contrast, however, it was found that significant relationships did exist between the following problem areas and coping styles: FLE and the coping styles SC, SSS, and PR; problem area SRA and the coping styles CC and SSS; SPR problem and the coping styles EA and PR; PPR and EA; CSM and EA; HF and the coping styles CC, SC, EA, and PR; and between the problem area FVE and the following coping styles: SC, SSS, EA, and PPS at the 0.05 level of significance.

### *Discussion of the Findings*

The discussions of the findings are presented in the same order as the summary of the findings found in the previous section.

1. The finding that Social and Recreational Activities (SRA) was the top personal problem of the subjects of the study is in agreement with the finding of Robert (1994) who revealed that international students are most concerned about social life,



adjusting to a new environment, leaving family for the first time, financial stress, loneliness, and homesickness, amongst others. Students appear to need to seek the right mix of social and recreational activities to help stifle their initial difficulties in a foreign environment. The researcher believes that the problem of Morals and Religion was the least of the students' worries because, being mostly Chinese, the respondents were predominantly atheists.

2. The finding that Positive Reappraisal was the most availed of coping style is supported by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) who asserted that "the Positive Reappraisal model maintains that constraints on coping options and resources are to some extent self-imposed because of individuals' construct of their situation." Positive Reappraisal emphasizes personal growth; in this context, it can be said that foreign students tend to create positive meaning by focusing on their personal growth when faced with difficulties.

3. According to findings of the study, there was a significant difference between the problem of Health and Physical Development (HPD) and the demographic variable "age." Beyond the influences of the behavioral choices made by adolescents, pubertal changes can also impact adolescent health. Variations in the rate of bodily changes in adolescence can be sufficiently extreme to affect the health of the young person. As a consequence of pubertal change, variations in height, weight, and muscle and fat distributions arise and adolescents often become preoccupied with their own bodies (Lerner, 2002).

According to finding of the study, there was a significant difference between the problem area of Courtship, Sex, and Marriage (CSM) and the variable "age."

The adolescent's hormonal balance changes throughout this period. The genitals develop to their nearly adult form. Both males and females begin to experience new feelings, including new bodily functions such as menstruation for females and ejaculation of seminal fluid for males. Perhaps more important than these physical changes are the social and psychological changes that accompany adolescence (Lerner, 2002).

Researchers address these questions and explain why sexuality and dating are some of the greatest concerns of adolescents and of the adults who worry about them. Given the importance attached to sexuality, and the dangers ranging from sexual abuse and violence, exploitation, disease, and unwanted pregnancy and childbirth, it is obvious why there is so much concern about adolescent sexuality (Lerner, 2002).

4. According to finding of the study, there was a significant difference between the Moral and Religion and nationality. Kohlberg (1981) described six stages of moral development in which children and adults are able to make several types of moral judgments. In brief, people go from lower stages of reasoning, where they prefer to avoid punishment for wrongdoing, to the higher stages, where they choose social contract and then universal principles to guide moral actions. An interesting cross-cultural examination of Kohlberg's theory was conducted by Ma and Cheung (1996), who compared moral judgment of more than 1000 Hong Kong Chinese, English, and American college and high school students. It was found that Chinese tend to emphasize the importance of the stage 3 judgments and considered stage 4 judgments as more similar to stage 5 and 6 judgments. The English and American subjects tended to regard stage 4 judgments as more similar to stage 2 or 3 judgments.

The authors argue that moral judgments of the Chinese person are reinforced by traditional norms and regulated by conformity to primary groups. Chinese see issues, such as concerns for social order, consensus, and abiding by the law, from a collectivist perspective. On the contrary, western people are concerned primarily with individual rights and their interest being protected by the law. In the west, people easily sue each other because the law mediates interpersonal relationship. Chinese tend not to resolve their conflicts in legal institutions. They prefer instead to resolve their conflict by using interpersonal contacts (Shiraev, 2004).

5. According to findings of the study, there were significant differences between the Social-Psychological Relations (SPR), Personal-Psychological Relations (PPR) and the demographic variable “living arrangement.”

*Living with yourself.* Increased understanding of oneself is the first major step in achieving a psychologically healthy personality. A person lacking self-understanding is like a ship without a rudder, doomed to go wherever the wind blows or wherever the currents flow; self-understanding provides us with the means of giving direction to our lives. Self-understanding consists not only of knowing what we are like, but also of grasping what we are capable of becoming. Of course, no one can know all about himself. In fact, if we were to know all about ourselves, life would be a terrible bore. The words are “discover and uncover.” We work to discover more and more about ourselves and to uncover, and then use, our potentialities. Such exploring can be tremendously rewarding and exciting, particularly because of what it suggests of man (Lugo, 1976).

*Living with others.* Self-understanding requires involvement with other people,

because self-understanding begins, grows, and is reaffirmed in our daily contacts with other people. Therefore, understanding others is essential for understanding ourselves. To begin to understand other people in healthy ways, we must be capable of reasonable basic trust in others. By basic trust we mean that we believe in the honesty and integrity of other persons from the moment that we meet them until there is sufficient evidence to believe otherwise. People tend to reveal themselves as they really are only in situations in which they feel accepted and wanted. This is why psychologists who want to understand people make such definite efforts to make them feel accepted and wanted. However, the positive results of maintaining trust in others can be seen in everyday life. Children who feel trusted and wanted tend to behave in such ways as to prove to others that they can be trusted and wanted (Lugo, 1976).

*Living with your family.* All of the research seems to indicate that the mentally healthy person tends to experience a good family relationship. It seems clear that the family that helped produce the unusually mentally healthy person is probably very unusual also. As Combs and Snygg (1990) suggest, because a positive self-concept is a prerequisite to becoming a mentally healthy person, it is the family that respects the child and treats him with dignity that will tend to produce more of these people. Therefore, the family that can tolerate uniqueness and respect each member will tend to be the family in which each person grows toward self-fulfillment. As mentioned earlier, trust in each other will also allow each the freedom to be what he can become. Children from healthy families produce healthy children in their own families who, in turn, raise healthy children in theirs (Jugo, 1976).

*Living with society.* Mentally healthy persons tend to relate very well on a one-to-one basis with others. Perhaps the most important characteristic related to these questions is the fact that such people tend to have a basically democratic character structure. That is, they tend to relate well with people regardless of race or socioeconomic grouping. They respect the integrity of the individual in a group. Therefore, they tend to be able to participate in group life with a firm belief in the principles of the democratic tradition-equal representation and discussion of all sides of an issue and a respect for majority rule (Jugo, 1976).

6. According to findings of the study, there was a significant difference between Distancing (D) and “age.” Steinberg (1981, 1988) found that increases in pubertal maturation were associated with different changes in “emotional distance” (that is, increased conflict and decreased closeness) between sons and their parents depending on the sex of the parent. Increased maturation in boys was deference toward their fathers, with an increase in the tendency for boys to interruptions of and more deference toward their fathers, with an increase in the tendency for boys to interrupt their mothers during conversations and with a decrease in deference to their mothers (Lerner, 2004).

Despite such implications of pubertal maturation on adolescent-parent relationships, Grotevant (1998) notes that the relationship between the biological changes of adolescence and the relationships of youth with their parents often involves quite contradictory behaviors. Grotevant notes that there are both distancing from parents and a tendency for youth to use their parents as a “buffer” (as a source of support and protection) against some of the potential social pressures that may be



linked to looking and feeling more physically mature (Lerner, 2004).

7. According to the findings of the study, there were significant differences between the coping styles of Distancing, Self-Controlling, Seeking Social Support, Accepting Responsibility, and Planful Problem Solving and “nationality.” Kaplan (1970) examined problem-solving approaches and patterns of thought in more mainstream cultures. He concluded that different languages have different rhetorical norms, representing different ways of organizing. Specifically, English-Speaking persons from the United States tend to be more linear and direct than do Semitic, Asian, Romance, or Russian speakers. The Semitic individuals solved problems using a combination of tangential and semi-direct approaches. Asians employed a circular approach. Romance cultures used a more consistently circuitous approach, and Russians employed a combination of direct and circuitous approaches. Though current researchers assert that his seminal article on “contrasting rhetoric” took an over-simplistic approach to cultural differences, there is basis for continued dialogue about difference in problem solving and organizing information (Samovar, 1997). Self-control is not an innate characteristic; it is learned. Since experiences in the social environment influence this development, individuals of the same age may demonstrate different levels of self-control (Savage, 1991).

8. According to findings of the study, there was a significant difference between Positive Reappraisal and “living arrangement.” Usually we live happier with people with whom we have shared common experience. Shared experiences permit us to know the “why” of behavior (Jugo, 1976). In another words, we had a chance to talk with your roommates when you met the problems, you may get some new

experiences to cope with your problems.

9. From results of the study, it was found that students who face the problem of Finance, Living Conditions and Employment (FLE) mostly used Self-Controlling, Seeking Social Support, and Positive Reappraisal to cope with their problems. Some students use Self-Controlling to cope with the problems in order not to let other people know their own problems; they hope these problems to be solved by themselves. Some students use Seeking Social Support to cope with the problems in order to get other people's help. Others use Positive Reappraisal to cope with the problems in order to create positive way to solve their problems, for example, they want to find part-time jobs to help pay for their tuition fees.

Students who encountered Social and Recreational Activities (SRA) mostly adopted ways of Confrontational Coping and Seeking Social Support to cope with their problems. Some students use Confrontational Coping to cope with the problem, because these students were mostly in adolescence and as young adults, their thinking is not mature their behavior more aggressive. Foreign students who live in Thailand, likely have no closed friends, no parents, no relatives; their life is simple and probably boring on the weekend, so they would resort to all sorts of things to relax. Others had a kind of positive attitude to cope with this problem; hence, they would take part in some form of social activity.

From result of finding, most students who face Social-Psychological Relations problems mostly use Escape-Avoidance and Positive Reappraisal to cope with their problems. Some students use Escape-Avoidance to cope with their problem it is obviously convenient for them to avoid people or situations when they felt their

“feelings” were too easily hurt. Others adopt Positive Reappraisal to cope with the problem if they have the positive attitude to find out new ways to face a difficult environment.

Most students who meet Personal-Psychological Relations (PPR) problems mostly use Escape-Avoidance to cope with their problems. Again, this may be because escaping or avoiding problems may be perceived as convenient and this may have become a habitual reaction to difficult situations.

In the same context of escape and avoidance being perceived as a convenient way out, most students who encounter Courtship, Sex, and Marriage problems are bound to react in the first instance by using Escape-Avoidance to cope with difficult situations.

Most students with Home and Family problems mostly use Confrontational Coping, Self-Controlling, Escape-Avoidance, and Positive Reappraisal to cope with this problem. Seeing that home and family problems are fundamental challenges that need to be dealt with as a natural course, students may find it necessary to deal with this problem in a variety of ways.

Most students who face problems concerning the Future: Vocational and Educational, mostly use the coping styles of Self-Controlling, Seeking Social Support, Escape-Avoidance, and Planful Problem Solving. Facing the unknown can be very daunting to young people, especially if the problem concerns education and vocation. Being inexperienced in dealing with big life problems such as career development strategies would necessitate the use of a variety of coping styles, probably with a view to discovering the best way, as they go through the rites of passage in their life.

### *Conclusion*

Based on the findings, as well as in response to the stated problems of the study, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. The researcher concludes that the foremost problem of non-Thai students from Asian countries in Assumption University is Social and Recreational Activities (SRA), which basically indicates that these students were most concerned with matters such as not having enough skills in sports and social activities, not having the chance to pursue a hobby, and not having enough time for recreation.

With respect to coping styles, the researcher concludes that the respondents' foremost way of coping with problems is Positive Reappraisal. This means that the non-Thai students from Asian countries, when faced with difficulties or challenges, tended to focus on personal growth by ascribing positive meaning to their situation rather than taking a pessimistic stance as their first reaction.

2. The second conclusion this researcher has drawn is that there are a number of significant differences among problems as well as among coping styles as a function of the selected demographic variables. This basically means that, despite the fact that the students were all non-Thai from Asian countries, they still manifested individual and group differences in relation to how they perceive problems and how they coped with these problems. The findings of the study gave clear evidence of these differences. For example, with regard to the problem area of health and physical development, younger students differed

from older ones in their degree of concern towards their appearance, general health, and not getting enough sleep and exercise. As to differences in coping style, there are distinct dissimilarities between nationalities. For instance, the Chinese students engaged in more profound self-control or self-regulation of feelings and emotions than the Indian students.

3. Finally, the researcher concludes that as far as the matter of relationship between the students' problems and their coping styles is concerned, specific relationships varied in nature and degree. This means that certain relationships were found to be significantly positive in varying degrees, some were negative and in differing levels; in some cases, however, no significant relationship existed. For example, in the case of coping with financial problems, a significant positive relationship was established. The researcher therefore concludes, in this particular case, that the greater the financial problem of non-Thai students from Asian countries in Assumption University, the more they sought the company and moral support of their close circle of friends.

#### *Recommendations*

Based on the conclusions of the study, the following recommendations are offered:

Recommendations for the University Administrators and Counselors:

The findings of this study on the personal problems and coping styles of foreign students should serve as a guide for the university counselor in understanding and accepting the specific problems of this type of students and guide them in solving their problems more efficiently and effectively toward personal growth.



Students who find Social and Recreational Activities as a major issue should be provided with more facilities and amenities, such as initiating more accessible social clubs, sports facilities and out-of-town sightseeing trips, which the foreign students can conveniently avail of. Through student campaigns and cultural activities, foreign students may expand their social network and, in the process, feel less lonely and more accepted.

#### Recommendations for the Foreign Student:

Knowing in advance what difficulties to expect when they first arrive in the new school environment, as highlighted in this study, foreign students would get a headstart on how to deal with such problems if and when they arise. In this way, there would be less trauma and, instead, more optimistic action planning on how best to deal with difficulties. Knowing also that there are, in fact, a variety of ways of coping to avail of, the foreign student would be in a better position to choose the most appropriate coping mechanism they feel comfortable with.

#### Recommendations for Further Related Studies:

1. Alternatively, a similar study may be conducted on the problems and coping styles of non- Thai faculty members or visiting international lecturers in Assumption University.
2. Furthermore, researchers interested in the same major variables of this study may wish to conduct a comparative analysis of the problems and coping styles of Thai and non-Thai students.
3. Experimental studies might be considered in investigating the effect of early

participation in social and recreational activities (and/or immediate cultural immersion programs) on the foreign student's academic achievement (and/or level of life satisfaction).



## REFERENCES

### *Books*

- Alker, H.A. (1968). *Coping defense and socially desirable response*. *Psychological Reports*, 22. pp. 985-988.
- Atdwin, C. (1994). *Stress, Coping and Development: An Integrative Perspective*. New York: Guilford.
- Atwaer, E. (4rd. ed). (1990). *Psychology of Adjustment, personal growth in a changing world*. pp.7, 361-363.
- Crowl, T. (1997). *Educational Psychology, windows on teaching*. pp.113, 128, 163.
- Cohen, F & Lazarus, R.S. (1979). *Coping with the stresses of illness*. In G.C. stone, F. Cohen, N.E. Adler, & Associates (Eds), *Health Psychology- A Handbook: Theories, Applications, and Challenges of a Psychological Approach to the Health Care System*. pp. 218-254.
- Cox, T. & Ferguson, E. (1991). *Individual differences, stress and coping*. In C.L. Cooper & Payne, R. *Personality and Stress: Individual Differences in the Stress*. Chichester, UK: Wiley.
- David, M. & Robert, H. (1997). *International Students Life: Oversea Students in Higher Education*. New York: Routledge.
- Emme, E.E (1993). *The adjustment Problems of College Freshmen*, Nashuille, Tennesse, Cohenberry Press.
- Endler, N.S & Parker, J.D. (1990). *Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations Manual (CISS)*. Multi-Health Systems, Inc: Canada.
- Galliano, G. (2003). *Gender*. pp.164-165, 191, 192, 194, 196, 199, 200.

Hogarth, C.P. (1987). *Quality Control in Higher Education*. University Press of America.

Kleinman. & Maxim.P. (Eds.), *Models for clinical Pathology*. NY: Spectrum. pp.177-214.

Lazarus, R.S. & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal, and coping*. New York: Springer.

Lazarus, R.S (1981). *The stress and coping Paradigm*. Inc. Eisdorfer; D. Cohen; A.

Lee, K. (1970). A Study on the Mooney Problem Checklist. *Research Review*. (Seoul: Student Guidance Center in SUN, 1970)

Lerner, R. M. (2002). *Adolescence*. pp.70, 71, 74-75, 76, 112-113, 188-190, 191, 194, 196,199, 200, 230.

Lugo, J.O. & Hershey, G. (2rd. ed). (1976). *Living Psychology*. New York 10022. pp. 40, 40-41, 42, 44, 443.

Maurer, J.F. (1982). Report Stress of College Seniors as a function of gender and sex role orientation. *Paper Presented at the 53<sup>rd</sup> Annual Meeting of the Eastern Psychological Association*, April 1, 1982, Baltimore, Maryland.

Moony, R.L. (1943). *The Personal Preblems of Freshmen Girl*. Journal of Higher Education, XIV (February, 1943), pp. 84-89.

Moshe, Z. & Endler, N.S. (1996). *Handbook of Coping: Theory, Applications*. New York: John Willey & Sons inc.

Rathus, S.A. (8rd. ed). (2002). *Psychology*. pp. 370-371, 371-372.

Reber, A.S. & Reber, E.S. (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). (2001).*The penguin dictionary of psychology*.London: Penguin Books. pp. 157, 566.

- Shaffer, D.R. (6rd ed). (2002). *Developmental Psychology*. pp.162.
- Savage, T.V. (1991). *Discipline for Self-Control*. pp. 7.
- Samovar, L. A. & Porter, R. E. (8rd. ed). (1997). *Intercultural Communication*. pp. 195.
- Shirayev, E. & Levy, D. (2rd. ed). (2004). *Cross-Cultural Psychology*. pp. 219, 220.
- Singh & Goburdham, M. (1982). *A Comparative Study of the Problem of Indian and Foreign Students*.
- Vitaliano, P.P. & Russo, J. & Carr, J.E. & Maiuro, R.D.& Beacker, J. (1985). The Ways of Coping Checklist: Revision and Psychometric Properties. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*. pp. 20, 3-26.
- Woolfolk, A.E. (5rd ed.). (1993). *Educational Psychology*. pp. 167-168, 290-293.
- Zeidner, M. & Endler. N.S. (1996): *Handbook of coping: Theory, research, applications*. New York: John Wiley & Son, Inc.
- Journals:*
- Cosway, R., Endler, N.S., Sadler, A.J., & Deary, I.J. (2000). *The coping Inventory for Stressful Situations: Factorial structure and associations with personality traits and psychological health*. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Research*. pp. 2, 5, 121-143.
- Endler, N.S., & Parker, J.D.A. (1990). *Multidimensional assessment of coping*. A critical evaluation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. pp. 58, 844-854.
- Folkman, S. & Lazarus, R.S. (1980). *An analysis of coping in a middle-aged community sample*. *Journal of Health Social Behavior*. pp. 21, 219-239.
- Haan, N. (1965). Coping and Defense mechanisms related to personality inventories.



Journal of Consulting Psychology, 29. pp. 373-378.

Latack, J.C. & Havlovic, S.J. (1992). *Coping with job stress: A conceptual evaluation framework for coping measures*. Journal of organizational Behavior. pp. 13, 479-508.

Thomae, H. (1987). *Conceptualizations of responses to stress*. European Journal of Personality. pp. 1, 171-192.

Wheaton, B. (1980). *The Sociogenesis of psychological disorder: An Attributional theory*. Journal of Health and Social Behavior. pp. 100-124.

#### *Thesis and Projects*

Kamolwan, R. (2001). *Perceived Problems and Coping Styles of First Year International Students at Assumption University*. Unpublished Master Project, Assumption University.

Koraphin, W. (1999). *Learning Problems and Ways of Coping with Learning Problems of Nursing Students of Boromrajonani Nopparatvjira Nursing College in Bangkok*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Srinakharinwirot University.

Prana, M. (1982). *The Problem of College Students in Ramkhamhang University*. Unpublished Master's Thesis. Kasertsart University.

Sodsai, N. (1998). *A Study of Learning, Personal and Social Problems and Coping Strategies of Secondary School Students under the General Educational Department in Bangkok*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Srinakharinwirot University.

Sopa, S. (1973). *The Problem of the College Students in Mathidal University*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Mahidol University.

Tolle, D.J. (1957). *Identification of Troublesome Problems Affecting St. Petersburg*

*Junior College Students, with Implication for Guidance Program Improvement.*

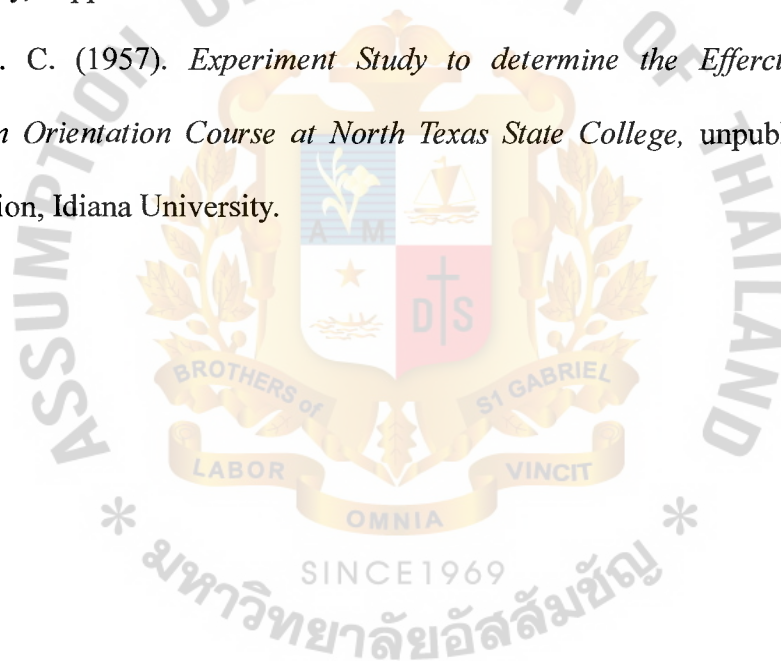
Unpublished Dissertation, Florida State University.

Termsak, K. (1997). *Variables Related to Academic Problems and Ways pf Coping in Academic of the Diploma Students of Rajamangala Institute of Technology Bangkok Technical Campus.* Unpublished Master's Thesis. Srinakharinwirot University.

Thana, P. (1991). *The comparison of Problems among the Inter-Teacher Students in 5 Regions.* Unpublished Master's Thesis. Khon-Kern University, Khon-Kern, Thailand.

Thomae, H. (1987). Conceptualizations of responses to stress. *European Journal of Personality*, 1. pp. 171-192.

Williams. C. (1957). *Experiment Study to determine the Efferctiveness of the Freshmen Orientation Course at North Texas State College,* unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Idiana University.



## Appendix A

Dear students:

The following questionnaires have been designed to collect data for a research on problems and coping styles of foreign students studying in Assumption University. Your cooperation by filling in these questionnaires will enable to study the problems facing foreign students in this university and will provide data for the administration to provide better service. All information given below will remain anonymous and confidential.

### **Part I**

#### **PERSONAL DATA**

##### **a) Gender**

\_\_\_\_\_ Male

\_\_\_\_\_ Female

##### **b) Age**

1) \_\_\_\_\_ below 20 and 20

2) \_\_\_\_\_ 21-25 years old

3) \_\_\_\_\_ 26-30 years old

4) \_\_\_\_\_ 31 and above 31

##### **3. Nationality**

\_\_\_\_\_ Chinese

\_\_\_\_\_ Indian

\_\_\_\_\_ Myanmar

\_\_\_\_\_ others (from where)

##### **4. With whom do you stay?**

\_\_\_\_\_ Alone

\_\_\_\_\_ Relative(s)

\_\_\_\_\_ Friend(s)

\_\_\_\_\_ Family

## Part II

### **MOONEY PROBLEM CHECK LIST**

**(1950 Revision – College Form)**

#### **Directions**

This is not a test. It is a list of troublesome problems which often face students in college – problems of health, money, social life, relations with people, religion, studying, selecting courses, and the like. You are to go through the list, pick out the particular problems which are of concern to you, indicate those which are of most concern, and make a summary interpretation on your own words. More specifically, you are to take these three steps.

*First Step:* Read the list slowly, pause at each item, and if it suggests something which is troubling you, underline it, thus “34. Sickness in the family.” Go through the whole list, underlining the items which suggest troubles (difficulties, worries) of concern to you.

*Second Step:* After completing the first step, look back over the items you have underlined and circle the numbers in front of the items which are of most concern to you. thus,

“34. Sickness in the family.”

2. Being underweight
3. Being overweight
4. Not getting enough exercise
5. Not getting enough sleep
6. Not as strong and healthy as I should be
7. Allergies (hay fever, asthma, hives, etc.)
8. Occasional pressure and pain in my head
9. Gradually losing weight
10. Not getting enough outdoor air and sunshine
11. Poor posture
12. Poor complexion or skin trouble
13. Too short
14. Too tall
15. Not very attractive physically
16. Frequent sore throat
17. Frequent colds
18. Nose or sinus trouble
19. Speech handicap (stuttering, etc.)
20. Weak eyes
21. Frequent headaches
22. Menstrual or female disorders
23. Sometimes feeling faint or dizzy
24. Trouble with digestion or elimination
25. Glandular disorders (thyroid, lymph, etc.)
26. Having considerable trouble with my teeth
27. Trouble with my hearing
28. Trouble with my feet
29. Bothered by a physical handicap
30. Needing medical advice
31. Too little money for clothes
32. Receiving too little help from home
33. Having less money than my friends
34. Managing my finances poorly
35. Needing a part - time job now
36. Going in debt for college expenses
37. Going through school on too little money
38. Graduation threatened by lack of funds
39. Needing money for graduate training
40. Too many financial problems
41. Needing money for better health care
42. Needing to watch every penny I spend
43. Family worried about finances
44. Disliking financial dependence on others
45. Financially unable to get married
46. Working late at night on a job
47. Living in an inconvenient location
48. Transportation or commuting difficulty
49. Lacking privacy in living quarters
50. Having no place to entertain friends
51. Not getting satisfactory diet
52. Tiring of the same meals all the time
53. Too little money for recreation
54. No steady income
55. Unsure of my future financial support
57. Working for all my expenses
58. Doing more outside work than is good for me
59. Getting low wages
60. Dissatisfied with my present job
61. Not enough time for recreation
62. Too little chance to get into sports
63. Too little chance to enjoy art or music
64. Too little chance to enjoy radio or television
65. Too little time to myself
66. Not living a well-rounded life
67. Not using my leisure time well
68. Wanting to improve myself culturally
69. Wanting to improve my mind
70. Wanting more chance for self-expression
71. Awkward in meeting people
72. Awkward in making a date
73. Slow in getting acquainted with people
74. In too few student activities
75. Boring weekends
76. Wanting to learn how to dance
77. Wanting to learn how to entertain
78. Wanting to improve my appearance
79. Wanting to improve my manners or etiquette
80. Trouble in keeping a conversation going
81. Lacking skill in sports and games
82. Too little chance to enjoy nature
83. Too little chance to pursue a hobby
84. Too little chance to read what I like
85. Wanting more worthwhile discussions with people
86. Too little chance to do what I want to do
87. Too little social life
88. Too much social life
89. Nothing interesting to do in vacations
90. Wanting very much to travel
91. Being timid or shy
92. Being too easily embarrassed
93. Being ill at ease with other people
94. Having no close friends in college
95. Missing someone back home
96. Wanting a more pleasing personality
97. Losing friends
98. Wanting to be more popular
99. Being left out of things
100. Having feelings of extreme loneliness
101. Feelings too easily hurt
102. Being talked about
103. Being watched by other people
104. Worrying how I impress people
105. Feeling inferior
106. Being too envious or jealous
107. Being stubborn or obstinate
108. Getting into arguments
109. Speaking or acting without thinking
110. Sometimes acting childish or immature



112. Being disliked by someone
113. Feeling that no one understands me
114. Having no one to tell my troubles to
115. Finding it hard to talk about my troubles
116. Too self-centered
117. Hurting other people's feeling
118. Avoiding someone I don't like
119. Too easily led by other people
120. Lacking leadership ability
121. Taking things too seriously
122. Worrying about unimportant things
123. Nervousness
124. Getting excited too easily
125. Finding it difficult to relax
126. Moodiness, "having the blues"
127. Failing in so many things I try to do
128. Too easily discouraged
129. Having bad luck
130. Sometimes wishing I'd never been born
131. Unhappy too much of the time
132. Having memories of an unhappy childhood
133. Daydreaming
134. Forgetting things
135. Having a certain nervous habit
136. Losing my temper
137. Being careless
138. Being lazy
139. Tending to exaggerate too much
140. Not taking things seriously enough
141. Afraid of making mistakes
142. Can't make up my mind about things
143. Lacking self-confidence
144. Can't forget an unpleasant experience
145. Feeling life has given me a "raw deal"
146. Too many personal problems
147. Too easily moved to tears
148. Bothered by bad dreams
149. Sometimes bothered by thoughts of insanity
150. Thoughts of suicide
151. Too few dates
152. Not meeting anyone I like to date
153. No suitable places to go on dates
154. Deciding whether to go steady
155. Going with someone my family won't accept
156. Afraid of losing the one I love
157. Loving someone who doesn't love me
158. Too inhibited in sex matters
159. Afraid of close contact with the opposite sex
160. Wondering if I'll ever find suitable mate
161. Being in love
162. Deciding whether I'm in love
163. Deciding whether to become engaged
164. Wondering if I really know my prospective mate
165. Being in love with someone I can't marry
167. Disturbed by ideas of sexual acts
168. Needing information about sex matters
169. Sexual needs unsatisfied
170. Wondering how far to go with the opposite sex
171. Disappointment in a love affair
172. Girl friend
173. Boy friend
174. Breaking up a love affair
175. Wondering if I'll ever get married
176. Thinking too much about sex matters
177. Too easily aroused sexually
178. Having to wait too long to get married
179. Needing advice about marriage
180. Wondering if my marriage will succeed
181. Being criticized by my parents
182. Mother
183. Father
184. Sickness in the family
185. Parents sacrificing too much for me
186. Parents separated or divorced
187. Parents having a hard time of it
188. Worried about a member of my family
189. Father or mother no living
190. Feeling I don't really have a home
191. Friends not welcomed at home
192. Home life unhappy
193. Family quarrels
194. Not getting along with a member of my family
195. Irritated by habits of a member of my family
196. Unable to discuss certain problems at home
197. Clash of opinion between me and parents
198. Talking back to my parent
199. Parents expecting too much of me
200. Carrying heavy home responsibilities
201. Not telling parents everything
202. Being treated like a child at home
203. Being an only child
204. Parents making too many decisions for me
205. Wanting more freedom at home
206. Wanting love and affection
207. Getting home too seldom
208. Living at home, or too close to home
209. Relatives interfering with family affairs
210. Wishing I had a different family background
211. Not going to church often enough
212. Dissatisfied with church services
213. Having beliefs that differ from my church
214. Losing my earlier religious faith
215. Doubting the value of worship and prayer
216. Differing from my family in religious beliefs
217. Failing to see the relation of religion to life
218. Don't know what to believe about God
219. Science conflicting with my religion
220. Needing a philosophy of life

21. Parents old-fashioned in their ideas
22. Missing spiritual elements in college life
23. Troubled by lack of religion in others
24. Affected by racial or religious prejudice
25. In love with someone of a different race or religion

26. Wanting more chances for religious worship
27. Wanting to understand more about the Bible
28. Wanting to feel close to God
29. Confused in some of my religious beliefs
30. Confused on some moral questions

31. Sometimes lying without meaning to
32. Pretending to be something I'm not
33. Having a certain bad habit
34. Unable to break a bad habit
35. Getting into serious trouble

36. Sometimes not being as honest as I should be
37. Having a troubled or guilty conscience
38. Can't forget some mistakes I've made
39. Giving in to temptations
40. Lacking self-control

41. Not knowing how to study effectively
42. Easily distracted from my work
43. Not planning my work ahead
44. Having a poor background for some subjects
45. Inadequate high school training

46. Forgetting things I've learned in school
47. Getting low grades
48. Weak in writing
49. Weak in spelling or grammar
50. Slow in reading

51. Not spending enough time in study
52. Having too many outside interests
53. Trouble organizing term papers
54. Trouble in outlining or note-taking
55. Trouble with oral reports

56. Not getting studies done on time
57. Unable to concentrate well
58. Unable to express myself well in words
59. Vocabulary too limited
60. Afraid to speak up in class discussions

61. Worrying about examinations
62. Slow with theories and abstractions
63. Weak in logical reasoning
64. Not smart enough in scholastic ways
65. Fearing failure in college

66. Not having a well-planned college program
67. Not really interested in books
68. Poor memory
69. Slow in mathematics
70. Needing a vacation from school

71. Restless at delay in starting life work
72. Doubting wisdom of my vocational choice
73. Family opposing my choice of vocation
74. Purpose in going to college not clear
75. Doubting the value of a college degree

276. Unable to enter desired vocation
277. Enrolled in the wrong curriculum
278. Wanting to change to another college
279. Wanting part-time experience in my field
280. Doubting college prepares me for working

281. Wondering if I'll be successful in life
282. Needing to plan ahead for the future
283. Not knowing what I really want
284. Trying to combine marriage and a career
285. Concerned about military service

286. Wondering whether further education is worthwhile
287. Not knowing where I belong in the world
288. Needing to decide on an occupation
289. Needing information about occupations
290. Needing to know my vocational abilities

291. Deciding whether to leave college for a job
292. Doubting I can get a job in my chosen vocation
293. Wanting advice on next steps after college
294. Choosing course to take next term
295. Choosing best courses to prepare for a job

296. Afraid of unemployment after graduation
297. Not knowing how to look for a job
298. Lacking necessary experience for a job
299. Not reaching the goal I've set for myself
300. Wanting to quit college

301. Hard to study in living quarters
302. No suitable place to study on campus
303. Teachers too hard to understand
304. Textbooks too hard to understand
305. Difficulty in getting required books

306. College too indifferent to student needs
307. Dull classes
308. Too many poor teachers
309. Teachers lacking grasp of subject matter
310. Teachers lacking personality

311. Not having a good college adviser
312. Not getting individual help from teachers
313. Not enough chances to talk to teachers
314. Teachers lacking interest in students
315. Teachers not considerate of students' feeling

316. Classes too large
317. Not enough class discussion
318. Classes run too much like high school
319. Too much work required in some courses
320. Teachers too theoretical

321. Some course poorly organized
322. Courses too unrelated to each other
323. Too many rules and regulations
324. Unable to take courses I want
325. Forced to take courses I don't like

326. Grades unfair as measures of ability
327. Unfair tests
328. Campus activities poorly co-ordinated
329. Campus lacking in school spirit
330. Campus lacking in recreational facilities

### Part III

## **The Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WCQ)**

**Folkman & Lazarus, 1998**

### Directions

This test is designed to evaluate how well you cope with the problems in your life. Read each statement and then blacken in the appropriate circle to the right of the statement to indicate how often they apply to you.

	Not Used	Used Rather Often	Used Really Often	Used a Great Deal
1. Just concentrated on what I had to do next – the next step.	0	1	2	3
2. I did something which I didn't think would work, but at least I was doing something.	0	1	2	3
3. Tried to get the person responsible to change his or her mind.	0	1	2	3
4. Talked to someone to find out more about the situation.	0	1	2	3
5. Criticized or lectured myself.	0	1	2	3
6. Tried not to burn my bridges, but leave things open somewhat.	0	1	2	3
7. Hoped a miracle would happen.	0	1	2	3
8. Went along with fate; sometimes I just have bad luck.	0	1	2	3
9. Went on as if nothing had happened.	0	1	2	3
10. I tried to keep my feelings to myself.	0	1	2	3
11. Looked for the silver lining, so to speak; tried to look on the bright side of things.	0	1	2	3
12. Slept more than usual.	0	1	2	3
13. I expressed anger to the person(s) who caused the problem.	0	1	2	3

	Not Used	Used Rather Often	Used Really Often	Used a Great Deal
14. Accepted sympathy and understanding from someone.	0	1	2	3
15. I was inspired to do something creative.	0	1	2	3
16. Tried to forget the whole thing.	0	1	2	3
17. I got professional help.	0	1	2	3
18. Changed or grew as a person in a good way.	0	1	2	3
19. I apologized or did something to make up.	0	1	2	3
20. I made a plan of action and followed it.	0	1	2	3
21. I let my feelings out somehow.	0	1	2	3
22. Realized I brought the problem on myself.	0	1	2	3
23. I came out of the experience better than when I went in.	0	1	2	3
24. Talked to someone who could do something concrete about the problem.	0	1	2	3
25. Tried to make myself feel better by using eating, drinking, smoking, using drugs or medication, etc.	0	1	2	3
26. Took a big chance or did something very risky.	0	1	2	3
27. I tried not to act too hastily or follow my first hunch.	0	1	2	3
28. Found my faith.	0	1	2	3
29. Rediscovered what is important in life.	0	1	2	3
30. Changed something so things would turn out all right.	0	1	2	3
31. Avoided being with people in general.	0	1	2	3
32. Didn't let it get to me; refused to think about it too much.	0	1	2	3



	Not Used	Used Rather Often	Used Really Often	Used a Great Deal
33. I asked a relative or friend I respected for advice.	0	1	2	3
34. Kept others from knowing how bad things were.	0	1	2	3
35. Made light of the situation; refused to get too serious about it.	0	1	2	3
36. Talked to someone about how I was feeling.	0	1	2	3
37. Stood my ground and fought for what I wanted.	0	1	2	3
38. Took it out on other people.	0	1	2	3
39. Drew on my past experiences; I was in a similar position before.	0	1	2	3
40. I knew what had to be done, so I doubled my efforts to make thing work.	0	1	2	3
41. Refused to believe that it had happened.	0	1	2	3
42. I made a promise to myself that things would be different next time.	0	1	2	3
43. Came up with a couple at different solutions to the problem.	0	1	2	3
44. I tried to keep my feelings from interfering with other things too much.	0	1	2	3
45. I changed something about myself.	0	1	2	3
46. Wished that the situation would go away or somehow be over with.	0	1	2	3
47. Had fantasies or wishes about how things might turn out.	0	1	2	3
48. I prayed.	0	1	2	3
49. I went over in my mind what I would say or do.	0	1	2	3



Not Used	Used Rather Often	Used Really Often	Used a Great Deal
-------------	----------------------	----------------------	----------------------

I thought about how a person I admire  
would handle the situation and used that as  
a model.

0	1	2	3
---	---	---	---



St. Gabriel's Library, An

