

**INFLUENCE OF TRAUMATIC STRESS ON ACADEMIC ADJUSTMENT AMONG  
TERTIARY INSTITUTION STUDENTS IN POTISKUM, YOBE STATE, NIGERIA**

**BY**

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**BEING M.Ed DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF  
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## **DECLARATION**

I hereby declare that the work in this Dissertation entitled INFLUENCE OF TRAUMATIC STRESS ON ACADEMIC ADJUSTMENT AMONG TERTIARY INSTITUTION STUDENTS IN POTISKUM, YOBE STATE, NIGERIA has been carried out by me in the Department of Educational Psychology and Counselling. The information derived from the literature has been duly acknowledged in the text and a list of references provided. No part of this Dissertation was previously presented for another degree at this or any other institution.

**Sign:** \_\_\_\_\_  
**Umaru ABDULLAHI**

**Date:** \_\_\_\_\_

## CERTIFICATION

This dissertation entitled INFLUENCE OF TRAUMATIC STRESS ON ACADEMIC ADJUSTMENT AMONG TERTIARY INSTITUTION STUDENTS IN POTISKUM, YOBE STATE, NIGERIA by Umaru ABDULLAHI meets the regulations governing the award of Masters Degree in Educational Psychology of the Ahmadu Bello University, and is approved for its contribution to knowledge and literary presentation.

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## **DEDICATION**

This work is dedicated to my late grandmother HajiyaKa'akaSarkinBakaFika, my late father Mal AbdullahiBanu, and my late brothers Muhammad Abdullahi and NasiruAbdullahi, may their souls rest in peace.

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To God be the Glory!

## ABSTRACT

This study examined the influence of traumatic stress on academic adjustment among tertiary institution students in Potiskum, Yobe state, Nigeria. To guide the study, four research objectives, four research questions and four hypotheses were raised. Ex post factor design was employed to carry out this study. Proportionate sampling technique was used to select a sample of 364 students from a population of 6767 students of Federal College of Education (Technical) and College of Administrative and Business Studies, both in Potiskum. Two instruments, Traumatic Stress Questionnaire and Academic Adjustment Questionnaire were used for data collection. Data collected was subjected to statistical analysis using the t-test of independent sample. Four null hypotheses were tested at 0.05 alpha level of significance. Analysis of the data showed that there is significant difference in academic adjustment of male and female students who experienced traumatic stress ( $t=6.593$ ,  $p=0.000$ ), in favour of male students. While there is no significant difference in academic adjustment of students who experienced traumatic stress based on school ( $t=0.421$ ,  $p=0.674$ ), schooling system ( $t=0.687$ ,  $p=0.493$ ), and age groups ( $t=0.772$ ,  $p=0.440$ ). On the basis of these findings, it was recommended that educational psychologists, parents, counsellors and teachers should provide maximum support to the traumatized students and continually reassure them of positive future in order to improve their academic adjustment.

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## **OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS**

**Traumatic Stress:** refers to exposure to or witnessing an event that threatens life or wellbeing such as acts of violence, accident, murder, natural disasters and terrorist attack.

**Academic Adjustment:** refers to the ability of an individual to deal with various educational demands of college experience. Examples of academic adjustment are positive attitude to work, motivation to learning, and sense of satisfaction with academic environment.

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **1.1 Background to the study**

Traumatic stress involves exposure to terrible events that are threatening to one's life or wellbeing. American Psychiatric Association in Walsh (2003) describes traumatic stress as events that involve actual death or threat of injury or death to oneself or significant others. Exposure or witnessing traumatic events generate feelings of being unsafe, powerless or vulnerable (Beckham and Beckham, 2004). While trauma entails the sudden intrusion of new and unexpected information into the memory due to confrontation with violence or death, leaving the sufferer often confused between the previous memory and trauma memory, and in turn causing a psychic separation in consciousness which often leave the survivor confused, frightened and disturbed (Brewin and Holmes,2003).

People generally got relieved immediately when a traumatic event finally passes (Beckham & Beckham, 2004). But sometimes the impact becomes chronic, complex and persistent and continues to intrude the memory of the sufferer often in forms of disturbing flashbacks and nightmares, occurring and reoccurring while the sufferer struggles for a difficult avoidance. In this case the person may have posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) which is the severest form of traumatic stress. Post-traumatic stress disorder often prevents the individual from concentration, socialization and getting adjusted which are necessary for educational achievements. Van der kolk (2001) observes that, PTSD sufferers' problems with negotiating satisfying interpersonal relationship play a significant role in preventing them from leading a satisfying life. Perry (2013) argues that the likelihood of developing PTSD is not the same for all individuals, but is based

upon one's subjective experience (i.e. belief system and perspectives) personality variables such as self-efficacy and locus of control, and social support of the individual.

The danger of traumatic experience is seriously devastating. The stress of trauma is so overwhelming that almost everyone within the area may fall a victim. Apart from the survivor, other people in the immediate environment of the survivor such as relations, friends, course mates, lecturers, doctors and therapists may eventually have secondary traumatic stress through vicarious traumatisation. In this way traumatic stress can spread and cause serious havoc to social settings like schools where socialisation is the norm. Pynoos, Steinberg and Piacantini, (1999) postulated that traumatic stress triggers different types of psychological alarm and simultaneous onset of extreme negative emotions, as well as frightening accelerations in psychological and emotional reaction. Weiten (2004) observes that extreme traumatic incidents can leave a lasting imprint on the victim's psychological functioning. Definitely, the symptoms of trauma are very serious threat to learning. Previously, severe trauma reactions were commonly associated with veterans or survivors of catastrophes not the young men filling our schools but now that notion has changed because of the multiple numbers of traumatic stressors in our environment. The global prevalence of various forms of traumatic events in forms of armed conflicts, terrorism, sexual violence, natural disasters and other adversaries have made traumatic stress a very important area of concern for research. Holahan, Ragan and Moors (2004) posited that of all known stressors, traumatic stressors are more severe when indexed on standard life event. Weiten (2004) observed that the proportion of people who develop psychological problem after a traumatic event varies depending on the nature, severity and duration of the trauma.

On the other hand, academic adjustment denotes the individual's efforts of dealing with numerous academic demands of school experience. Factors predictive of academic adjustment are divided into three major content areas of academic, social / environments and personality (Stoever, 2001). Thus motivation to learn, willingness to take action to meet academic demands, clear sense of purpose and general satisfaction with the academic environment are all recognized as important parts of academic adjustment (Baker & Siryk in Stoever, 2001). Academic adjustment can be assumed as an important factor that predetermines academic success and achievement. Adler, Raju, Beveridge, Wang, Zhu and Zimmermann in Calaguas (2012) posited that adjustment to college is critical for academic success, while poor college adjustment correlates with poor academic performance, low graduation rates, and poor success in later life.

Adjustment is very crucial to the development of the young men in our higher institutions; because it entails a process by which a person learns to interact effectively with the environment, thus developing competence to control the environment for his own needs. Wentzel (2003) affirms that students' success in school is connected with how well they develop social and academic competences. Gates and Jersild in Mangal (2002) posited that adjustment is a continual process through which a person varies his behaviour to produce a more harmonious relationship between himself and his environment. Adjustment strategies are imperative to individual's healthy, satisfying, and happy life. It is indeed a continuous and endless struggle between needs of the individual and the challenges of external forces. Adjustment should consist of personal as well as environmental components (Mangal, 2002). While the most important areas of adjustment, according to Arkoff in Mangal (2002), are the family, school, vocation and marriage. Personality characteristics and environmental factors are inseparably important in determining

how well an individual adjusts to his changing environment. Constant changes in human life make adjustment a continuous process and necessary for both positive and negative changes in individual's environment.

Thus, the study on traumatic stress and academic adjustment is relevant going by the problem of insecurity that devastated some states in the North Eastern part of Nigeria. The resultant havoc particularly to educational sector is immeasurable; it was actually disastrous. Schools were burnt down, many students were either kidnapped or murdered, and many teachers were killed in the presence of their students. This study is therefore going to investigate the resultant traumatic stress and its influence on the academic adjustment of tertiary institution students in one of the towns within the affected area.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

The problem of insecurity in North Eastern part Nigeria has caused a great deal of devastation. The havoc is more glaring in Borno and Yobe states. A person travelling within the affected area will hardly cover a distance of twenty kilometres or so without passing a consequent of the event. The entire population of the area is directly or indirectly affected by the trauma. Almost all sectors and all walks of life have suffered the consequences. But the most affected sector is education. Schools have suffered significantly; large number of public and private schools were burnt down, and up till now many of them are yet to be fully renovated. In 2013, at two different times, Yobe state government had to ask student to stay at home indefinitely while the attacks on schools were at their peak. Some of the schools, specifically Yobe State College of Agriculture Gujba, GSS Mamudo, GSS Damaturu and FGC Buni – Yadi suffered the most by losing nearly



200 students to the devastation. Recently, on 2nd November 2014, students of GTSC Potiskum were bombed on assembly ground leaving 47 students dead and many seriously injured. Barely a month has passed after GSTC Potiskum attack when Damaturu was attacked, and one of the areas affected was Yobe state University, Damaturu. Without doubt these catastrophes will have a lasting effect on the psychological well-being of the individuals. The possibility of the effects of traumatic stress and its by-products on the people of the affected area can be easily predicted.

The task of securing schools in the affected area is a serious challenge to governments. How well can student be protected within the walls of their schools has become the concern of the entire society. Many parents are no longer interested in sending their children to boarding schools, particularly the ones located in rural areas. The cases of kidnapping more than 200 girls from GSS Chibok in Borno state and few female students from FGC Buni–Yadi in Yobe state are yet to be resolved.

Moreover, the proper academic adjustment of students in those affected area is a very important issue that catches attention. There is urgent need to help students understand how to cope and adjust to challenges of traumatic conditions so as to face their study squarely. But how are students going to be convinced that attacks on schools have stopped, so that they can forget about the ugly past occurrences and struggle for achievement? This is a question that needs to be answered if proper academic adjustment is to be achieved within the school settings. And this is exactly the focus of this study.

### **1.3 Objectives of the study**

The study achieved the following objectives:

1. Investigate the differences in academic adjustment of male and female students who experienced traumatic stress.
2. Examine the differences in academic adjustment of Federal College of Education (Technical) and College of Administrative and Business Studies students who experienced traumatic stress.
3. Assess the differences in academic adjustment of on-campus and off-campus students who experienced traumatic stress.
4. Determine the differences in academic adjustment of 21 years and below and 22 years and above students who experienced traumatic stress.

### **1.4 Research Questions**

The research answered the following question

1. What is the difference in academic adjustment of male and female students who experienced traumatic stress?
2. What is the difference in academic adjustment of Federal College of Education (Technical) and College of Administrative and Business Studies students who experienced traumatic stress?
3. What is the difference in academic adjustment of on-campus and off-campus students who experienced traumatic stress?
4. What is the difference in academic adjustment of 21 years and below and 22 years and above students who experienced traumatic stress?

## 1.5 Research Hypotheses

The research tested the following hypotheses

1. There is no significant difference in academic adjustment of male and female students who experienced traumatic stress.
2. There is no significant difference in academic adjustment of Federal College of Education (Technical) and College of Administrative and Business Studies students who experienced traumatic stress.
3. There is no significant difference in academic adjustment of on-campus and off-campus students who experienced traumatic stress.
4. There is no significant difference in academic adjustment of 21 years and below and 22 year and above students who experienced traumatic stress.

## 1.6 Significance of the study

Research on the influence of traumatic stress on academic adjustment among tertiary school students is significant to the following categories:

**Students:** The study will sensitize students who are the primary subject of the study about the dangers of traumatic stress and the importance of academic adjustment. It will be an eye opener to students on the consequences of traumatic events, how to go about their challenges, and how to struggle for achievement despite those challenges. The work may also stimulate some students to pick interest in research on the two variables.

**Parents:** Parents and guardians will benefit from the study through the information it provides on how to help traumatized individuals, and how to motivate children to be courageous while facing different challenges of life. It will also help them with regards to their role of helping their children to be properly adjusted in school.

**Educators and curriculum planners:** The research will help educators and curriculum planners to redesign learning materials considering the need of traumatized individuals.

**Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO):** The research will create awareness among NGO's who may be interested in giving assistance to traumatized individuals.

**Governments:** The result of this research is expected to create more awareness in governments at all levels on the negative impact of trauma and the need for collective efforts to minimize its consequences. The research may also intimate government to equip school counselling and help centres with the necessary kits for taking care of traumatized students within the affected area.

**Theory Building:** This study is expected to contribute to research and theory building about how traumatic stress and academic adjustment interact within a giving situation. The work is expected to serve as a reference material for researchers who are working towards arriving at some sets of principles that will explain and predict relationship between traumatic stress and academic adjustment. It is hoped that other prospective researchers will develop interest in the area and push it further by covering other towns or other states within the affected areas.

## **1.7 Basic Assumptions**

The following assumptions are guided by the hypotheses

1. Male and female students who experienced traumatic stress differ in academic adjustment
2. Students of Federal College of Education (Technical) and College of Administrative and Business Studies who experienced traumatic stress differ in academic adjustment
3. On-campus and off-campus students who experienced traumatic stress differ in academic adjustment.
4. Students within the age brackets of 21 years and below and 22 years and above students who experienced traumatic stress differ in academic adjustment.

## **1.8 Scope and Delimitation**

This study will focus on traumatic stress and academic adjustment. The study will therefore be delimited to Potiskum metropolis specifically to the two tertiary institutions situated within the town, viz; College of Administrative and Business Studies, and Federal College of Education (Technical). The subjects of the study were both male and female students of the two institutions.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter reviewed related literature in the areas of traumatic stress and academic adjustment. The concepts of traumatic stress and academic adjustment and various theories related to the two variables were fully discussed. The chapter also reviewed empirical studies related to the areas of traumatic stress and academic adjustment.

The related literature was reviewed under the following headings:

- Conceptual framework
- Traumatic stress
- Academic adjustment
- Relationship between traumatic stress and academic adjustment
- Theoretical framework
- Stress response theory
- Information processing theory
- Conditioning theory
- Psychoanalytic theory
- Mechanisms of defense
- Erik Erikson's psychosocial theory
- Review of empirical studies

## **2.2 Conceptual framework**

### **2.2.1 Traumatic stress**

Traumatic stress encompasses exposure to or witnessing any event that is extremely threatening, and as a result the individual feels intensely frightened, horrified and helpless (House, 2012 and Volpe, 1996). International Society of Traumatic Stress Studies (2014) observed that traumatic event is emotionally shocking and overwhelms a person in a variety of ways. Roberts in Yeager and Roberts (2003) expounded that the individual's Adaptive pathways become shut off as a result of overexposure to stress hormones. The victims of trauma find themselves rapidly alternating their mental states between relatively calm and peaceful states to states of intense anxiety, agitation, anger, hyper-vigilance, and extreme arousal. Figley, Janoff – Bulmen, McCain and Pearlman in Baird (1999) maintained that an event can be traumatic if the sufferer is unprepared for it, overwhelming his coping abilities, and disrupting his cognitive basic schemes and assumptions about the world. Updegraffe and Taylor (2000) argued that the impact of traumatic event is substantial and its outcomes diversified: for some individuals experience with a traumatic event can leave them confused, withdrawn, depressed, and increasingly vulnerable to the next stressful situations, while for other individuals, a traumatic experience can serve as a catalyst for positive change, a chance to reexamine life priorities or develop strong ties with friends and families.

According to Beckham and Beckham (2004), trauma are significantly underestimated in our society: fires, hurricanes, tornadoes, bombing, murders, war, rape, child abuse, spousal abuse, car accidents and other terrifying occurrence can at any time force their way into our lives. Traumatic exposure may occur as a result of direct experience, or by witnessing the event

happening to someone, or by learning about an event experienced by a loved one: a colleague, a family member, close friend or another loved one. Sometimes the rescuer become victim: those who rescue the survivors such as first aiders, medical health personnel, mental health workers, etc are at high risk of been traumatized (Baird, 1999). Figley in Baird (1999) noted that the distress that arises when one comes into contact with a survivor is defined as the natural responses resultants from exposure to a survivor's traumatic material; thus, Secondary Traumatic Stress (STS) develops when a traumatic event forces a person close to a victim to identify and to emphasize. However, the exertion of empathy can gradually manifest into traumatic stress if particularly one is close to the survivor or if one ignores emotional self-care (Baird, 1999). Baird went further to suggest that the evidence of widespread consequences of traumatic stress necessitates proper and efficient identification and treatment of survivors in order to minimize deleterious effect to the survivors, as well as those surrounding the survivor (such as therapists). ISTSS (2004) reported that victim of Secondary Traumatic Stress, may also have same feelings, thoughts and symptoms as individuals who directly experienced traumatic events. Beckham and Beckham (2004) suggested that trauma can be physical, psychological or combination of the two.

Historically, the phenomenon of traumatic stress has been in existence from the ancient times. Scholars had suggested that the ancient Greece was the first culture to document traumatic stress (Abdul-Hamid and Hughes, 2014). Greeks relate both physical and mental health to the equilibrium of the different humours which are Phlegm, black bile, yellow bile and blood and that sickness is caused by the disturbance of this equilibrium. For a long time the account of Herodotus of the Athenian spear-carrier Epizelus psychogenic mutism following the marathon



war was taken to be the first account of PTSD in history. However, Abdul-Hamid and Hughes (2014) argued that the cases of PTSD in Mesopotamia predates that of Greece citing three cases mentioned by Scurlock and Anderson which they found in series of diagnostic and prognostics of sick soldiers discovered on tablets written in 3200BC in Uruk in southern Iraq. During 1348-1350AD the bubonic plague or Black death swept through Europe destroying considerable percentage of the population and leaving behind a catastrophic consequences. The disease was so deadly and by all estimates a massive human disaster (Leach, 1994). Analysis of the daily record of the time revealed a time of economic chaos, social unrest, high prices, profiteering, depraved morals, lack of production, industrial indolence, frenetic gaiety, wild expenditure, luxury, debauchery, social and religious hysteria, greed, auspice, maladministration, decay of manners (Tuchman in Leach, 1994). Records of the Black Death present a picture of people who were apathetic, pessimistic and who had lost initiatives (Leach, 1994). Anecdotal records of traumatic exposure and subsequent responses to the great fire of London in 1666 showed signs of anxiety, sleep disturbances and nightmares about the fire (Leach, 1994 and Volpe, 1996).

Prior to the emergence of the term traumatic stress, different labels were used over the years in reference to traumatic conditions, such as Battle Fatigue, War Neurosis, Da Costa syndrome, Tunnel Disease, Gross Stress Reaction, Adjustment Reactions of Adult life, Transient Situational Disturbance, Post Vietnam Syndrome, Rape Trauma Syndrome, Child Abuse Syndrome, Battered wife Syndrome, etc (Leach, 1994 and Volpe, 1996). After the First World War and subsequently the Second World War, there was an alarming mental abnormality among soldiers, more especially repatriated prisoners of war. Army psychiatrists warned that most of the returned

prisoners suffered minor abnormality and difficulty to re-socialize and reintegrate in the community. It was however, only in the recent years, after the war on Vietnam, that studies of psychiatric disorder following warfare and major disaster became documented with frequency and scientific methodological, necessary for its understanding (Leach 1994).

There are two types of traumatic events, namely, type I and type II or short-term and long term traumatic events. Type I traumatic event are short term, and abrupt often lasting a few minutes or as long as few hours, while the type II traumatic events involve chronic, repeated and ongoing exposures (Volpe, 1996). Yeager and Roberts (2003) explained that type I refers to victims who had experienced single traumatic event and type II trauma refers to experiencing multiple traumatic events. Terr in Volpe (1996) expounded that type I traumatic event include natural and accidental disasters as well as deliberately caused human disasters, while type II include and technological disasters and events resulting from intentional human design.

Aldwin in Walsh (2003) identified three types of traumatic stress: natural (such as flood, tornado, and earthquake) and technological (such as nuclear) disasters; war and related problems (such as concentration camps); and individual Trauma (such as being raped, assaulted or tortured). Walsh (2003) suggested that professionals working with trauma survivors are susceptible to compassion stress. Most social workers fall into the aforementioned category.

Traumatic stress can send shock waves through every aspect of one's life, damage psychological stability and take away sense of wellbeing (Beckham and Beckham, 2004). Traumatic stress is therefore capable of harming student by depriving them of psychological stability and proper

concentration on work. Walsh (2003) maintained that our sense of stress is on part related to our individual biological constitution and our previous experiences with stress. It is normal to have painful memories and to become upset when reminded of what happened. People get relieved of traumatic stress when it passed, putting the situation behind and feeling alright. But sometimes emotional distress can occur to a certain degree, leaving enduring imprint. Images of trauma can linger or resurface and along with them come feelings of terror and depression (Beckham and Beckham, 2004). People deal with traumatic experiences in two basic ways: they either bury it as deep as they can and never talk about it, or they spend time thinking about the event and discuss it with others (Aronso, Wilson and Akert, 2010). The research of Pennerbaker and his colleagues in Aronso, Wilson and Akert (2010) supported the idea of thinking about the traumatic event and sharing the experiences with others, they also suggested some long term benefits of opening up. Wegner (1994) opined that trying to suppress negative thought has a negative effect and can lead to preoccupation with those very thought because the act of trying not to think about them can actually make us think about them. Aronso, Wilson and Akert (2010) added that writing about a traumatic experience and confiding in others may help people have a better understanding of the problem and thus move forward with life.

Traumatic stress in selected cases can give rise to Posttraumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) which is more powerful and difficult to cope with (Beckhem and Beckhem, 2004). Usually, the aftermath symptoms of traumatic stress begin immediately, other times, they appear months or years later. When symptoms interfere to a significant degree with a person's life, it may be an indication of developing posttraumatic stress disorder. (Beckhem and Beckhem, 2004). NAMI (2014) suggested that if reaction of survivors remain frequent and intense, lasting for months, and cause

problems in living, they would be considered patients of post-traumatic stress disorder. PTSD can create feeling of anxiety, anger, guilt, loss of self-esteem, helplessness, loss of trust and irritability; while in terms of cognition, it can lead to confusion, difficulty in concentration and remembering, difficulty planning for future, negative thoughts about the future and intrusive memories (Beckham and Beckham, 2004).

Scholars have clustered numerous symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder into three main areas: re-experiencing, avoidance and arousal symptoms. Beckham and Beckham (2004) suggested that re-experiencing symptoms are recurring and disturbing memories of the event which often push into the survivor's awareness; avoidance system includes the survivor's ways of avoiding thoughts and feelings associated with the trauma; arousal symptoms have to do with survivors constant feeling very anxious and fearful. Nami (2011) opined that the symptoms of PTSD are automatic and learned responses to trauma reminder that remind a person of the trauma and bring up feeling that they are in danger again. Leach (1994) suggested that those symptoms can be found on a person following any misadventure, but they tend to show the sign of PTSD only when they persist, show resistance to recovery and impair the survivor's ability to function in his everyday life.

Exposure to traumatic events can have long term consequences on students resulting into decline in school performance and difficulty in interpersonal relationship. Jaycox, Morse, Tanielian, and Stein (2006) suggested that classroom activity may decline because of an inability to concentrate, frequent flashback or preoccupation with the trauma and a wish to avoid school and other places that might remind students of the trauma. NAMI (2011) expounded that some symptoms of

PTSD, such as feeling irritable or “on edge”, having a hard time sleeping, difficulty in resocialisation, make adjustment back to school very difficult. Brock and Cowan (2004) reported that student with PTSD may have trouble sleeping, participating in class and completing class assignments, lose interest in co-curricular activities and friends and are at risk of substance and alcohol abuse, reckless behaviour and suicide. School performance and functioning can surely be affected by development of behaviour and emotional problems including substance abuse, aggression and depression.

Schools can therefore play an important role through devising crisis support program for students in terms of planning, prevention and ensuring physical safety during and immediately after an event and also the ability to respond to the mental health effects of a crisis such as PTSD (Brock and Cowan, 2004). Although only a trained mental health professional can diagnose and test PTSD, educators can help minimize potentially serious consequences by recognizing warning signs, identifying high – risk students and providing appropriate intervention and referrals (Brock and Cowan, 2004).

### **2.2.2 Academic Adjustment**

Academic adjustment refers to students’ success in dealing with various educational demands of college experience (Tune, 2003). It is seen in students’ positive attitude toward academic goals, and academic work, motivation to learn, and of a sense of satisfaction with the academic environment (Baker and Siryk, 1999). Some contributing elements of academic adjustment include academic performance and success, academic ability, academic motivation, academic purpose, and satisfaction with the academic environment (Tuna, 2003). Adjustment entails a

process by which a person learns to interact effectively with the environment, thus developing competence to control the environment for his own needs. Sangeta and Chirag (2012) opined that unless a person is able to adjust himself to the environment he cannot develop his wholesome personality.

The successful adjustment of students is therefore a major concern to teachers, parents and the entire society. Transition from high school or secondary school to a college is a serious challenge in the development of young adults, and many young men and women are not adequately prepared for the psychological, emotional and academic reality of higher education (Francis, McDaniel & Doyle in Stoever, 2001). Adjustment to college is one of the main indications that a student is ready to face the problems emanating from fulfilling his academic, social and emotional needs (Alkhatib, Awamleh and Samawi, 2012). The college student is faced with adaptation challenges of living apart from family and friends. The challenges of adjusting to the academic regimen, assuming responsibility for the task of daily living, and developing a new array of social relationship with peers and faculty are tasking for all students (Henry, Lamke, Murphy & Haynes in Stoever, 2001). Looking at the problem of college drop outs, Tinto in Chia – fan Liu (2013) maintained that the interaction of the individual, their academic integration, and their social satisfaction influences their level of persistence in college. Tinto identified the two main resources for leaving college prior to graduation, as academic difficulty and disappointment with learning climates and experiences.

Academic adjustment is not an easy task, but a complex process for all students. It is related to a combination of academic, environmental, personal and family factors (Stoever, 2001). Academic

adjustment involves significant relearning in the face of encounters with new environment, new teachers, new classmates, and new ideas with quite varied values and beliefs, new freedom and multiple opportunities (Terenzini in Sharma (2012). Scholars have agreed on the necessity and importance of academic performance and test scores on academic adjustment of students but they disagree on the extent to which past academic performance predict academic adjustment (Cohorn and Guiliano, 1999). Baker and Siryk (1984) reported that being selected to the academic honour society at the university was an indicator of better academic adjustment subscale. Their work on academic achievement motivation and academic adjustment found positive correlations between measures of academic motivation and academic adjustment. Kaczmarek, Matlock, and Franko in Tuna (2003) reported that students who had low school GPA had low scores in academic adjustment subscale.

College grades provide information that help students assess their success in managing the academic system in college, however, according to Spady in Hurtado, Chang, Saenz, Espinosa, Cabrera, & Cerna (2006) they represent an extrinsic academic award or an external assessment relative to peers within the formal structure of a classroom. Although grades imply some level of conformity with academic expectation, they are separate from academic adjustment (Hurtado, Chang, Saenz, Espinoza, Cabrera & Cerna, 2006). Many researchers suggested that varieties of non-academic factors are as important as academic factors in predicting academic adjustment of students (Cohorn & Guiliano, 1999). Apart from the class activities, good interaction with the faculty was suggested as a contributing factor to academic adjustment (Cohorn & Guiliano, 1999).

**Extra-curricular activities** are supported by a number of studies as important predictors of academic adjustment of students. Astin, Pascarella and Wieldman in Almeida, Guisande and Paisana (2012) suggested that student's participation in extra-curricular activities play an important role in their adjustment and integration to college. Activities, services and social groups are included in factors that facilitate college adjustment as long as they are organized in connection with the higher education curriculum (Almeida, Guisande and Paisana, 2012). Higher level of development, learning and academic satisfaction is associated with student's involvement in extra-curricular activities (Kuh in Almeida, Guisande and Paisane, 2012). In the work of Astin and Ryan, academic fulfillment is positively associated with participation in sporting activities whether for leisure or competition (Almeida, Guisande and Paisana, 2012). Al-Qaisy (2010) observed that one way of assisting students is by getting them integrated into the social fabric of campus life, which appears to be a major factor in students overall adjustment.

**Students' cultural background** is an important variable that tend to play a role in academic adjustment. The work of Burgess, Crocombe, Kelly and Seet (2009) suggested that students from the dominant culture adjust easily while students from different culture face additional challenges in adjusting to the academic environment. Difficulties in adjustment of students of different background from that of the dominant culture has become a source of frustration and disappointment among students and a major challenge to lecturers (Lin and Robertson in Burgas, Grocombe, Kelly and Seet, 2009). Cross-cultural barriers have been identified as major hurdle despite advances in technology. The work of Rienties, Bart, Tempelaar and Dirk (2013) stressed the importance of cultural demystification for a successful academic adjustment. Tinto (1997)



postulated that students need not only to be persistence in their study but they also need to participate in the student culture both within and outside the immediate context of learning environment. The work of Nora (2001) provided factors such as low income, financial assistance/need, family support, environmental pull factors, community to college, formal and informal faculty interaction, involvement in learning communities, campus climax and mentoring relationship as determinant for institutional commitment and persistence in college. Tinto (1997) studied the effects of learning community on students' persistence and found that college students in a learning community felt they are able to successfully manage the academic environment and are more likely to continue to the second year of college than non-participants. Tinto (1997) concluded that such classroom structures provide a community of supportive peers that bound students to the broader social community of the college while engaging them fully in the academic life of the institution. The theory of Tinto helped in students' successful management of the academic environment and overall sense of belonging with a college.

**Self-efficacy or self-concept** is an important factor for academic adjustment. Bandura in his social learning theory explained self-efficacy as the belief a person has about his or her ability to successfully perform a given task (Stoever, 2001). When self-efficacy is high, individuals feel confident that they can accomplish the required task, and when self-efficacy is low the individual worry that the task is beyond his or her ability (Weiten, 2005). Thus academic self-efficacy refers to person's belief in his ability to perform successfully on academic behaviour such as class concentration, memorization, exam concentration, understanding, explaining concepts, discriminating concepts and note taking (Wood and Locke in Stoever, 2007). In the study of Panori, Wong, Kennedy and King (1995) to examine the correlation between self-concept and

first-year students' satisfaction with adjusting to university, the result showed that students who were satisfied with their academics adjustment to university also had higher scores on some of the subscales of self-concept measures, namely, scholastic competence, intellectual ability, social acceptance and close friendships (Tuna, 2003). Better self-efficacy is associated with great persistence and effort in academic pursuits, high level of academic performance and greater resistance to stress (Stover, 2001).

Another work of Chemers, Hu and Garcia in Tuna (2003) examined the effects of **academic self – efficacy**, optimism and stress on the academic performance and adjustment of first – year university students. The results indicated that self – efficacy yielded direct and indirect relationships with academic performance and adjustment. Academically confident and optimistic students were more likely to see the university experience as a challenge rather than a threat and they experienced less stress.

**Identity processing style** is presumed to be related to academic adjustment based on the three identity processing styles: informational, normative and diffuse/avoidant (Berzonsky and Kuk in Tuna, 2003). Results of their work revealed that academic autonomy and educational involvement, which were the subscales of a university adaptation scale, were positively associated with the use of an informational style, but negatively associated with a diffuse/avoidant style. Findings from their work indicated that students who actively search out, evaluate, and use self-relevant information were more likely to adjust to university whereas students who do not accept and confront personal problems and decisions were less likely to adjust to university academically.

**Locus of control perception** is another factor that predicts academic adjustment of students. The concept emanates from the work of Rotter in the 1950's in reference to our belief about what controls our everyday lives and how we are reinforced for our actions (Gross, 1999). The theory expounded that there are internal and external control of reinforcement. The internally oriented individual believes that events are contingent upon his own behaviour or his own permanent characteristics, while externally oriented individual views reinforcement due to such factors as luck, fate, chance, powerful others, and the complexity of the work (Hung, 1977). Graffeo and Silvestry (2006) suggested that the internal locus of control perceive positive and negative events as being consequences of one's own action and thereby under one's personal control, while the external locus of control perceive positive and negative events being unrelated to one's own behaviour and thereby beyond personal control. Martin (1988) opines that the manner in which students approach academic environment may differ as a function of their locus of control. In the work of Brockway and Njus in Graffeo and Silvestry (2006) found that students with an internal locus of control were more likely to successfully adjust to the academic demands and social civilization of the college. While the work of Pugliese in Graffeo and Silvestry (2006) identified a link between dropouts' rates and students with an external locus of control. Similar results of research conducted at Temple University reported that students who led a very external locus of control often believed that it was solely the teachers' responsibility to teach and not their responsibility to learn (Graffeo and Silvertry, 2006). Most results of studies found that internally oriented individuals adjust better than externally oriented individuals (Hung, 1977). However, the study of Rotter noticed that individuals at the two extremes of the internal – external dimensions are more likely to be maladjusted than individuals in the middle range (Hung, 1977). Moreover, the work of Rotsztein (2003) on the problem of internet use and locus

of control, found that internet users are more likely to be internal locus of control. The result of the work of Rotsztein (2003) proved that moderate and positive usage of the internet shapes the user towards internal locus of control which in turn leads towards successful academic adjustment.

### **2.2.3 Relationship between traumatic stress and academic adjustment**

Research of several scholars had suggested a negative relationship between traumatic stress and academic adjustment. Updegraff and Taylor (2000) reported that widely researched effects of stressful life events including negative reaction of depression and anxiety and cognitive disruptions such as intrusive thoughts and rumination that can interfere with a person's normal activities and successful adjustment. Agaibian and Wilson (2005) defined trauma as stressful events that present extraordinary challenges to coping and adaptation. In his work on life stress and academic adjustment Stoeberl (2001) proposed that the presence of any of the three forms of stressors (acute, major and chronic stressors) in the life of students is associated with poor academic performance and academic adjustment. Obviously, the effect of trauma on academic institutions across the world and its impact on the academic functioning of students is a cause for alarm. Yeager and Roberts (2003) reported that previously, the risk of exposure to trauma was linked to some specific areas including military, fire fighters and law enforcement; however, recent happenings have led to the expansion of this scope to include education.

Some selected intermediaries are used by the individual in order to meet the demand of the environment. One of the widely accepted mediators for the traumatized person is the **coping strategies**. Tuna (2003) proposed two processes, namely cognitive appraisal and coping, which

are considered as critical mediators of stressful person – environment relationships and of their immediate and long term outcomes. Lazarus and Folkman in Stoever (2001) conceptualized coping strategies as constantly changing behaviour of the individual and his cognitive effort to manage specific demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding his resources. Updegraff and Taylor (2000) confirmed that active coping can lead to adjustment and improvement in the individual by reducing the distress and the impact of a traumatic event, as well as by contributing to stable psychological functioning, positive psychological state, motivation and perceptual growth. Lazarus in Stoever (2001) described three types of coping: active – cognitive coping, which involves persons attempts to manage their appraisal of the stressfulness of an event; active – behavioural coping, which refers to overt behavioural attempts by the person to deal directly with the problem and its effect; and avoidance coping, which involves a person’s attempt to avoid actively confronting the stressor. In general, individuals who utilize a higher percentage of approach coping are better adjusted psychologically than those who employ more avoidant coping strategies (Stoever, 2001). Moos and Billings in Tuna (2003) categorized coping skills in three domains: appraisal focused coping which involve comprehending and managing the threat resulting from a crisis; problem focused coping attempts at confronting the reality of a crisis by dealing with the consequences and trying to construct a more satisfying situation;emotion focused coping is trying to manage the feelings after a crisis and to maintain effective balance.

**Optimism** is also a moderator variable that can lessen the impact of a stressful life experience and may also affect a person’s long – term adjustment. Hockenbury and Hockenbury (2010) observed that people who have optimistic explanatory style tend to be external, unstable and specific in explaining negative events. Weiten (2004) postulated that optimistic individuals are

more likely to engage in action – oriented, problem focused coping. In contrast with the pessimists, optimists are more willing to seek social support, and they are also more likely to emphasize the positive in their appraisals of stressful events. Some specific effects of optimism on adjustment according to Updegraff and Taylor (2003) include greater well – being and less perceived stress, less psychological symptomatology and more perceived growth and benefits in college students. Weiten (2004) affirmed optimism is linked to superior physical health, academic achievement, interested job productivity, enhanced athletic performance and higher marital satisfaction. Researchers have also suggested that a strong sense of self may provide basis for resiliency in the face of traumatic events. A sense of coherence about one’s life, a sense of purpose in life and a hardy personality have all been described as valuable resources for coping with trauma (Updegraff and Taylor, 2000). Agaibi & Wilson (2005) postulated that resiliency denotes strength, flexibility, a capacity for mastery, and resumption of normal functioning after excessive stress that challenges individual coping skills.

## **2.3 Theoretical framework**

### **2.3.1 Stress response theory**

Horowitz was the founder of stress response theory which has roots in psychoanalysis and information processing. Horowitz was an outstanding researcher in posttraumatic stress due to his interest in the processing of thoughts, images and moods in relation to loss and trauma. The theory has been referred to as social cognition theory because of its emphasis on emotion and belief system of the individual (Perry, 2013). Horowitz (1986) suggested that when faced with trauma, people’s initial response is outcry. And then the individual attempts to assimilate the new information from the trauma with his previously acquired information. In some individuals, the

information may match strengthening the inner models, while in other individuals due to information overload they may not be able to match their thought of the trauma with the way they represent meaning before the trauma (Brewin and Holmes, 2003). Individuals who were not able to integrate the new information with their inner models often experience cognitive intrusions through flashbacks and nightmares because of the psychological needs to match the new information with the existing inner models. In this case the individual develops psychological defense mechanism to help him avoid memories of the trauma at the same time filtering the information that is revealed.

There are two opposing process at work, one defending the individual by suppressing the trauma information (avoidance) and another promoting trauma related information (intrusion). The individual oscillates between avoidance and intrusion until when the new information is reconciled with his prior knowledge. Failure to process trauma information may lead to persistent posttraumatic reaction as the information remains in active memory and continues to intrude and be avoided.

### **2.3.2 Information Processing Theories**

Information Processing Theory is cognitive approach to understanding how the human mind transforms sensory information. The model assumes that information that comes from the environment is subject to mental processes beyond a stimulus - response pattern. The theory is based on the idea that human beings process the information they receive, rather than merely responding to stimulus (Miller, 2011). Information processing theory focused on the traumatic event itself rather than on its wider personal and social dimensions. This theory, like the stress

response theory, emphasizes on the need for the information from the trauma to integrate in the memory system. However, the difficulty in matching the information in this model is attributed to characteristics of the trauma memory itself, than the conflict with prior knowledge. The central idea in the information processing model is about the way the trauma event is presented in memory and if it is not processed appropriately, psychopathology will develop (Brewin and Holmes, 2003).

Lang (1979) suggested that learning of association between stimuli and responses within a comprehensive cognitive framework is responsible for fear conditioning. He proposed that interconnections between nerves in the brain create associative fear network based on the memory of the traumatic event. The fear interconnections represent three types of propositional information: stimulus information such as sights and sounds, emotional and physiological response to the event, and meaningful information about the degree of threat. Thus, the cognitive and affective components were integrated within an overall program to prepare the individual for rapid response or to avoid danger.

Lang (1979) suggested that patients with anxiety disorder have unusual and stable fear memories that are easily activated by stimulus that resemble the content of the memory. When the fear memory is activated, the person experiences the same reaction and tends to make meaning judgment that agrees with the original memory (Brewin and Holmes, 2003). Chemtobet *al.*, in Brewin and Holmes (2003) suggested that persistent experiencing and high level of arousal in response to traumatic event distinguishes PTSD from other phobias. In individual with PTSD, the fear networks cause them to function in a survival mode that was adaptive during the



incidence. However, Foa *et al* in Brewin and Holmes observed that what distinguished PTSD from other anxiety disorders is that the traumatic event has an astounding significance and violates formerly held basic beliefs about safety. Traumatic event can lead to a kind of representation in the memory system that is different from our everyday experiences in several ways. For example, someone attacked in an alley would form associations between the alley node, the fear node and nodes of behavioural and physiological responses; this is more stronger than the connection between the alley node and other emotion and response nodes formed when the person previously walked down the alley in neutral and positive mood states (Brewin & Holmes, 2003).

### **2.3.3 Conditioning Theory**

Conditioning theory was developed through the work of Hobart Mowrer on two – factor learning theory that explained how initial phase of fear acquisition through classical conditioning, where the neutral stimuli present in the traumatic situation, would acquire fear eliciting properties through their association with the unconditioned stimulus. The theory postulated that variety of associated stimuli present during the traumatic event can directly arouse the fear response through the process of stimulus generalization. Although repeated exposure to the trauma memory would be sufficient to extinguish the association; but extinction would fail to occur if the persons distract themselves or block out the memories which will render the exposure incomplete (Brewin & Holmes, 2003). Avoidance of the conditioned stimuli whether through distraction or blocking of memories would be reinforced by a reduction in fear, leading to the maintenance of PTSD.

Although the conditioning theory does not clearly distinguish the etiology of PTSD from that of other anxiety disorders, it has explained many prominent features of PTSD, particularly potential trauma reminders, physiological and emotional arousal elicited in maintenance of PTSD (Brewin & Holmes, 2003). The conditioning theory has failed to clearly define the nature of re-experiencing, effects on attention and declarative memory, the influence of emotion other than fear and the roles of appraisal and coping strategies (Brewin & Holmes, 2003). For this reason, the approach is now supplemented by theories from research on cognition and emotion (Brewin & Holmes, 2003). That means conditioning theory is now applied with other theories to supplement for its areas of weakness.

#### **2.3.4 Psychoanalytic Theory**

Sigmund Freud's (1856-1939) psychoanalytic theory attempts to explain personality, motivation and psychological disorders by focusing on early childhood experiences, unconscious motives, conflicts and methods people use to cope with their sexual and aggression urges. Flow of libido is another terminology Freud used to explain human behaviour. Freud proposed that human beings are born with a basic instinctual energy called the libido. The libido constantly moves and flows, and the behaviour of an individual is determined by the way it is distributed.

Freud divided personality structure into three main components: the id, the ego, and the super ego. He suggested that a person's behaviour is the outcome of interaction among the three components of personality. The id is the primitive component of personality that operates according to the pleasure principles, with an overriding goal of maximizing pleasure and eliminating tension and conflicts associated with achieving pleasure (Rajeevan, 2011). Freud

referred to the id as the reservoir of psychic energy, the libido. He meant the id houses the raw biological urges (to eat, sleep, defecate, and copulate, and so on) that energize human behaviour (Weiten, 2004). The id operates on the pleasure principle which demands immediate gratification of its urge. The id engages in primary process thinking, which is primitive, illogical, irrational and fantasy oriented.

The second component of personality is the ego. The ego is the decision – making component of personality that operates according to reality principle. The ego moderates between the id, with its decision for immediate satisfaction, and the external social world, with its expectations and norms regarding stable behaviour. The ego consider social realities – social norms, etiquette, rules, customs in deciding how to behave. The information – processing of ego is characterized by logic and reason and is referred to as the secondary process. Ego is receiving its power from the id at the same time controlling it as a rider on a horse. The horse in this metaphor is the id while the rider is the ego which may be strong, skillful or weak. In short, the ego often works to tame the unbridled desires of the id and delay its gratification until appropriate outlets are formed. Thus, the ego strives to avoid negative consequences from the society and its representatives by behaving properly.

The third component of personality according to Freud is the super ego. The super ego is the moral component of personality that incorporates what represent right and wrong in the society. The super ego emerges out of ego at around 3 to 5 years of age; and develops through the training people receive of what is good and what is bad. The super ego is partially conscious and partially unconscious.

On the other hand, Freud has also hypothesized levels of awareness. He proposed the existence of the unconscious mind which he said influenced behaviour. From the observations he made with his patients, he noticed that slips of tongue often revealed a person's true feelings. He also realized that his patients' dreams often expressed hidden desires. He used psychoanalysis to help his patients to resolve affective problems and conflicts of which they had previously been unaware. The unconscious, preconscious and conscious constitute Freud's three levels of awareness. The conscious consists of whatever one is aware of at a particular point in time. The preconscious contains material just beneath the surface of awareness that can easily be retrieved. While the unconscious contains thoughts, memories, and desires that are below the surface of conscious awareness but despite that it exerts great influence on behaviour.

Freud's conception of the mind is compared to an iceberg floating on water. Freud believed that only one third of the iceberg is visible and the visible part (conscious and preconscious) is largely controlled by the invisible (unconscious mind). He also proposed that the ego and super ego operate at all the three levels of awareness. In contrast, the id is entirely unconscious, expressing its wishes and desires at the conscious level only through the ego. The id's desire for immediate gratification often results in conflict with the ego and super ego. These conflicts play a key role in Freud's theory.

Freud assumed that behaviour is the outcome of ongoing internal conflicts within the components of the psyche. He saw the internal battle between the id, the ego and superego as ongoing because the id wants immediate gratification of its urges, but the ego always prevails on

the id checking on its excesses. Freud asserted that human life is dominated by conflicts; people stagger from one conflict to another. Freud believed that conflicts emanating from sex and aggression impulses are likely to have far reaching consequences. He concluded that based on his believe that sex and aggression are subject to more complex social controls than other motives. He asserted that the norms governing sexual and aggressive behaviour are subtle, and people often get confused about what is appropriate. Thus, Freud believed that these two drives (sex and aggression) are the source of much confusion. He also noted that sexual and aggression drives are thwarted more regularly than other biological urges. Hence Freud ascribed great importance to these drives because social norms dictate that they be routinely frustrated.

Another pillar of psychoanalysis is the psychosexual stages of development. Freud believed that the basic foundation of an individual's personality has been laid down by the tender age of 5 (Weiten, 2005). Freud formulated a five stage developmental stages, which emphasized on how young people deal with their sexual urges (physical pleasure). The sexual urges shift in focus as children progress from one stage of development to another. Thus,psychosexual stages are developmental stages with a pleasure focus that leave their mark on person's personality. Freud theorized that each psychosexual stage has its own developmental task, and the way these tasks are handled determines how individuals personality is sharpened; failure to help a child to complete a particular developmental task can result into what Freud called fixation. Fixation is the failure to move forward from one stage to another as expected due to excessive gratification or excessive frustration of needs.

The five psychosexual stages of development are: oral, anal, phallic, latency and genital stages.

**Oral stage** is the first stage during which the main source of erotic stimulation is the mouth (biting, chewing sucking and so on). According to Freud handling the child's feeding, and likewise its weaning is very important at this stage.

**Anal stage:** comes during the second year of the child and the source of child's erotic stimulation shifts from the mouth to the anus. At this stage children derive pleasure through either expulsion or retention of feces. The crucial activity at this stage is the toilet training.

**Phallic stage:** around the age of 4 the child's interest shifts from elimination organs to the genitals. During this stage the Oedipal/Electra complex emerge: at this stage boys develop preferences for their mothers, feeling hostility for the father; similarly girls develop preference to their father, feeling hostility toward their mother. Freud insisted that the phallic child has to crush longing for the opposite sex parent and hostility towards the same sex parent for easy identification, sex typing, conscience and other aspects of child's development.

**Latency stage:** This stage starts around the age of 6 and ends at puberty. At latency the child's sexuality is largely suppressed: boys and girls prefer to be in company of their own sex or even hate or neglect member of their opposite sex.

**Genital stage:** This psychosexual stage emerges when the boy or girl reaches puberty. The adolescent feel a strange feeling of strong sensation in the genitals, and there is strong attraction towards members of the opposite sex.

The theory of psychoanalysis can therefore be related to traumatic stress. Freud felt birth was our first stressful experience and that it continues to influence our later experiences. Our feelings of helplessness, of something awful happening, of overwhelming fears, as felt by traumatized

individuals, could be traced in part back to our birth according to Freud. Freud made reference to traumatic stress which was called traumatic neurosis during his time, that “if anxiety is the relation of the ego to danger, then it would be the obvious thing to regard the traumatic neurosis, which are so often the sequel to exposure of danger to life, as the direct result of life or death anxiety (Freud p66 in Ellis & Abrahams, 2008). Psychoanalytic treatment has attempted to bring about both short term and long term personality change by liberating unconsciously invested psychic energy and bringing it to the conscious awareness. This may definitely be of great help to traumatized individuals. On the other hand, psychoanalysis can also be related to some aspects of academic adjustment considering the conflict resolution issues in the theory.

### **2.3.5 Mechanisms of defense**

The theory of mechanisms of defense was founded by Sigmund Freud and later developed by his daughter, Anna Freud and his student, Alfred Adler. Freud expounded on anxieties as occasional by – product of conflicts within the mind and called it neurotic anxiety. Freud suggested that internal conflicts are mostly trivial hence they are quickly resolved. But occasionally a conflict will linger for a longer time often creating internal tension. Most of those prolonged and troublesome conflicts involve sexual and aggressive impulses that the society want to restrain. Although these conflicts often take place in the unconscious, they can produce anxieties that surfaces at the conscious awareness. These anxieties are attributed to either the id becoming too strong or the superego becoming too strong. According to Freud, anxiety is distressing, so people try by any means to find a way of relieving themselves of this unpleasant emotion.

The effort to clear anxiety often involves the use of an unconscious reaction called defense mechanism.

Repression is the basic and most widely used defense mechanism; it means keeping distressing thoughts and feelings buried in the unconscious. People tend to repress desires that make them feel guilty, conflicts that make them feel anxious and memories that are painful (Weiten, 2004). Repression has been called “motivated forgetting”, that is the unconscious process of forgetting things someone doesn’t like. Other defense mechanisms include: projection or attributing one’s own thought, feelings (usually anger) from their original source to a substitute target; reaction formation or behaving in a way that is exactly opposite of one’s true feelings; regression or reversion to immature patterns of behaviour; and identification is bolstering self-esteem by forming an imaginary (or even real) alliance with some people or group. Rajeevan (2011) observes that through the process of defense mechanism the thirst of id is satisfied and also the need of the unconscious is met without committing the individual to the dangers from external world. Although Freud’s defenses are unconscious mechanisms, they can be related to academic adjustment because they can help the individual to understand that life is full of conflicts and challenges and man has been equipped with various strategies for resolving conflicts and overcoming challenges.

### **2.3.6 Erik Erikson’s Theory: Psychosocial development**

Erikson’s curiosity for research on personality development was prompted when he noticed adjustment problems among Indian tribes of Sioux and Yurok in Central America. He hypothesized that their adjustment problem was due to their lack of being uprooted and a lack of



continuity between their present lifestyle and the one portrayed in their tribal history. He suggested that their inability to break with the past and embrace modern cultural values is an ego related and cultural related conflict. This impression was reinforced during the Second World War when Erikson worked at a war veteran's rehabilitation centre. He saw many soldiers who seemed to have lost a sense of who and what they were. Erikson suggested that they suffered identity confusion; they could not reconcile what they had left and done as soldiers with what they had known before the war (Gross, 1996).

While Freud was id psychologist, Erikson was ego psychologist. Erikson believed that conflict within the ego, not between the ego and the id, produced emotional disturbance. According to Erikson, personality is shaped by how individuals were able to overcome that psychological crisis. He postulated that each crisis involves a struggle between two opposing tendencies which he described in terms of dichotomies of desirable qualities and dangers. Erikson emphasized that a ratio in favour of the positive must be sought to overcome the developmental crises. Only when the positive quality is outweighed by the negative do difficulties in ego development arise.

Erikson suggested that the interaction between the individual and his environment produces eight psychological stages; each of which centered on a developmental crises. He viewed each stage as a tug of war that determined the subsequent balance between opposing polarities in personality. Erikson maintained that the individual's personality is built upon each previous stage, and balance is achieved by resolving the specified psychological crisis at each developmental stage. According to the theory, success at each stage results in a healthy personality and the acquisition of basic virtues or the strengths which ego can use to resolve subsequent crisis. While failure to

complete a stage successfully can result in ego's reduced ability to complete further stages and therefore a more unhealthy personality and sense of self. The first stage was called "trust versus mistrust" during which the infant has to depend completely on adults to take care of his or her basic needs. If the child's basic needs are adequately met by his or her caregiver and sound attachment are formed, the child develops an optimistic and trusting attitude towards the world. The psychosocial child then continues to progress through the subsequent stages – viz – "autonomy versus shame and doubt", "initiative versus guilt" "industry versus inferiority", etc.

Erikson was specifically more interested in personality development during adolescence stage because of its importance in shaping the life of the individual in the subsequent stages (Weiten, 2004). Although the struggle for a sense of identity is a lifelong process, it does tend to be specifically intense during the period of adolescence. The psychosocial crises during this stage pits identity against confusion. According to Erikson the principal challenge the adolescent faces is the struggle for a clear sense of identity. This struggle involves working out a stable concept of oneself as a unique individual and embracing an ideology or system of values that provide a sense of direction. In Erikson's view adolescents grapple with questions such as who am I and where am I going in life. From psychosocial stage of identity versus confusion, personality development continues through "intimacy versus isolation", "generativity versus stagnation" and the psychosocial stages of development end at "integrity versus despair".

Psychosocial theory of Erikson can be positively related to the adjustment of individuals during each of the eight developmental crises. The theory of Erikson can give us more insight on the necessity of social supports in academic adjustment; the importance of people in the individual's

immediate environment such as classmates, lecturers and parents is very clear from the theory. The theory also emphasized on the period of adolescence, a period an adolescent is expected to form a stable identity with regards to sex roles and occupational choice, is also the very time adolescents are expected to enroll in higher institutions of learning and to possess all the attributes that will help them to be well adjusted academically.

#### **2.4 Review of Empirical Studies**

There are a number of scholarly works on areas related to traumatic stress and academic adjustment. Nsereko, Nakigudde and Ssekiwu (2014) worked on traumatic experiences and poor mental health among university students in Uganda. The study aimed at exploring the association between University students' traumatic experiences and the resultant emotional, academic and anti – social behavioural problems. The study found high problem of traumatic experiences among Ugandan University students, more especially in older married students. The study concluded that there were high rate of traumatic experiences in more than one third of the students, and that gave rise to emotional and academic problems among the students. The work recommended effective screening for psychosocial problems among the university students preferably at the beginning of each academic session as part of their annual medical checkups.

A similar work was conducted by Peltzer, Pengpid and Olasupo (2013) among university students in Western Nigeria. Their study focused on determining the association between depression, socio-demographic, and health variable among university students. The study found a moderate prevalence of depression among a sample of the students; and the factors associated with depression were screened positive for PTSD, having sleeping problem and

poor academic performance., while findings of the study called for a combine intervention for depression, Sleeping problem, and PTSD commonly among university students. The study recommended coordinated mental health services to meet the needs of university student.

Another work of Pengpid, Peltzer and Skaal (2013) investigated the problems of mental health and HIV sexual risk behaviour among university of Limpopo students. The study focused on determining the association between mental, substance abuse and HIV sexual risk behaviour among a sample of university students in South Africa. The study found a high prevalence of depression and PTSD symptoms and substance use and high HIV risk behaviour (multiple sexual partners, unprotected sex, alcohol in the context of sex and unknown HIV status of a sexual partner). The study reported that lifetime experiences of violence were associated with depression and PTSD as has been found in previous studies; experience of forced sex and sexual partner violence were also associated with PTSD and depression among both men and women. The study also found that among women, but not among men, a history of sexual abuse as a child was associated with PTSD but not depression, and for both women and men a history of physical abuse as a child was associated with PTSD and only for men it was associated with depression. The study recommended that coordinated mental health services and sexual and reproductive health services to meet the needs of university students.

Similarly, Badri, Crutzen and Vanden Borne (2012) investigated the risk of exposures to war – related traumatic events among displaced Darfuri female university students. The study aimed at substantiating preceding study’s findings by exploring the severity of war related traumatic events and assessing PTSD symptomatology on a larger scale sample, and to investigate the association between war – related exposures and post traumatic disorder (PTSD) symptoms

among female students of Ahfad university for women (AUM) Omdurman. The study found that approximately 54% of the sample reported having personally experienced or witnessed war related traumatic events; about two – third (67%) of those who have personally experienced and/or witnessed war – related traumatic events have been in a combat situation where they have reported witnessing someone being killed, or having seen dead bodies, or witnessed beatings to the head or the body. The study also found that 50% of the students reported that their parents have lost goods, property and livestock as a direct result of the combat situation; and nearly 60% had family members or friends who have suddenly disappeared or kidnapped; while 42% reported being forcibly removed or denied access to their homes compelling them to flee their villages and suffered related loss of health and unhygienic displaced camp condition. The researchers coined the war related dimension as: combat, material loss, family loss and displacement. The research found a strong association between PTSD symptoms subscale with family loss and material loss; with family loss dimension showing strong association with PTSD, while material loss dimension seems to be moderately associated. The study recommended appropriate psychological intervention aimed at ameliorating PTSD symptoms. The study also suggested training in psycho education and community mentored development activities, including, peer and social support groups, are some ways that have been shown to relieve the burden of mental health problem within mental health domain.

However, the study of Ingala, Nall and Peters (2013) took a different dimension because it focused on military service members/veterans attending institutions of higher learning, and examined various aspects of their past military deployments and its impact on collage adjustment. Interpretation of the significant of post-traumatic stress disorder and perceive

social support in the form of both unit support and post deployment support and how these findings are related to previous research in PTSD and support were investigated. The result of the study pointed in the direction of assessing perception of unit support and post deployment support to investigate the effects of trauma for student veterans. Findings of the study provided evidence for the importance of unit support, in the form of having someone to go to for advice, money, assistance with moving or illness and positive reception upon returning from deployment make a significant difference in overcoming trauma and adjusting to college. The study called upon faculty staff, administrators, friends and family, and the community at large to make a difference in the life of veterans and military returning to college and struggling to overcome trauma and reintegrate into society. The study also suggested that psychologists working with veterans need to assess the level of perceived social support and its impact on college adjustment.

The study of Zinger and Cohen (2010) was also on the adjustment to college challenges among veteran students. The study was very important for the fact that America is fighting wars on many fronts and in many countries; colleges throughout the country are receiving large influx of returning veterans. The question the research asked was whether colleges can meet the need of this returning large population. The study also found that the veterans faced innumerable challenges after military service which would hamper with their academic adjustments: such as the challenge of coping with PTSD symptom, depression, physical injury, lack of structure in civilian life, and difficulties with personal relationships and social functioning. Many veterans found it especially challenging being the receptacle for negative public opinion against the American many wars. The study observed that symptom-clusters such as re-experiencing

war trauma, avoidance, numbing and hyper arousal can potentially affect a veteran student's ability to deal with the stress of a college education. The study also discovered that veterans do not often receive mental health counselling on entry which can facilitate their transition, even when they are suffering from a serious mental health disorder, younger families may also be less prepared to deal with the stress of recovery, rehabilitation and adjustment. The research therefore reported that veterans observed a shifting of their sense of self, the world and personal goals after their deployment: many of the veterans in the study described feeling alone due to experiencing a lack of support from college officials throughout the administrative process or because they didn't identify with their peers. The study recommended that college counselors should serve a pivotal role in the college community to help students with readjustment issues. Sensitivity training workshops should also be provided to both student-body and faculty with regards to helping relationship with students having PTSD problem.

Campus mass shooting is another area that catches the attention of researchers because of its disturbing high traumatic impact and its negative impact on students' academic adjustment. The study of Orcutt, Bonanno, Hannan and Miron (2014) examined a sample of undergraduate women with known levels of pre-shooting posttraumatic stress symptoms to test the impact of a campus mass shooting using latent growth mixture modeling. The research argued that empirical approaches to trauma reaction have historically focused on post-traumatic stress disorder on an average level analysis of continuous measures of trauma related adjustment which according to the research are limited and failed to capture the heterogeneity of trauma reaction over time. The result of the research showed that the majority of women have low resilience and psychological functioning after exposure to targeted mass violence. Findings of

the study suggested that post-trauma functioning and coping style are important factors in distinguishing between those who experience prolonged distress following trauma exposure and those who follow a course of recovery. While the work of Littleton, Kumpula and Orcutt (2011) sought to investigate the extent to which loss of psychosocial resources predicted PTSD symptomatology among college women who were exposed to the mass shooting at Northern Illinois University. Results of the study added to the growing literature supported the importance of resource loss in predicting adjustment following traumatic events. Results of the study reported that resource loss in the aftermath of a campus shooting predicted PTSD symptoms among college women both in the immediate aftermath of the shooting as well as in the long term. The result of the research also supported prior research on post-traumatic adjustment regarding predictors of PTSD symptomatology. Findings from the study had several implications for intervention and research in the area of mass trauma affecting whole community and not only those severely exposed. Thus, the study recommended interventions following mass trauma for individuals that are potentially in need and may still be in need of services many months afterwards. The study also reported that loss of psychosocial resources following a mass trauma appears to be a potentially high risk factor for experiencing short term and long term adjustment difficulties. This intervention procedure should focus on helping individuals restore psychosocial resources in the aftermath of a mass trauma. This will be very important according to the study.

Another similar work was that of Littleton, Grills – Taquechel and Axson (2009) that examined adjustment problems among college students following mass shooting at Virginia Tech (V.T). The work specifically investigated the extent to which loss and gain of interpersonal resources (e.g. Hope and intimacy) predicted psychological distress following the traumatic



experiences. Result of the study supported several tenets of conservation of resources theory, and suggested the applicability of conservation of Resources (COR) as a very important factor that improves adjustment of individuals following traumatic events. The study supported the primacy of resource loss in predicting adjustment in the initial aftermath of shooting, and prospectively predicted psychological distress 6 months after the shooting. The result also supported the notion that those lacking resources prior to a trauma are more vulnerable to resource loss, while social support and active coping with the shooting predicted resources gain. The implication of the results for the research suggested intervention given that many individuals are directly exposed to some aspects of the trauma and its consequence and are at risk of loss of resources and psychosocial distress. However, the result found that the weak relationship between resource gain and lower levels of psychological distress suggest that intervention solely focused on assisting individuals to experience resource gains following trauma may not lead to a significant impact on distress levels if they do not address restoration of valued loss resources. Therapeutic interventions are therefore potentially important for long term adjustment of students.

Wike and Fraser (2009) in their work on school shootings lamented that the recent brutalities have altered the seclusion and safety that once characterized public and higher institutions of learning. The researchers postulated that case comparisons are beginning to provide clues for understanding factors motivating shooting events (both individual and environmental factors). The researchers identified the characteristics of school shooters as fascination with weapon; depression, anger and suicidal ideation; rejection by peers and failed relationship; and victimization by peers. While the researchers suggested some environmental factors of school

condition that appear to relate with shootings such as low bonding and attachment between teachers and students and few opportunities for involvement. From the literatures, the researchers suggested six strategies that could reduce the vulnerability of schools to a shooting event;

- a. Strengthening school attachment;
- b. Reducing school aggression;
- c. Breaking down codes of silence;
- d. Establishing resources (e.g. Screening and intervention) for troubled and rejected students
- e. increasing security;
- f. Bolstering communication within the school and community agencies.

The researcher then recommended that schools should focus on addressing social and psychological condition of students which could reduce vulnerability and strengthen school experiences for all students

While the study of Lambert, Lambert & Lambert (2014) took another dimension by looking at different stressors that caused distress and post-traumatic stress disorders among student. The study confirmed that traumatic events and natural disasters on or outside campus may negatively affect students. The study suggested that students can manage the stress related to balancing course loads, employment, and social and family life; but other sources of stress are beyond the control of students, such as devastation from severe weather events and terrorist attacks. The article advice instructors that since acute PTSD symptoms are more likely to appear within the

first 24 hours after the traumatic event, they should provide information and discussion time during the class following a traumatic event; this measure significantly alleviate stress reactions. In addition when signs of PTSD are identified, university instructors should refer students to support services offered by the university. The study also suggested that when there is a mass trauma, instructors may need to be even more flexible in terms of structuring the class, class attention policy, or grading for the remainder of the semester. The work stressed that flexible instruction and grading after a traumatic event help students and gives them fair chance of succeeding.

Moreover, some researches focused on child abuse, resultant post-traumatic stress disorder and how it affects academic success of students. The work of Canton – Cortes and Canton (2010) examined the effects of child sexual abuse (CSA) on the use of coping strategies and post-traumatic stress disorder scores on young adults (college students) as well as the role of avoidance and coping strategies in those PTSD scores in victims. The participants in the research were sample of 1,416 female undergraduate students from the university of Granada (Spain); 83.7% of the participants came from intact families, 9.1% came from families with divorced parents; 4.9 had suffered the death of one or both parents; 1.3% came from a step family; 0.6% came from a family with cohabiting parents and 0.4% came from an adoptive family. Of the 1,416 participants, 164 or 11.5% reported having suffered some kind of sexual abuse before the age of fourteen. The result of the work showed that victims of child sexual abuse face greater difficulties in long term adjustment. The work also discovered that the use of self-destructive coping behaviours and avoidance can lead to a greater risk of having higher PTSD scores in young adults with a history of CSA. The study also concluded that in terms of

intervention, “spontaneous” approach strategies would probably not be related to more positive outcomes with regards to PTSD symptomatology, yet a reduction of avoidance – type strategies would appear to have a beneficial effect especially in intra-familial and/or continued CSA victims. The research recommended primary and secondary prevention of child abuse.

Moreover, the finding of the work of Stoeber (2007) suggested that counsellors should encourage their clients to actively deal with their problems rather than use avoidance as a form of coping, they should also make efforts to strengthen their social support networks, Stoeber observed that since some of the factors predictive of college adjustment may be deeply ingrained in the students before they enter college, intervention aimed at improving coping skills and social support may prove more efficient and effective for counselors; for example, small groups could be formed in hostels to give students a place to discuss issues related to their adjustment to college thereby providing needed social support and encouraging active coping.

## **2.5 Summary**

This chapter reviewed relevant literature under different headings and subheadings. The conceptual framework covered concepts of traumatic stress, academic adjustment and their relationships. The concept of traumatic stress, the history of traumatic stress, types of traumatic stress, post-traumatic stress disorders (PTSD), and negative impacts of traumatic stress on students were discussed. Also, the concept of academic adjustment, importance of academic adjustment to learning and factors that play vital roles in students’ academic adjustments were also discussed.

The theoretical framework reviewed theories related to traumatic stress and academic adjustment. Some theories of traumatic stress reviewed include: stress response theory, information processing theories, and conditioning theory. In addition, Sigmund Freud's theory of psychoanalysis and Erik Erikson psychosocial theory that explained origins of anxiety, origins of trauma and conflicts within the psyche, psychosocial crisis and adjustment were also discussed. Lastly, related studies were reviewed highlighting various traumatic experiences and how they impacted on students in higher institution of learning.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This study focused on the influence of traumatic stress on academic adjustment among tertiary institution students in Potiskum, Yobe State, Nigeria. In this chapter the procedure of the research methodology is discussed step by step under the following headings:

- Research design
- Population of the study
- Sample and sampling procedure
- Instruments for data collection
- Validity of the instrument
- Pilot study
- Procedure for data collection
- Procedure for data analysis

#### **3.2 Research Design**

Ex-post factor research design was selected for this study because the independent variable of the study (traumatic Stress) has happened and the researcher has no direct control over it. The researcher therefore, studied the aftermath of the occurrence. Olayiwola (2007) describes ex-post factor design as a retrospective study of a naturally occurring event (independent variable) and its outcome (dependent variable). The suitability of ex-post factor design is for the fact that the researcher was only interested in the influence of the independent variable, whose manifestations have already occurred, on the dependent variable without manipulating the independent variable.

The independent and the dependent variables of the research are traumatic stress and academic adjustment respectively. Koul (2009) observes that with ex-post design, the researcher can get valuable information and clues concerning the nature of the phenomenon, and he also suggested that the design is suitable for establishing causal relationships.

### 3.3 Population of the study

There are two tertiary institutions in Potiskum metropolis, viz; college of Administrative and Business Study and Federal College of Education (Technical). The population of this study comprises all students of the two institutions as indicated in table 3.1 below.

**Table 3.1: Population of tertiary institution students in Potiskum**

S/N	Name of School	Male	Female	Total
1	CABS Potiskum	1800	1460	3260
2	FCE (T) Potiskum	2105	1402	3507
	Total			6767

Source: Academic Research and Statistics offices of CABS and FCE (T), 2014

### 3.4 Sample and Sampling Procedure

The sample size of the population stood at 364 using the Krejcie and Morgan table of determining a sample. According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970), a population of 6767 will require a sample of 364. Proportionate stratified random sampling technique was used to select the sample size from male and female students of the two tertiary institutions based on their proportionate representation of the population. 450 questionnaires were distributed in the two

tertiary institutions in order to select the required sample. Only candidates who scored 30 and above on the traumatic stress questionnaire were selected based on the cut point provided for civilian primary care (National Centre for PTSD, 2010). Thus, the sample is represented in table 3.2

**Table 3.2: Sample of the study**

S/N	Name of School	Male	Female	Total
1	CABS Potiskum	96	79	175
2	FCE (T) Potiskum	113	76	189
	Total			364

### 3.5 Instruments for Data Collection

The two instruments used to generate relevant data for the study are Traumatic Stress Questionnaire (TSQ) and the Academic Adjustment Questionnaire (AAQ).

Traumatic Stress Questionnaire was adapted from the seventeen items questionnaire PTSD Checklist- Civilian Version (PCL-C) designed to measure individual's reaction to traumatic experiences (Weathers, Huska&Kaene, 1991). The original PTSD Checklist items were questions and the researcher changed them to statements following suggestion of one of the experts who validated the instruments; while few words were also removed to simplify the language. The instrument covers the main three symptoms of traumatic stress which are:

- Re-experiencing symptoms (items 1-5)
- Avoidance symptoms (items 6-10)
- Arousal symptoms (items 11-17)



Academic Adjustment Questionnaire (AAQ) is a seventeen (17) item questionnaire adapted from the Academic Adjustment sub-scale of the Students Adaptation to College Questionnaire (SACQ) which has the total of sixty four items divided into twelve clusters. Four clusters of the academic adjustment sub-scale of the SACQ were selected to form the Academic Adjustment Questionnaire in order to achieve the desired measurement of students' academic adjustments. The total number of items was reduced from 24 to 17 as suggested by one of the lecturers who validated the instruments. The five clusters of Academic Adjustment Questionnaire (AAC) are as follows:

- Motivation (items 1 – 4)
- Application (items 5 - 8)
- Performance (items 9 – 14)
- Academic Environment (items 15 – 17)

### **3.6 Validity of the Instruments**

The face and content validity of the Traumatic Stress Questionnaire (TSQ) and the Academic Adjustment Questionnaire (AAC) were determined by subjecting the two instruments to the scrutiny of experts from the department of educational psychology and counselling. This is in line with the view of Kelly *et al* in Koul (1997) who suggested that the content validation rest upon the expert's analysis of the material. The validation of TSQ and AAC were therefore achieved through the judgment of three (3) senior lecturers in the Department of Educational Psychology and Counselling, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria.

### **3.7 Pilot Study**

The two instruments for the study (TSQ Checklist and AAC) were pilot tested in Federal Polytechnic Damaturu using a sample of 50 respondents in order to evaluate feasibility, time, cost and adverse events, and to improve upon the study design before going into the full scale research work. Pilot study according to Ibrahim (2013) is to avoid time and money being wasted on an inadequately designed project. Damaturu the town chosen for the pilot study is 100km away from Potiskum the town of the main study. Damaturu is suitable for the pilot experiment because it has also witnessed serious security challenges similar to that of Potiskum. So the higher institution students of Damaturu have similar characteristics with that of Potiskum.

### **3.8 Reliability of the Instruments**

The data collected from the pilot study were statistically analyzed using Cronbach alpha to determine the internal consistencies of the two instruments (TSQ and AAC). Cronbach alpha estimates instrument's reliability from a single administration using information from the relationship among items of the instruments. Similarly, Cronbach alpha is also more preferred than split-half because it is the mean of all possible split-half coefficients that are computed by Rulon Method (Crocker & Algina, 1986). ). The statistical output shows reliability coefficient of .892 and .948 for Traumatic Stress and Academic Adjustment questionnaires respectively, which indicates that the two instruments are reliable and can be used for this study. Refer to appendix 2 and 3 for tables showing reliability statistics for the variables.

### **3.9 Procedure for Data Collection**

The researcher collected introductory letter from the department of Educational Psychology and Counseling, Ahmadu Bello University Zaria, addressing the affected schools about the pilot and main study that is to take place in their schools. In the course of data collection the researcher strictly abided by the ethics of research with regards to the rights of respondents of not being coerced to participate and also respondents rights to remain anonymous. The researcher trained three research assistants in each of the affected schools, who assisted in administration of the instruments. Koul (1997) suggested that data collection is important so that inferences, hypothesis or generalization may be identified as valid, verified as correct, or rejected as untenable.

### **3.10 Procedure for data analysis**

The purpose of the study, as stated earlier, is to examine the influence of traumatic stress on academic adjustment among tertiary institution students. Two instruments were used in the data collection to determine the relationship between independent variable and the dependent variable. The independent variable, traumatic stress, was analyzed and discussed in relation to the dependent variable which is academic adjustment. Each of the null hypotheses stated in chapter one,  $H_{01}$ ,  $H_{02}$ ,  $H_{03}$ ,  $H_{04}$ , were analyzed using inferential statistics. Independent t-test was used to establish the presence or absence of differences between the two variables in each of  $H_{01}$ ,  $H_{02}$ ,  $H_{03}$ , and  $H_{04}$ . Independent t-test was chosen because the researcher wants to compare the means of two independent groups e.g. male versus female, on-campus versus off-campus etc.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter analysed and discussed results of the study on influence of traumatic stress on academic adjustment among tertiary institutions students in Potiskum, Yobe state, Nigeria. The statistical Package of the Social Sciences (SPSS) IBM 20<sup>th</sup> Edition was used for the analysis of the data collected from a total of 364 respondents. The analysis is presented in five sections for easy comprehension. The first section presents the data analysis of the bio data variables (gender, school, schooling system, and age groups) in frequencies and percentages. The Second part presents the answers to each of the research questions raised in chapter one. The third part presents the tests of the five null research hypotheses using the Independent t-test statistics. All hypotheses were tested at 0.05 alpha level of significance. The summary of all the major findings was also presented as well as provision of relevant recommendations.

## 4.2 Analysis of bio data variables in frequencies and percentages

**Table 4.01 Distribution of respondents by gender**

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	209	57.4
Female	155	42.6
Total	364	100.0

Table 4.01 shows respondents' gender, 209 representing 57.4% are males and 155 representing 42.6% are females. This shows that both male and female students were well represented in this study.

**Table 4.02 Distribution of respondents by school**

School	Frequency	Percent
CABS Potiskum	175	48.1
FCE (T)Potiskum	189	51.9
Total	364	100.0

Table 4.02 above shows respondents' school, 175 or 48.1% of them are from CABS Potiskum while the remaining 189 representing 51.9% are from FCE (T) Potiskum.

**Table 4.03 Distribution of respondents by schooling system**

Schooling system	Frequency	Percent
On campus	115	31.6
Off campus	249	68.4
Total	364	100.0

The above table shows respondents schooling system, 115 representing 31.6% are on-campus students while 240 representing 68.4% are off-campus students.

**Table 4.04: Distribution of respondents by age**

Age	Frequency	Percent
21 Years and below	199	54.7
22 Years and above	165	45.3
Total	364	100.0

According to the table above, 199 or 54.7% of the respondents are 21 years and below and the remaining 165 respondents, representing 45.3%, are from 22 years and above.

### 4.3 Answering the Research Questions

**Research Question One:** What is the difference in academic adjustment of male and female students who experienced traumatic stress?

**Table 4.5** Academic adjustment of male and female students who experienced traumatic stress

Variable	Sex	N	Mean	Std.dev
Academic Adjustment	Male	209	55.4928	17.6627
	Female	155	43.6774	15.8253

Differences exist in academic adjustment of male and female students who experienced traumatic stress. Their calculated mean Academic adjustment of male and female students are 55.4923 and 43.6774 respectively, indicating a mean difference of 11.8154, implying that male students have higher academic adjustments than the female students.

**Research Question Two:** What is the difference in academic adjustment of Federal College of Education Technical and College of Administration and Business Studies (CABS) who experienced traumatic stress?

**Table 4.6** Academic adjustment of Federal College of Education Technical and College of Administration and Business Studies (CABS) who experienced traumatic stress

<b>Variable</b>	<b>School</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std.dev</b>
Academic	CABS Potiskum	175	50.0514	17.4248
Adjustment	FCE Potiskum	189	50.8413	18.3052

The above table shows that there is no significant difference in academic adjustment of Federal College of Education Technical and College of Administration and Business Studies (CABS) who experienced traumatic stress. The calculated mean Academic adjustment of Federal College of Education Technical and College of Administration and Business Studies (CABS) who experienced traumatic stress are 50.0514 and 50.8413 respectively, implying that there is no significant differences in the students level of academic adjustment on the basis of their school.

**Research Question Three:** What is difference in academic adjustment of on-campus and off-campus students who experienced traumatic stress?

**Table 4.7** Academic adjustment of on-campus and off-campus students who experienced traumatic stress

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Schooling system</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std.dev</b>
Academic Adjustment	On campus	115	51.4087	17.4491
	Off campus	249	50.0241	18.0748

The above table indicates that there is no difference in academic adjustment of on-campus and off-campus students who experienced traumatic stress. Their calculated mean Academic adjustment of on-campus and off-campus who experienced traumatic stress is 51.4087 and 50.0241 respectively, implying that there is no significant difference in the students' level of academic adjustment on the basis of their schooling system.



**Research Question Four.** What is the difference in academic adjustment of 21 years and below and 22 years and above students who experienced traumatic stress?

**Table 4.08** Academic adjustments of 21 years and below and 22 years and above students who experienced traumatic stress

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Age groups</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std.dev</b>
Academic Adjustment	21 years and below	199	51.1206	18.4263
	22 years and above	165	49.6667	17.1905

According to the descriptive statistics there is no significant difference in academic adjustment of 21 years and below and 22 years and above students who experienced traumatic stress. Their calculated mean Academic adjustment of 21 years and below and 22 years and above students who experienced traumatic stress are 51.1206 and 49.6667 respectively, implying that there is no significant differences in the students level of academic adjustment on the basis of their age groups.

#### 4.4 Hypotheses Testing

**Research Hypothesis One:** this null hypothesis state that there is no significant difference in academic adjustment of male and female students who experienced traumatic stress

**Table 4.09** Academic adjustment of male and female students who experienced traumatic stress

*Calculated p < 0.05, Calculated t > 1.96, at df 362*

Variable	Sex	N	Mean	Std.dev	Df	t cal.	Sig (p)
Academic_Adjustment	Male	209	55.4928	17.66274	362	6.593	0.000
	Female	155	43.6774	15.82532			

Results of the above table showed that significant difference exist in academic adjustment of male and female students who experienced traumatic stress. This is because the calculated p value of 0.000 is lower than the 0.05 alpha level of significance while the t-calculated value of 6.593 is higher than the t-critical value of 1.96, at df 362. Their calculated mean Academic adjustment of male and female students is 55.4923 and 43.6774 respectively, indicating a mean difference of 11.8154, implying that male students had higher academic adjustments than the female students. Therefore the null hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference in academic adjustment of male and female students who experienced traumatic stress is hereby rejected.

**Hypothesis Two:** the null hypothesis states that there is no significant difference in academic adjustment of Federal College of Education Technical and College of Administration and Business Studies (CABS) who experienced traumatic stress

**Table 4.10** Independent t-test on academic adjustment of Federal College of Education Technical and College of Administration and Business Studies (CABS) who experienced traumatic stress

*Calculated p > 0.05, Calculated t < 1.96, at df 362*

Variable	School	N	Mean	Std.dev	Df	t cal.	Sig (p)
Academic	CABS POTISKUM	175	50.0514	17.4248	362	0.421	0.674
Adjustment	FCE POTISKUM	189	50.8413	18.3052			

Results of the table above showed that there is no significant difference in academic adjustment of Federal College of Education Technical and College of Administration and Business Studies (CABS) who experienced traumatic stress. Reasons being that the calculated p value of 0.674 is higher than the 0.05 alpha level of significance while the t-calculated value of 0.421 is lower than the t-critical value of 1.96, at df 362. The calculated mean Academic adjustment of Federal College of Education Technical and College of Administration and Business Studies (CABS) who experienced traumatic stress are 50.0514 and 50.8413 respectively, implying that there is no significant differences in the students level of academic adjustment on the basis of their school.. Therefore the null hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference in academic adjustment of Federal College of Education Technical and College of Administration and Business Studies (CABS) who experienced traumatic stress, is hereby accepted and retained.

**Hypothesis Three:** this null hypothesis state that there is no significant difference in academic adjustment of on-campus and off-campus students who experienced traumatic stress

**Table 4.11** Independent t test statistics on difference in academic adjustment of on-campus and off-campus students who experienced traumatic stress

*Calculated p > 0.05, Calculated t < 1.96, at df 362*

Variable	Schooling system	N	Mean	Std.dev	Df	t cal	Sig (p)
Academic Adjustment	On campus	115	51.4087	17.4491	362	0.687	0.493
	Off campus	249	50.0241	18.0748			

Results of the table above showed that there is no significant difference in academic adjustment of on-campus and off-campus students who experienced traumatic stress

Reasons being that the calculated p value of 0.493 is higher than the 0.05 alpha level of significance while the t-calculated value of 0.687 is lower than the t-critical value of 1.96, at df 362. The calculated mean Academic adjustment of on-campus and off-campus who experienced traumatic stress is 51.4087 and 50.0241 respectively, implying that there is no significant difference in the student's level of academic adjustment on the basis of their schooling system. Therefore the null hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference in academic adjustment of On-campus and off-campus students who experienced traumatic stress, is hereby accepted and retained.

**Hypothesis Four:** this null hypothesis state that there is no significant difference in academic adjustment of 21 years and below and 22 years and above students who experienced traumatic stress

**Table 4.12** Independent t test statistics on difference in academic adjustment of 21 years and below and 22 years and above students who experienced traumatic stress  
*Calculated p > 0.05, Calculated t< 1.96, at df 362*

Variable	Age groups	N	Mean	Std.dev	Df	t cal	Sig (p)
Academic Adjustment	21 years and below	199	51.1206	18.4263'	362	0.772	0.440
	22 years and above	165	49.6667	17.1905			

Results of the table above showed that there is no significant difference in academic adjustment of 21 years and below and 22 years and above students who experienced traumatic stress. Reasons being that the calculated p value of 0.440 is higher than the 0.05 alpha level of significance while the t-calculated value of 0.772 is lower than the t-critical value of 1.96, at df 362. The calculated mean Academic adjustment of 21 years and below and 22 years and above students who experienced traumatic stress is 51.1206 and 49.6667 respectively, implying that there is no significant difference in the students' level of academic adjustment on the basis of their age groups. Therefore the null hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference in academic adjustment of 21 years and below, and 22 years and above students who experienced traumatic stress, is hereby accepted and retained.

#### 4.5 Summary of major findings

The following are the summary of the major findings of the study:

1. Significant difference exists in academic adjustment of male and female students who experienced traumatic stress ( $t=6.593$ ,  $p=0.000$ ). The calculated mean Academic adjustment of male and female students is 55.4923 and 43.6774 respectively, indicating a mean difference of 11.8154, implying that the male students have higher academic adjustments than the female students.
2. There is no significant difference in academic adjustment of students of Federal College of Education Technical and College of Administration and Business Studies (CABS) who experienced traumatic stress ( $t=0.421$ ,  $p=0.674$ ). The calculated mean Academic adjustment of Federal College of Education Technical and College of Administration and Business Studies (CABS) who experienced traumatic stress are 50.0514 and 50.8413 respectively, implying that there is no significant differences in the students level of academic adjustment on the basis of their school.
3. There is no significant difference in academic adjustment of on-campus and off-campus students who experienced traumatic stress ( $t=0.687$ ,  $p=0.493$ ). The calculated mean Academic adjustment of on-campus and off-campus who experienced traumatic stress is 51.4087 and 50.0241 respectively, implying that there is no significant difference in the students' level of academic adjustment on the basis of their schooling system.
4. There is no significant difference in academic adjustment of 21 years and below and 22 years and above students who experienced traumatic stress ( $t=0.772$ ,  $p=0.440$ ). The calculated mean Academic adjustment of 21 years and below and 22 years and above

students who experienced traumatic stress are 51.1206 and 49.6667 respectively, implying that there is no significant differences in the students level of academic adjustment on the basis of their age groups.

#### **4.6 Discussions of the Findings**

The findings of this study is in line with the work of Updegraff and Taylor (2000) which reported that the ugly by-products of traumatic stress such as depression, anxiety and cognitive intrusive thoughts and rumination can interfere with a person's normal activities and successful adjustment. The finding is also in line with Stoeber's (2001) revelation that the presence of any of the three forms of stressors (acute, major and chronic stressors) in the life of students is associated with poor academic performance and academic adjustment.

Similarly, the report of RAND (2006) suggested that classroom activity of traumatized students may decline because of inability to concentrate, frequent flashbacks or preoccupation with the trauma and a wish to avoid school and other places that might remind students with the trauma. Moreover, the finding of the work of Brock and Cowan (2004) also suggested that students that experienced traumatic stress may have trouble sleeping, participating in class activities and completing class assignments, lose interest in co-curricular activities and friendship and are at risk of substance abuse and alcohol abuse, reckless behavior and suicide. This finding is also in line with the study of Peltzer, Pengpid and Olasupo (2013) which found that students who were screened positive for PTSD are having poor academic performance and academic adjustment. This finding is also in line with the work of Allam (2011) which showed that stress and

depression affects the academic life of students, their concentration in class, their productivity in their school work, and their interpersonal relationship.

Findings of this study also showed that there is significant difference in academic adjustment of male and female students who experienced traumatic stress, implying that the male students have higher academic adjustments than the female students. This is in line with the findings of the study of Orcutt, Bonanno, and Miron (2014) which stated that majority of women have low resilience and psychological functioning after exposure to mass violence. Another work that agrees with this finding is that of Wagna and Compas in Allam (2011) which examined the perceived stressfulness of stressful life events and found that stressfulness is higher for women in general. While the study of Sangeeta and Chirag (2012) agreed with the finding of this study as its result indicated that male college students have less adjustment problems than their female counterparts. Similarly, Al-Qaisy (2010) in his work on college freshmen revealed that males can adjust better than females because they have the ability to have social relations with others more than the females. But this finding does not support works of Omotoso(2006) and Zettergren (2003) who found no gender difference on the academic adjustment of both male and female students under their studies.



## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

#### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter presented the summary, conclusion and recommendations on assessing the influence of traumatic stress on academic adjustment among tertiary institutions students in Potiskum, Yobe state, Nigeria.

#### 5.2 Summary

Traumatic stress or exposure to terrible events is a serious problem that can affect students. The widespread terrorist activities in North Eastern Nigeria and prevalent attacks on schools has motivated this research whose focus is to find out the influence of the resultant traumatic stress on academic adjustment of tertiary institution students. To guide the research four objectives were raised, and four research questions together with four hypotheses were stated. The study is significant as it will provide government, curriculum planners, and other stakeholders, information on how traumatic stress influences the academic adjustment of the tertiary institution students and formulating new approaches to control this ugly trend.

Comprehensive literature related to this study was reviewed. The key variables of the study, traumatic stress and academic adjustment, were thoroughly discussed and reviewed. Theoretical frameworks related to the study were also discussed. Thus, stress response theory, information processing theory, conditioning theory, psychoanalytic theory and Erik Erikson's theory of psychosocial development were all discussed to highlight their relevance to the variables of the study. Several empirical studies that are related to the variables of this study were also discussed.

The design adopted in carrying out this research is the Ex post facto design. And Krejcie and Morgan table was used in determining a sample size of 364 students. Proportionate stratified sampling technique was used in selecting the sample. Two instruments were used for data collection, they are the 17 item Traumatic Stress Questionnaire, and 17 item Academic Adjustment Questionnaire. The pilot study was conducted on 50 students of Federal Polytechnic Damaturu, and the result showed that the instruments are reliable.

The data collected for the study were analyzed using the SPSS IBM 20th edition. The bio data variables were analyzed by frequencies and percentages while the research questions were answered using the mean levels. The four null hypotheses were tested at 0.05 alpha level of significance using the comparative inferential statistics of two sample independent t-test, and the following findings were drawn from the study:

1. Male and female traumatized students differ in their academic adjustments.
2. School, schooling system, and age groups do not determine the level of academic adjustment of traumatized

### **5.3 Conclusions**

The study studied the influence of traumatic stress on academic adjustment among tertiary institutions students in Potiskum Yobe state, Nigeria. The following conclusions can be deduced based on the findings of the study:

- 1 Male students had higher academic adjustments than the female students..
- 2 There is no significant difference in the student's level of academic adjustment on the basis of their school.
- 3 There is no significant difference in the student's level of academic adjustment on the basis of their schooling system.
- 4 There is no significant difference in the student's level of academic adjustment on the basis of their age groups.

### **5.4 Recommendations**

The following recommendations are suggested based on the results obtained from the study:

1. Educational Psychologists, Parents, Counsellors and teachers should provide maximum support to the traumatized students and continually reassure them of a positive future in order to improve their academic adjustments.
2. Students should be sensitized with appropriate orientation and intervention treatment at the time of admission irrespective of gender.
3. Educators and teachers should consider flexible instruction, grading, and other class activities.

4. School help centers should be provided and equipped to take good care of the traumatized students irrespective of gender.
5. Scholarships and sponsorship to social activities will also make positive impacts on the traumatized students irrespective of gender.
6. Government should provide rehabilitation centers that will take care of students who suffer from acute traumatic stress.

### **5.5 Suggestions For further studies**

Based on the outcome of this study, the following suggestions for further studies are given:

1. The study is by no means exhausted, especially as the study is concentrated only on tertiary institutions in Potiskum town of Yobe state. Therefore it becomes imperative that further studies could be undertaken at investigating influence of traumatic stress on school adjustment among both primary and secondary school students in Yobe state and beyond.
2. And also further studies could be carried out at assessing the influence of socio economic and cultural background on the academic adjustment of traumatized students in our tertiary institutions

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## APPENDIX 1

Department of Educational  
Psychology & Counselling  
Ahmadu Bello University,  
Zaria.  
Date: 23/03/2015.

Dear Respondents,

### TRAUMATIC STRESS AND ACADEMIC ADJUSTMENT QUESTIONNAIRES

The researcher is a masters' degree student of the above named university conducting a study on the influence of traumatic stress on academic adjustment among tertiary institutions students. These questionnaires are designed to collect data in order to achieve this purpose.

Please fill in the questionnaires according to the instructions in the respective sections. Be honest and thoughtful of ALL the questions.

#### Section 'A' – Bio-data

**Instructions:** Please tick (√) one answer only.

Gender: Male [ ] Female [ ]

School: CABS Potiskum [ ] FCE (T) Potiskum [ ]

Schooling System: On-campus [ ] Off-campus [ ]

Age 21 years and below [ ] 22 years and above [ ]

#### Section 'B': Traumatic Stress

Please read each of the following items carefully and tick in the box to indicate how much you have been bothered by that problem *in the last month*.

**Key: Extremely (5); Quite a bit (4); Moderately (3); A little bit (2); Not at all (1)**

No.	Response	Extremely (5)	Quite a bit (4)	Moderately (3)	A little bit (2)	Not at all (1)
1	I am bothered with repeated disturbing thoughts of a terrible experience from the past.					
2	I experience repeated disturbing dreams of a terrible experience from the past.					
3	I suddenly act or feel as if a terrible experience were happening again.					
4	I feel very upset when something reminded me of a terrible experience from the past.					
5	I have physical reactions (e.g., heart pounding, trouble					

	breathing, or sweating) when something reminded me of a terrible experience from the past.					
6	I avoid thinking about or talking about a terrible experience from the past.					
7	I avoid activities or situations that remind me of a terrible experience from the past					
8	I find it difficult remembering important parts of a terrible experience from the past.					
9	I lose interest in things that I use to enjoy.					
10	I feel cut off from other people.					
11	I feel emotionally numb or being unable to have loving feelings for those close to me.					
12	I feel as if my future will somehow be cut short.					
13	I have trouble falling or staying asleep.					
14	I feel irritable or have angry outbursts.					
15	I have trouble with my level of concentration.					
16	I am always super alert and watchful.					
17	I feel jumpy or easily startled.					

Adapted from Weather, F.W., Huska, J.A., Keane, T.M. (1991). Posttraumatic Stress Disorder Checklist – Civilian Version (*PCL-C*) for *DSM-IV*. Boston: National Centre for PTSD – Behavioural Science Division, 1991.

### Section ‘C’: Academic Adjustment

Key: *Extremely (5); Quite a bit (4); Moderately (3); A little bit (2); Not at all (1)*

No		Extremely (5)	Quite a bit (4)	Moderately (3)	A little bit (2)	Not at all (1)
1.	I have well-defined academic goals					
2.	I considers school certificate important					
3.	I doubt value of school certificate					
4.	I enjoy academic work					
5.	Most of my interests are not related to course work					

6.	I am up-to-date with academic work					
7.	I do not work as hard as I should					
8.	I am not motivated to study					
9.	I attend classes regularly					
10	I find academic work difficult					
11	I am satisfied with my academic performance					
12	I do not use study time efficiently					
13	I have trouble concentrating when studying					
14	I do not do well academically, considering effort					
15	I have trouble doing my assignments					
16	I am satisfied with variety of courses					
17	I am satisfied with our lecturers					

Adapted from Baker, R.W., & Sirik, B. (1989). Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire (SACQ). Western Psychological Services.

**APPENDIX 3**

**Influence of Traumatic stress on Academic Adjustment among Tertiary institutions students in Yobe state**

**TRAUMATIC STRESS**

**Reliability**

**Scale: ALL VARIABLES**

**Case Processing Summary**

		N	%
Cases	Valid	50	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	50	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

**Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.892	.859	17

**Item Statistics**

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
I am bothered with repeated disturbing thoughts of a terrible experience from the past	1.24	.517	50
I experience repeated disturbing dreams of a terrible experience from the past	1.22	.465	50
I suddenly act or feel as if a terrible experience were happening again	1.30	.544	50
I feel very upset when something reminded me of a terrible experience from the past	1.52	.886	50

I have physical reactions(eg heart pounding, trouble breathing, or sweating) when something reminds me of a terrible experience from the past	4.12	1.003	50
I avoid thinking about or talking about a terrible experience from the past	4.06	1.132	50
I avoid activities or situations that remind me of a terrible experience from the past	4.00	1.143	50
I find it difficult reminding important parts of a terrible experience from the past	3.80	1.050	50
I lose interest in things that I use to enjoy	4.00	1.212	50
I feel cut off from other people	3.96	1.160	50
I feel emotionally numb or being unable to have loving feelings for others close to me	3.84	1.184	50
I feel as if my future will somehow be cut short	3.74	1.209	50
I have trouble falling or staying asleep	3.84	1.149	50
I feel irritable or have angry outbursts	3.96	1.245	50
I have trouble with my level of concentration	3.70	1.249	50
I am always super alert and watchful	3.62	1.338	50
I feel jumpy or easily startled	3.82	1.224	50

**Summary Item Statistics**

	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Item Means	3.279	1.220	4.120	2.900	3.377	1.274	17

**Scale Statistics**

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
55.74	122.809	11.082	17



## ACADEMIC ADJUSTMENT

### Reliability

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

#### Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	50	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	50	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

#### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.947	.948	17

#### Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
I have well-defined academic goals	3.54	1.297	50
I consider school certificate important	3.56	1.343	50
I doubt value of school certificate	3.50	1.298	50
I enjoy academic work	3.32	1.332	50
most of my interests are not related to course work	3.54	1.265	50
I am up-to-date with academic work	3.54	1.388	50
I do not work as hard as I should	3.68	1.406	50
I am not motivated to study	3.48	1.460	50
I attend classes regularly	3.52	1.403	50
I find academic work difficult	3.58	1.386	50

I am satisfied with my academic performance	3.62	1.602	50
I do not use study time efficiently	3.58	1.527	50
I have trouble concentrating when studying	3.32	1.406	50
I do not do well academically, considering effort	3.42	1.513	50
I have trouble doing my assignments	3.26	1.397	50
I am satisfied with variety of courses	3.30	1.488	50
I am satisfied with our lectures	3.48	1.529	50

**Summary Item Statistics**

	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Item Means	3.485	3.260	3.680	.420	1.129	.015	17

**Scale Statistics**

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
59.24	314.594	17.737	17

## APPENDIX 4

### Frequencies

#### Frequency Table

		<b>gender</b>			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	MALE	209	57.4	57.4	57.4
	FEMALE	155	42.6	42.6	100.0
	Total	364	100.0	100.0	

		<b>school</b>			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	CABS POTISKUM	175	48.1	48.1	48.1
	FCE POTISKUM	189	51.9	51.9	100.0
	Total	364	100.0	100.0	

		<b>schooling system</b>			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	ON CAMPUS	115	31.6	31.6	31.6
	OFF CAMPUS	249	68.4	68.4	100.0
	Total	364	100.0	100.0	

		<b>age</b>			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	21 YEARS AND BELOW	199	54.7	54.7	54.7
	22 YEARS AND ABOVE	165	45.3	45.3	100.0
	Total	364	100.0	100.0	

**Hypo1**

**T-Test**

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
ACADEMIC_ADJUSTMENT	MALE	209	55.4928	17.66274	1.22176
	FEMALE	155	43.6774	15.82532	1.27112

**Independent Samples Test**

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	t-test for Equality of Means								
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
ACADEMIC_ADJUSTMENT	Equal variances assumed	13.225	.000	6.593	362	.000	11.81540	1.79201	8.29135	15.33945
	Equal variances not assumed			6.702	349.272	.000	11.81540	1.76308	8.34782	15.28298

T-TEST GROUPS=sch(1 2)  
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 /VARIABLES=ACADEMIC\_ADJUSTMENT  
 /CRITERIA=CI(.95).

**Hypo2**  
**T-Test**

**Group Statistics**

	school	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
ACADEMIC_ADJUSTMENT	CABS POTISKUM	175	50.0514	17.42480	1.31719
	FCE POTISKUM	189	50.8413	18.30522	1.33151

**Independent Samples Test**

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	t-test for Equality of Means								
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
ACADEMIC_ADJUSTMENT	Equal variances assumed	1.869	.172	-.421	362	.674	-.78984	1.87650	-4.48006	2.90037
	Equal variances not assumed			-.422	361.719	.673	-.78984	1.87294	-4.47306	2.89338

T-TEST GROUPS=systwem(1 2)  
/MISSING=ANALYSIS  
/VARIABLES=ACADEMIC\_ADJUSTMENT  
/CRITERIA=CI(.95).

**Hypo 3**

**T-Test**

**Group Statistics**

	schooling system	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
ACADEMIC_ADJUSTMENT	ON CAMPUS	115	51.4087	17.44912	1.62714
	OFF CAMPUS	249	50.0241	18.07487	1.14545

**Independent Samples Test**

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
								Lower	Upper	
ACADEMIC_ADJUSTMENT	Equal variances assumed	.271	.603	.687	362	.493	1.38460	2.01592	-2.57979	5.34899
	Equal variances not assumed			.696	229.120	.487	1.38460	1.98988	-2.53621	5.30541

T-TEST GROUPS=age(1 2)  
 /MISSING=ANALYSIS  
 /VARIABLES=ACADEMIC\_ADJUSTMENT  
 /CRITERIA=CI(.95).

**Hypo4**  
**T-Test**

**Group Statistics**

	age	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
ACADEMIC_ADJUSTMENT	21 YEARS AND BELOW	199	51.1206	18.42636	1.30621
	22 YEARS AND ABOVE	165	49.6667	17.19059	1.33829

**Independent Samples Test**

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
ACADEMIC_ADJUSTMENT	Equal variances assumed	2.455	.118	.772	362	.440	1.45394	1.88226	-2.24760	5.15547
	Equal variances not assumed			.777	356.970	.437	1.45394	1.87008	-2.22382	5.13169

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**q1 traumatic  
Frequencies**

**Notes**

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	Cases Used	Statistics are based on all cases with valid data.
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[DataSet2] C:\Documents and Settings\user\My Documents\abdullahimar.sav

	I am bothered with repeated disturbing thoughts of a terrible experience from the past	I experience repeated disturbing dreams of a terrible experience from the past	I suddenly act or feel as if a terrible experience were happening again	I feel very upset when something reminded me of a terrible experience from the past	I have physical reactions(eg heart pounding, trouble breathing, or sweating) when something reminds me of a terrible experience from the past	I avoid thinking about or talking about a terrible experience from the past	I avoid activities or situations that remind me of a terrible experience from the past	I find it difficult reminding important parts of a terrible experience from the past	I lose interest in things that I use to enjoy	I feel cut off from other people	I feel emotionally numb or being unable to have loving feelings for others close to me	I feel as if my future will somehow be cut short	I have trouble falling or staying asleep	I feel irritable or have angry outbursts	I have trouble with my level of concentration	I am always super alert and watchful	I feel jumpy or easily startled
Valid N	364	364	364	364	364	364	364	364	364	364	364	364	364	364	364	364	364
Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	1.98	1.86	1.85	1.83	3.57	3.51	3.25	3.26	3.33	3.19	3.25	3.13	3.31	3.18	3.27	3.12	2.96
Std. Deviation	1.217	1.076	1.134	1.134	1.297	1.353	1.480	1.353	1.520	1.544	1.454	1.494	1.402	1.562	1.378	1.500	1.540

**Frequency Table**

**I am bothered with repeated disturbing thoughts of a terrible experience from the past**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid NOT AT ALL	174	47.8	47.8	47.8
A LITTLE BIT	109	29.9	29.9	77.7
MODERATE	5	1.4	1.4	79.1
QUITE A BIT	65	17.9	17.9	97.0
EXTREMELY	11	3.0	3.0	100.0
Total	364	100.0	100.0	

**I experience repeated disturbing dreams of a terrible experience from the past**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid NOT AT ALL	175	48.1	48.1	48.1
A LITTLE BIT	127	34.9	34.9	83.0
MODERATE	5	1.4	1.4	84.3
QUITE A BIT	53	14.6	14.6	98.9
EXTREMELY	4	1.1	1.1	100.0
Total	364	100.0	100.0	

**I suddenly act or feel as if a terrible experience were happening again**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid NOT AT ALL	191	52.5	52.5	52.5
A LITTLE BIT	104	28.6	28.6	81.0
MODERATE	9	2.5	2.5	83.5
QUITE A BIT	53	14.6	14.6	98.1
EXTREMELY	7	1.9	1.9	100.0
Total	364	100.0	100.0	

**I feel very upset when something reminded me of a terrible experience from the past**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid NOT AT ALL	195	53.6	53.6	53.6
A LITTLE BIT	103	28.3	28.3	81.9
MODERATE	4	1.1	1.1	83.0
QUITE A BIT	56	15.4	15.4	98.4
EXTREMELY	6	1.6	1.6	100.0
Total	364	100.0	100.0	

**I have physical reactions(eg heart pounding,trouble breathing, or sweating) when something reminds me of a terrible experience from the past**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	NOT AT ALL	34	9.3	9.3
	A LITTLE BIT	64	17.6	26.9
	MODERATE	20	5.5	32.4
	QUITE A BIT	151	41.5	73.9
	EXTREMELY	95	26.1	100.0
	Total	364	100.0	100.0

**I avoid thinking about or talking about a terrible experience from the past**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	NOT AT ALL	39	10.7	10.7
	A LITTLE BIT	73	20.1	30.8
	MODERATE	13	3.6	34.3
	QUITE A BIT	142	39.0	73.4
	EXTREMELY	97	26.6	100.0
	Total	364	100.0	100.0

**I avoid activities or situations that remind me of a terrible experience from the past**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	NOT AT ALL	68	18.7	18.7
	A LITTLE BIT	68	18.7	37.4
	MODERATE	23	6.3	43.7
	QUITE A BIT	114	31.3	75.0
	EXTREMELY	91	25.0	100.0
	Total	364	100.0	100.0

**I find it difficult reminding important parts of a terrible experience from the past**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	NOT AT ALL	65	17.9	17.9
	A LITTLE BIT	40	11.0	28.8
	MODERATE	55	15.1	44.0
	QUITE A BIT	142	39.0	83.0
	EXTREMELY	62	17.0	100.0
	Total	364	100.0	100.0

**I lose interest in things that I use to enjoy**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid NOT AT ALL	80	22.0	22.0	22.0
A LITTLE BIT	34	9.3	9.3	31.3
MODERATE	40	11.0	11.0	42.3
QUITE A BIT	105	28.8	28.8	71.2
EXTREMELY	105	28.8	28.8	100.0
Total	364	100.0	100.0	

**I feel cut off from other people**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid NOT AT ALL	90	24.7	24.7	24.7
A LITTLE BIT	46	12.6	12.6	37.4
MODERATE	22	6.0	6.0	43.4
QUITE A BIT	117	32.1	32.1	75.5
EXTREMELY	89	24.5	24.5	100.0
Total	364	100.0	100.0	

**I feel emotionally numb or being unable to have loving feelings for others close to me**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid NOT AT ALL	77	21.2	21.2	21.2
A LITTLE BIT	43	11.8	11.8	33.0
MODERATE	33	9.1	9.1	42.0
QUITE A BIT	135	37.1	37.1	79.1
EXTREMELY	76	20.9	20.9	100.0
Total	364	100.0	100.0	

**I feel as if my future will somehow be cut short**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid NOT AT ALL	89	24.5	24.5	24.5
A LITTLE BIT	46	12.6	12.6	37.1
MODERATE	27	7.4	7.4	44.5
QUITE A BIT	131	36.0	36.0	80.5
EXTREMELY	71	19.5	19.5	100.0
Total	364	100.0	100.0	

**I have trouble falling or staying asleep**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	NOT AT ALL	59	16.2	16.2
	A LITTLE BIT	56	15.4	31.6
	MODERATE	47	12.9	44.5
	QUITE A BIT	117	32.1	76.6
	EXTREMELY	85	23.4	100.0
	Total	364	100.0	100.0

**I feel irritable or have angry outbursts**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	NOT AT ALL	91	25.0	25.0
	A LITTLE BIT	51	14.0	39.0
	MODERATE	16	4.4	43.4
	QUITE A BIT	114	31.3	74.7
	EXTREMELY	92	25.3	100.0
	Total	364	100.0	100.0

**I have trouble with my level of concentration**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	NOT AT ALL	61	16.8	16.8
	A LITTLE BIT	59	16.2	33.0
	MODERATE	32	8.8	41.8
	QUITE A BIT	145	39.8	81.6
	EXTREMELY	67	18.4	100.0
	Total	364	100.0	100.0

**I am always super alert and watchful**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	NOT AT ALL	90	24.7	24.7
	A LITTLE BIT	45	12.4	37.1
	MODERATE	34	9.3	46.4
	QUITE A BIT	121	33.2	79.7
	EXTREMELY	74	20.3	100.0
	Total	364	100.0	100.0

**I feel jumpy or easily startled**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid				
NOT AT ALL	91	25.0	25.0	25.0
A LITTLE BIT	76	20.9	20.9	45.9
MODERATE	43	11.8	11.8	57.7
QUITE A BIT	65	17.9	17.9	75.5
EXTREMELY	89	24.5	24.5	100.0
Total	364	100.0	100.0	

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**Frequencies q2 acad adjustment**

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	I have well-defined academic goals	I consider school certificate important	I doubt value of school certificate	I enjoy academic work	most of my interests are not related to course work	I am up-to-date with academic work	I do not work as hard as I should	I am not motivated to study	I attend classes regularly	I find academic work difficult	I am satisfied with my academic performance	I do not use study time efficiently	I have trouble concentrating when studying	I do not do well academically, considering effort	I have trouble doing my assignments	I am satisfied with variety of courses	I am satisfied with our lectures
Valid N	364	364	364	364	364	364	364	364	364	364	364	364	364	364	364	364	364
Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	2.90	3.09	2.91	2.80	3.05	3.03	3.13	3.05	3.00	3.15	3.09	3.07	2.98	2.82	2.78	2.72	2.89
Std. Deviation	1.444	1.428	1.493	1.376	1.413	1.452	1.495	1.415	1.509	1.427	1.568	1.515	1.333	1.430	1.349	1.525	1.540

**Frequency Table**

**I have well-defined academic goals**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid NOT AT ALL	80	22.0	22.0	22.0
A LITTLE BIT	92	25.3	25.3	47.3
MODERATE	44	12.1	12.1	59.3
QUITE A BIT	81	22.3	22.3	81.6
EXTREMELY	67	18.4	18.4	100.0
Total	364	100.0	100.0	

**I consider school certificate important**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid NOT AT ALL	59	16.2	16.2	16.2
A LITTLE BIT	95	26.1	26.1	42.3
MODERATE	47	12.9	12.9	55.2
QUITE A BIT	80	22.0	22.0	77.2
EXTREMELY	83	22.8	22.8	100.0
Total	364	100.0	100.0	

**I doubt value of school certificate**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid NOT AT ALL	91	25.0	25.0	25.0
A LITTLE BIT	79	21.7	21.7	46.7
MODERATE	35	9.6	9.6	56.3
QUITE A BIT	89	24.5	24.5	80.8
EXTREMELY	70	19.2	19.2	100.0
Total	364	100.0	100.0	

**I enjoy academic work**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid NOT AT ALL	78	21.4	21.4	21.4
A LITTLE BIT	107	29.4	29.4	50.8
MODERATE	34	9.3	9.3	60.2
QUITE A BIT	99	27.2	27.2	87.4
EXTREMELY	46	12.6	12.6	100.0
Total	364	100.0	100.0	



**most of my interests are not related to course work**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid NOT AT ALL	82	22.5	22.5	22.5
A LITTLE BIT	62	17.0	17.0	39.6
MODERATE	19	5.2	5.2	44.8
QUITE A BIT	156	42.9	42.9	87.6
EXTREMELY	45	12.4	12.4	100.0
Total	364	100.0	100.0	

**I am up-to-date with academic work**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid NOT AT ALL	74	20.3	20.3	20.3
A LITTLE BIT	88	24.2	24.2	44.5
MODERATE	24	6.6	6.6	51.1
QUITE A BIT	110	30.2	30.2	81.3
EXTREMELY	68	18.7	18.7	100.0
Total	364	100.0	100.0	

**I do not work as hard as I should**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid NOT AT ALL	80	22.0	22.0	22.0
A LITTLE BIT	64	17.6	17.6	39.6
MODERATE	30	8.2	8.2	47.8
QUITE A BIT	109	29.9	29.9	77.7
EXTREMELY	81	22.3	22.3	100.0
Total	364	100.0	100.0	

**I am not motivated to study**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid NOT AT ALL	60	16.5	16.5	16.5
A LITTLE BIT	101	27.7	27.7	44.2
MODERATE	35	9.6	9.6	53.8
QUITE A BIT	95	26.1	26.1	79.9
EXTREMELY	73	20.1	20.1	100.0
Total	364	100.0	100.0	

**I attend classes regularly**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	NOT AT ALL	93	25.5	25.5
	A LITTLE BIT	63	17.3	42.9
	MODERATE	32	8.8	51.6
	QUITE A BIT	104	28.6	80.2
	EXTREMELY	72	19.8	100.0
	Total	364	100.0	100.0

**I find academic work difficult**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	NOT AT ALL	66	18.1	18.1
	A LITTLE BIT	78	21.4	39.6
	MODERATE	28	7.7	47.3
	QUITE A BIT	121	33.2	80.5
	EXTREMELY	71	19.5	100.0
	Total	364	100.0	100.0

**I am satisfied with my academic performance**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	NOT AT ALL	80	22.0	22.0
	A LITTLE BIT	88	24.2	46.2
	MODERATE	18	4.9	51.1
	QUITE A BIT	75	20.6	71.7
	EXTREMELY	103	28.3	100.0
	Total	364	100.0	100.0

**I do not use study time efficiently**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	NOT AT ALL	88	24.2	24.2
	A LITTLE BIT	62	17.0	41.2
	MODERATE	27	7.4	48.6
	QUITE A BIT	109	29.9	78.6
	EXTREMELY	78	21.4	100.0
	Total	364	100.0	100.0

**I have trouble concentrating when studying**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid				
NOT AT ALL	61	16.8	16.8	16.8
A LITTLE BIT	96	26.4	26.4	43.1
MODERATE	46	12.6	12.6	55.8
QUITE A BIT	113	31.0	31.0	86.8
EXTREMELY	48	13.2	13.2	100.0
Total	364	100.0	100.0	

**I do not do well academically, considering effort**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid				
NOT AT ALL	79	21.7	21.7	21.7
A LITTLE BIT	116	31.9	31.9	53.6
MODERATE	18	4.9	4.9	58.5
QUITE A BIT	94	25.8	25.8	84.3
EXTREMELY	57	15.7	15.7	100.0
Total	364	100.0	100.0	

**I have trouble doing my assignments**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid				
NOT AT ALL	79	21.7	21.7	21.7
A LITTLE BIT	101	27.7	27.7	49.5
MODERATE	46	12.6	12.6	62.1
QUITE A BIT	97	26.6	26.6	88.7
EXTREMELY	41	11.3	11.3	100.0
Total	364	100.0	100.0	

**I am satisfied with variety of courses**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid				
NOT AT ALL	119	32.7	32.7	32.7
A LITTLE BIT	67	18.4	18.4	51.1
MODERATE	40	11.0	11.0	62.1
QUITE A BIT	74	20.3	20.3	82.4
EXTREMELY	64	17.6	17.6	100.0
Total	364	100.0	100.0	

**I am satisfied with our lectures**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	102	28.0	28.0	28.0
	71	19.5	19.5	47.5
	30	8.2	8.2	55.8
Valid	86	23.6	23.6	79.4
	75	20.6	20.6	100.0
Total	364	100.0	100.0	