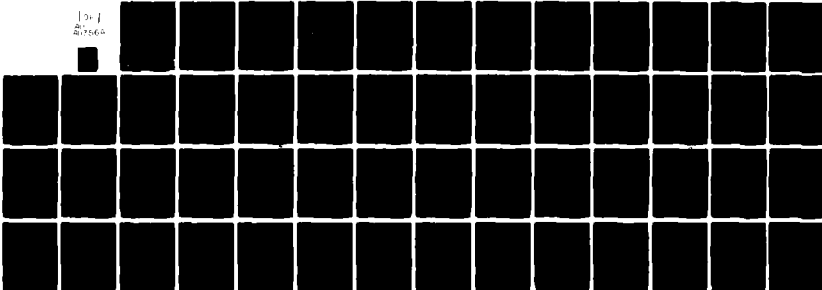


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STRESS, ANXIETY, AND COGNITIVE INTERFERENCE: REACTIONS TO TESTS—ETC(U)  
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Stress, Anxiety, and Cognitive Interference: Reactions to Tests

Irwin G. Sarason  
Department of Psychology, NI-25  
University of Washington  
Seattle, Washington 98195

April 1, 1982

Technical Report

Approved for Public Release

Prepared for:

OFFICE OF NAVAL RESEARCH  
800 North Quincy Street  
Arlington, Virginia 22217

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is, to a significant extent, a problem of intrusive thoughts that interfere with task-focused thinking. In the last of the three studies reported, it was shown that self-preoccupying intrusive thinking can be reduced by means of a task-focusing experimental condition. The studies suggest that the Reactions to Tests questionnaire may be useful in defining anxiety more sharply and improving understanding of how it relates to performance.

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Stress, Anxiety, and Cognitive Interference: Reactions to Tests

Despite a large and growing literature, the concepts of stress and anxiety remain very diverse and, often, in conflict. Researchers differ widely about such matters as basic definitions, mechanisms, and outcomes. Stress, for example, has been defined as a stimulus, a response, and a hypothetical state. An important reason for this diversity and conflict is a failure to specify the contexts in which stress and anxiety are presumed to occur. It seems reasonable that whether stress and/or anxiety occur depends on the personal salience of a given situation for an individual. Personal salience, in turn, is a product of those personality variables that shape perceptions of self and world.

Test anxiety is a widely studied personality variable, in part because it provides a measure of the personal salience of one important definable class of situations, those in which people are evaluated. Research on test anxiety has proven to be a convenient vehicle for investigating a variety of general problems (Sarason, 1980). This article begins with an overview of available evidence concerning the relationship of test anxiety to performance, the mechanisms that cause this relationship, and the dimensions of test anxiety. Reactions to Tests, a new measure that builds on available knowledge, is then presented. This instrument, which yields information on multiple dimensions of evaluative situations, is designed to improve the assessment of test anxiety. It may provide a basis for clarifying some theoretical issues concerning stress-anxiety relationships.

From a cognitive perspective, stress can be understood in terms of a call for action, a person's awareness of the need to do something about a given state of affairs (Sarason & Sarason, 1981). Calls for action occur in response to situational challenges and can lead to both task-relevant and task-irrelevant cognitions. From this point of view, the most adaptive response to stress should be task-oriented thinking, which directs the individual's attention to the task at hand. The task-oriented person is able to set aside unproductive worries and preoccupations. The self-preoccupied person, on the other hand, becomes absorbed in the implications and consequences of failure to meet situational challenges. Anxious people worry about possible difficulties they may be called upon to confront. The anxious person's negative self-appraisals are not only unpleasant to experience, but also have undesirable effects on performance because they are self-preoccupying and detract from task concentration.

The situational challenges to which the person reacts may be either actual or perceived. Many anxious people describe themselves as being tense and feeling that something terrible will happen, even though they cannot specify the cause of their reaction. Whether the challenge is real or imagined, the anxious person's self-preoccupation interferes with an orderly, task-oriented approach to situational requirements. It seems clear that an understanding of the effects of stress and the prediction of behavior must take into account the individual's perceptions of both the nature of the challenge and his or her ability to meet it (Magnusson, 1981; Magnusson & Stattin, 1982).

The Role of Cognitive Interference in Test Performance

Experimental studies of test anxiety have provided evidence that cognitive interference is an important factor in lowering the performance of highly test anxious people. An experiment by Sarason and Stoops (1978) illustrates the type of relationship that has been uncovered. Subjects differing in their scores on the Test Anxiety Scale (TAS) (Sarason, 1978) performed in experiments in which they worked on a series of tasks presented as measures of intelligence. The dependent measures were their performance, estimates of how long they had worked on the tasks, and post-experimental reports of task-irrelevant thoughts they may have had during performance. These thoughts were assessed using the Cognitive Interference Questionnaire (CIQ) (Sarason, 1978). Consistent with many other findings in the literature, the performance of high TAS scorers was deleteriously affected by these achievement-orienting instructions. High TAS subjects also overestimated the period of time during which they worked on test materials. Most important for this discussion was the greater amount of cognitive interference shown by the high anxious subjects.

The evidence obtained from the CIQ is of particular interest from the standpoint of what people informally report thinking about while working on a task. Under test-like conditions, high TAS scorers, moreso than low and middle scorers, report being preoccupied with how poorly they are doing, how other people are doing, and what the examiner will think about them (Sarason, 1978). Under neutral conditions, groups differing in test anxiety show little or no



differences in performance or cognitive interference. Thus, highly test anxious subjects in situations that pose test-like challenges perform at relatively low levels and experience relatively high levels of task-irrelevant thoughts. In non-test situations, groups at different test anxiety levels show either smaller or no differences in performance and cognitive interference.

This type of evidence has led Wine (1971, 1982) to an attentional interpretation of test anxiety, according to which people at high and low levels of test anxiety differ in the types of thoughts to which their attention is directed in the face of an evaluative stressor. Consistent with this interpretation are the results of Ganzer's (1968) experiment which showed that, while performing on an intellectual task, high test anxious subjects make many more irrelevant comments than do low test anxious scorers. A high percentage of these comments are self-deprecatory. Other researchers have found that high are more likely than low test anxious people to blame themselves for their performance level (Doris & S. Sarason, 1955), feel less confident in making perceptual judgments (Meunier & Rule, 1967), and set lower levels of aspiration for themselves (Trapp & Kausler, 1958). These empirical findings have resulted in a variety of productive research directions, including anxiety's effects on cue-utilization (Geen, 1976), its developmental antecedents (Dusek, 1980), and clinical and educational interventions that influence its intensity and consequences (Meichenbaum, 1977; Denney, 1980).

#### Components of Test Anxiety

Anxiety is usually defined as a complex state that includes

cognitive, emotional, behavioral, and bodily reactions. As Wine (1982) has pointed out, it is not immediately obvious how to identify the active or most active ingredients in this complex. She has suggested that test anxiety might fruitfully be reconceptualized primarily in terms of cognitive and attentional processes aroused in evaluational settings.

One heuristic distinction that has been pursued is that between worry and emotionality (Deffenbacher, 1977, 1978; Kaplan, McCordick, & Twitchell, 1979; Liebert & Morris, 1967; Morris, Davis, & Hutchings, 1981). Worry refers to the cognitive side of anxiety (preoccupations, concerns); emotionality refers largely to a person's awareness of bodily arousal and tension. In their reviews of the literature on the worry-emotionality distinction, Deffenbacher (1980) and Tryon (1980) showed that while worry and emotionality are correlated, worry, but not emotionality, is related to performance decrements in the presence of an evaluational stressor. Deffenbacher & Deitz's (1978) research in a naturalistic setting, together with laboratory evidence (e.g. Marlett & Watson, 1968; Sarason & Stoops, 1978), suggests that cognitive interference may be the key factor in lowering the performance of highly test anxious people.

Worry and emotionality, like anxiety, are concepts. They may or may not be unitary. Wine (1982) has argued that a concept as complex as anxiety may obscure important processes, have too much excess meaning, and, therefore, be misleading. An approach that would reduce these problems is one that deals more explicitly with the scope of phenomena that may pertain to traditional definitions of test anxiety. As presaged by work related to the worry-emotionality distinction, an

additional useful step would be to define more reliably the reactions people have when placed in evaluational situations. The studies described in this article concern a new instrument, Reactions to Tests, designed to assess multiple components of a person's reactions to tests, correlate these components with intellectual performance and cognitive interference, and attempt experimentally to influence these relationships.

#### Study I

In the first study, a pool of items dealing with personal reactions to tests was constructed. Some items were based on items on the Test Anxiety Scale (Sarason, 1978), and many new items were written. On the basis of pilot work that weeded out items that were ambiguous, poorly phrased, or otherwise posed problems for subjects, 91 items were selected for further study.

#### Method

Subjects. The subjects were 390 Introductory Psychology students. The 91 items were group administered with instructions that asked subjects to circle the alternative that best reflected how they react to tests. The alternatives were:

- 1 - not at all typical of me
- 2 - only somewhat typical of me
- 3 - quite typical of me
- 4 - very typical of me

The subjects also filled out the 37-item Test Anxiety Scale (TAS) (Sarason, 1978).

Procedure. A principal components factor analysis with orthogonal varimax rotation was performed on the 91 items. Composite scores were computed for each of the 23 factors that had eigenvalues greater than 1. A new factor analysis was then carried out on these composite scores. This second factor analysis permitted examination of the higher order factor structure of the instrument.<sup>1</sup>

### Results

The first factor (18 items), tentatively labeled Tensiou, had an eigenvalue of 5.32 and accounted for 23.1% of the variance. The second factor (11 items), with an eigenvalue of 1.80 and accounting for 7.8% of the variance, consisted of Worry items. The third factor (10 items), with an eigenvalue of 1.47 and accounting for 6.4% of the variance, consisted of items that referred to test-irrelevant thinking. Several factors dealt with bodily symptoms. Each of them had an eigenvalue of approximately 1.0 and accounted for over 4% of the variance. However, only 1 or 2 items loaded on each of these bodily symptom factors. The items with high loadings on these factors were organized into a composite scale (12 items) of bodily reactions to evaluative situations. Table 1 gives examples of items on the four scales derived from the factor analysis.<sup>2</sup> Table 2 presents the intercorrelations among the four groups and the TAS.

### Discussion

If tests are seen as evaluative situations to which persons

respond both overtly and covertly, assessment tools more complex than those typically employed in research on test anxiety are needed. The findings of this study indicate the existence of four discriminable components of test anxiety. Distinctions between the first and fourth components, Tension and Bodily Reactions, have typically not been made in research based on the concepts of Worry and Emotionality. For example, the Morris, Davis, and Hutchings (1981) Emotionality scale includes items that refer to both general tension level ("I feel panicky") and specific body reactions ("I am so tense that at my stomach is upset.") The latter type of item seems less ambiguous than the former. People who describe their reactions to tests in terms of general tension may or may not differ in their psychological reactions from those who emphasize their worries. Are the phrases "I am tense" and "I am worried" simply different semantically, or do they refer to different phenomenological and physical experiences?

While the measures of reactions to tests were intercorrelated, they might differ in their usefulness in various types of research settings, for example, those in which either the subject's performance or physiological reactivity are of central interest.

#### Study II

A new instrument, Reactions to Tests, was constructed on the basis of the Study I findings. It consists of 4 ten-item scales, each with a possible score range of 10 to 40. The scales, each made up of the ten items that had highest loadings on the factors described in

Study I, are: (a) Tension, (b) Worry, (c) Test-Irrelevant Thinking, and (d) Bodily Symptoms. Study II was conducted to obtain information about the scales' psychometric properties and to determine their relationships to cognitive interference.

In addition to Reactions to Tests (RTT), the subjects were also administered the Cognitive Interference Questionnaire (CIQ) (Sarason, 1978). Cognitive interference can be defined as intrusive thoughts that keep the individual from directing full attention to the task at hand.

Previous research had found that highly test-anxious college students report high levels of cognitive interference when performing under achievement-orienting conditions (Sarason & Stoops, 1978). Higher levels of both anxiety and cognitive interference have also been associated with decreased accuracy of perception in eyewitness accounts of complex incidents (Siegel & Loftus, 1978). Of the two measures, the cognitive interference score was more highly related to performance deficit. The intrusive thoughts of high scorers on test anxiety instruments to a large extent involve worrying, and this worrying seems to interfere with task-relevant thinking and cause lower performance. In Study II it was possible to determine the relationship of each RTT scale to cognitive interference.

#### Method

Subjects. The subjects were 385 Introductory Psychology students: 241 females and 144 males.

Procedure. The subjects were tested in groups of 15-20 students. First the RTT and the Test Anxiety Scale (TAS) were administered.

Then subjects were given a difficult version of the Digit Symbol Test for a 6-minute period. Immediately after this, the subjects responded to the Cognitive Interference Questionnaire. Previous research had shown that highly test anxious subjects perform at a lower level on this task under achievement-orienting conditions than do other subjects (Sarason & Palola, 1958). Instructions similar to those used by Sarason and Palola were used.

### Results

For both males and females, the correlations among the four RTT scores and the TAS closely resembled those of Study I (Table 2). The alpha coefficients for the scales ranged from .68 to .81. For all 40 items, alpha equalled .78. Table 3 provides information from the entire Study II sample for RTT total score and scale means, standard deviations, and ranges.

High and low scorers on the RTT and its subscales and the TAS were compared with regard to Digit Symbol Test performance and CIQ scores. For each measure, 20 high and 20 low scorers were compared. These subjects were drawn from the upper and lower 15% of each selection variable. Subjects differing in TAS score, RTT total score and RTT Worry scale score showed significant differences in performance on each measure. For the two TAS groups, the  $F$  for Digit Symbol performance was 4.53 (df 1, 39,  $p < .05$ ), and for CIQ scores, it was 4.41 (df 1, 39,  $p < .05$ ). High TAS scores were associated with poor digit symbol performance (high TAS  $M = 125.40$ ; low TAS  $M = 168.75$ ) and high levels of cognitive interference (high TAS  $M = 33.45$ ; low TAS  $M = 20.45$ ). For the RTT total score, the  $F$ 's for Digit Symbol and CIQ

were 4.89 (df 1, 39,  $p < .05$ ) and 4.77 (df 1, 39,  $p < .05$ ) respectively. The direction of the results was similar to the TAS findings. The high and low RTT digit symbol means were 135.11 and 164.54, while the comparable CIQ means were 32.98 (high RTT) and 20.14 (low RTT). The Worry scale was related to performance and cognitive interference in the same way as the TAS and RTT total score. The Worry scale  $F$ 's were 7.94 (df 1, 39,  $p < .01$ ) and 8.13 (df 1, 39,  $p < .01$ ) respectively. For the digit symbol test, the means for high and low Worry groups were 121.04 and 170.53, respectively. The comparable CIQ means were 33.68 and 19.84. The other RTT scales were unrelated to performance and were related to the CIQ at significance levels ranging from  $p < .10$  to  $p < .06$ .

Table 4 presents the correlations between RTT and its scales and the TAS with cognitive interference for males and females. For each sex, the Worry scale showed the highest correlation with cognitive interference. To assess the significance of the difference between nonindependent  $r$ 's, a series of  $t$  tests were computed (Edwards, 1960). For males, the Worry-CIQ correlation was greater ( $p < .01$ ) than each of the CIQ correlations involving the other RTT scales. The same result was obtained for females.

### Discussion

If test anxiety is conceptualized in terms of worrisome self-preoccupying thoughts that interfere with task performance, the Worry scale should be negatively related to performance and positively related to cognitive interference. This is what was found. While all of the RTT scales were positively correlated with reports of cognitive



interference, the correlation involving Worry was significantly higher than the other RTT scales. Perhaps a similar prediction could have been made for the Test-Irrelevant Thinking scale. However, the higher correlations of the Worry scale with the CIQ suggests that, in an evaluative situation, cognitive interference and lowered performance are most likely to be related to thoughts reflecting fears of failure and comparison with others rather than thoughts that are merely irrelevant to the situation.

The present results are consistent with growing evidence that test anxiety measures dealing with the thoughts people have while being evaluated are more consistently related to performance than are test anxiety measures dealing with emotional reactions in the same situations. This is not too surprising, since, by definition, worry over performance is specific to evaluation situations, whereas tension and emotionality are not. High tension combined with high worry might be quite debilitating. High tension in the absence of worry might have neutral or even facilitative effects by increasing motivation. This is particularly likely if the person has overlearned appropriate responses, as in athletic skills or a foreign language vocabulary list, and the situation then confronted is low in uniqueness and calls for only these responses to be executed as practiced.

### Study III

There is evidence that pre-performance instructions (e.g. reassurance) de-emphasizing the evaluative component of performance

has a facilitative effect on highly test anxious subjects (Sarason, 1958, 1972, 1973). While reassuring pre-performance instructions help high test anxious scorers, they seem to lower the performance of low scorers (Sarason, 1958, 1978).

There is also evidence that under evaluation conditions, subjects high in test anxiety show increases in cognitive interference as assessed by the CIQ (Sarason & Stoops, 1978). If self-preoccupying worry produces poor performance because of cognitive interference, any technique that aids the subject's attention to the task at hand should have a facilitative effect. As another alternative, Wine (1971, 1982) has suggested the possibility of developing instructional or training aids that would help worry-prone people to attend more completely to assigned tasks.

Study III was carried out in an effort to compare groups differing in the tendency to worry about tests after they have received either (a) instructions directing them to attend completely to the task on which they will perform, or (b) a reassuring communication prior to performing on the task.

#### Method

Subjects. The subjects were Introductory Psychology students. Prior to and independent of the experiment, they had been administered Reactions to Tests. From the group of 612 students who responded to RTT, 180 were selected for participation in the experiment. These included males and females with scores in the upper, middle, and lower thirds of the Worry scale distribution.

Procedure. The task used in the experiment consisted of a series

of difficult anagrams on which subjects worked for 18 minutes. Previous research had shown that high test anxiety scorers perform poorly on this task when they are tested under achievement-orienting conditions (Sarason, 1961). There is also evidence that under these conditions, subjects high in test anxiety show increases in cognitive interference as assessed by the CIQ (Sarason & Stoops, 1978).

In the present experiment, after working on the anagrams task, the subjects responded to the CIQ. They were told that performance on the anagrams task was a measure of the ability to do college-level work. After this communication (similar to those used by Sarason, 1961 and Sarason & Stoops, 1978), one third of the subjects were given an attention-directing condition, one third were given reassurance, and a control group received no additional communication.

The experiment was conducted using group administrations to 15-20 subjects. Instructions for the anagrams task were contained in the test booklet. The attention-directing and reassuring communications were given by the experimenter after the subjects had read the task instructions, which included the achievement-orienting message. Subjects under the Reassurance condition were told not to be overly concerned about their performance on the anagrams. The experimenter made such comments as "Don't worry" and "You will do just fine". Subjects under the Attention-Directing condition were told to absorb themselves as much as possible in the anagrams task and to avoid thinking about other things. The experimenter said, "...concentrate all your attention on the problems...", "think only about the anagrams", and "don't let yourself get distracted from the task".

### Results

The experiment followed a  $3 \times 3 \times 2$  analysis of variance design with 10 male or female subjects per group. There were three levels each of Worry (high, middle, and low scorers) and Conditions (two experimental and one control condition). These groups were divided equally between males and females.

An analysis of variance of anagram performance scores yielded a significant effect for Conditions ( $F = 3.41$ ,  $df 2, 162$ ,  $p < .05$ ). The group that received Attention-Directing instructions had a mean of 5.79 correct anagram solutions. The comparable Reassurance and Control condition means were 4.88 and 5.14, respectively. The only other significant effect was for the interaction between Worry and Conditions ( $F = 3.84$ ,  $df 4, 162$ ,  $p < .025$ ). As Table 5 shows, the three Worry groups performed comparably under the Attention-Directing condition. However, the high Worry group performed at a significantly higher level (Newman-Keuls test,  $p < .05$ ) under the Attention-Directing than under the Control condition. The high Worry-Control group's performance was significantly lower (Newman-Keuls Test,  $p < .05$ ) than the comparable middle and low Worry conditions. Reassurance tended to have a facilitative effect for high Worry subjects and a detrimental effect for low and middle Worry subjects.

There were two significant effects in the CIQ analysis. The Worry main effect ( $F = 3.25$ ,  $df 2, 162$ ,  $p < .05$ ) was due to the tendency of high Worry subjects to report more cognitive interference than the middle and low scoring groups, with means of 26.78, 22.58 and 20.70, respectively. The Worry Conditions effect ( $F = 4.71$ ,  $df 4, 162$ ,  $p < .01$ ) was primarily due to the high Worry-Control group CIQ mean

(33.62). Table 6 presents the means for this interaction.

### Discussion

The findings in Study III show that reassuring instructions have different effects for high, middle, and low Worry subjects. This is consistent with previous work in which the Test Anxiety Scale, rather than the Worry Scale, of the RTT was the individual difference variable on the basis of which subjects were selected (Sarason, 1958, 1978). The detrimental effect of reassurance on people who are not worriers may be due to these subjects' taking the reassuring communication at its face value; i.e., they take the task too lightly and lower their motivational level.

The Attention-Directing condition would seem to have all of the advantages that reassurance has for high Worry subjects with none of the disadvantages. The performance levels of all groups that received the Attention-Directing instructions were high. Furthermore, cognitive interference under the same condition was consistently low. The relatively poor performance and high cognitive interference of the high Worry group under the control condition is similar to previous findings concerning highly test anxious subjects.

The performance and CIQ scores were reanalyzed in terms of other Reactions to Tests scales. This was done to provide information about the possible interactions of Tension, Test-Irrelevant Thinking, and Bodily Reactions with the experimental conditions. None of these additional analyses revealed statistically significant results. However, the general trend of the scores for Test-Irrelevant Thinking resembled that for Worry.

This experiment, together with earlier work (Sarason, 1978; Wine, 1982), supports an attention-directing interpretation of anxiety and worry and suggests that simply reminding subjects to be task-oriented can have a salutary effect on their performance and intrusive thoughts. It would seem desirable in future research to study various categories of intrusive thoughts (e.g. worry, anger) as a joint function of personality characteristics and situational demands.

#### General Discussion

If stress is viewed in a cognitive perspective as a call for action instigated by appraisals of properties of situations and personal dispositions, then anxiety can be viewed as self-preoccupation over the inability to respond adequately to the call. The test anxious person experiences self-preoccupying worry, insecurity and self-doubt in evaluative situations. These internal distractors lessen attention to the task at hand and contribute to relatively poor performance. The present results suggest that, at least in evaluation situations, the problem of anxiety is, to a significant extent, a problem of intrusive, interfering thoughts that diminish the attention to and efficient execution of the task at hand.

The findings of Study III, together with other recent evidence, show that it is possible experimentally to influence these thoughts. Instructions emphasizing the evaluative nature of the task have been shown to increase the interfering thoughts of highly test anxious subjects (Sarason, 1978). People who are prone to worry in evaluative

situations benefit simply from their attention being called to the importance of maintaining a task focus. Cognitive modeling geared to task orientation and other training procedures also seem to be effective. (Meichenbaum, 1972, 1977, 1980; Sarason, 1973). Thus, experimental manipulations can either increase or decrease the self-preoccupation of test anxious subjects. The amount of self-preoccupation, in turn, influences performance level. This interpretation is consistent with Geen's (1976, 1980) analysis of test anxiety as one influence in a person's ability to use the range of cues available in a given situation. Worry over evaluation leads to task-irrelevant cognitions that interfere with attention to the range of cues in the situation. The wider the range of relevant cues, the greater the debilitating effects of cognitive interference.

Might the concept of test anxiety be defined primarily or exclusively in terms of interfering worry and self-deprecation? Such a definition would be consistent with what we know about the relationships among test anxiety, self-preoccupation, and performance. It would, however, not be consistent with the widely held view that physiological arousal is a major component of anxiety in general. According to this view, the anxious response involves hypermobilization of physiological resources to cope with stress. In their literature review, Holroyd and Appel (1980) concluded that (a) no relationship has been demonstrated between test anxiety and tonic physiological activity, and (b) the cognitive aspects of test anxiety may be its most active ingredients.

Yet it is important not to be too quick to cast out the emotional component of evaluation anxiety. One topic that needs clarification

is the meaning of the RTT Tension scale, which accounts for more of the variance than does any other single factor. Its items clearly refer to feeling tense and emotionally upset. However, it is not clear what message people are sending when they say these things. Are people who attribute such characteristics providing information about their state of mind, bodily self-perceptions, or both?

Cognitive and behavioral assessments are often found not to be highly correlated with measurements of bodily processes. That physiological arousal is not peculiar to anxiety becomes all too evident when one notes the autonomic correlates seen in people who are experiencing high levels of anger. Studies are needed to relate various combinations of cognitive and physiological response patterns to observable behavior. For example, what are the similarities and differences between people who are worried and do not show high levels of autonomic functioning with those who do? The Reactions to Tests instrument might be useful in selecting subjects for such comparisons. Its four components could contribute to more fine-grained analyses of the components of test anxiety.

Worrying behavior, one component of anxiety, was demonstrated in Study II to be the major component in decreasing performance efficiency in evaluative situations. As a further illustration of the efficacy of this approach, another study based on this finding (Study III) has demonstrated that, as predicted, task-orienting instructions that serve to reduce time spent worrying were more effective in reducing the detrimental effect of anxiety on behavior than instructions that emphasized reassurance.

Reassurance, generalized calming statements geared to reduce



the general feeling of upset that high anxious people feel in evaluation situations, has been used in both experimental and day-to-day situations as a means of reducing the effects of anxiety. Not only is it less effective in improving the performance of high anxious persons than the task-directed approach, but it also has the unfortunate effect of decreasing performance level in low anxious individuals. This example from Study III illustrates some of the benefits of rephrasing the definition of anxiety so that the components can be studied separately in relation to the behavior observed.

The studies reported here are consistent with the growing evidence that simultaneous attention to both the characteristics of stress-arousing situations and personality attributes is needed in order to account for the wide variability among people in how they confront and deal with challenges that arise in their lives.

The concept of anxiety has been researched extensively, but many of the findings have been conflicting. One factor responsible for much of this confusion has been a broad, all-enveloping definition of anxiety -- both what it is and precisely how it functions in affecting performance. The cognitive approach to anxiety, the information processing view that anxiety arises from a self-assessment of personal deficit in meeting situational demands, has helped in the process of clarification. However, the relationship between how anxiety is experienced and how this experience affects performance is still unclear.

This paper is concerned with one step to remedy that lack of clarity. By construction of a multi-factor instrument, it may be

possible to define anxiety more sharply and to improve the understanding of how it relates to performance. Construction of such an instrument and examples of its application have been discussed here.

Footnotes

<sup>1</sup>I am indebted to Professor Allen L. Edwards for his advice about factor analytic methods.

<sup>2</sup>Professor Haruyo Hama, Doshisha University, Kyoto, Japan has performed a factor analysis of the 91 items using as subjects 213 female University students. The results of the factor analysis are similar to the ones reported here.

Table 1

Illustrative Items from Four Scales Derived from Factor Analysis

Tension

1. I feel distressed and uneasy before tests.
2. I feel jittery before tests.
3. I find myself becoming anxious the day of a test.

Worry

1. Before taking a test, I worry about failure.
2. During tests, I wonder how the other people are doing.
3. Before tests, I feel troubled about what is going to happen.

Test-Irrelevant Thoughts

1. During tests I think about recent past events.
2. Irrelevant bits of information pop into my head during a test.
3. During tests, I find myself thinking of things unrelated to the material being tested.

Bodily Reactions

1. I get a headache during an important test.
2. My stomach gets upset before tests.
3. My heart beats faster when the test begins.

Table 2  
Intercorrelations among Four Groups of Factor Analytically Derived Items  
and Test Anxiety Scale (TAS) (N=390)

	<u>Tension</u>	<u>Worry</u>	<u>Test-Irrelevant Thinking</u>	<u>Bodily Reactions</u>	<u>TAS</u>
Tension		.66	.28	.69	.84
Worry			.51	.40	.72
Test-Irrelevant Thinking				.24	.36
Bodily Reactions					.60
TAS					

Table 3  
Means, Standard Deviations, and Range for Reactions to Tests  
Total Score and 4 Scales

Males (N=144)

	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>Range</u>
RTT Total Score	74.04	17.99	43-135
Tension Scale	22.39	6.58	10-39
Worry Scale	19.51	5.93	11-36
Test-Irrelevant Thinking	17.19	6.40	10-39
Bodily Symptoms	14.95	4.12	10-27

Females (N=241)

	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>Range</u>
RTT Total Score	80.37	21.13	42-141
Tension Scale	25.17	7.58	10-40
Worry Scale	21.30	6.72	10-37
Test-Irrelevant Thinking	17.83	7.01	10-40
Bodily Symptoms	16.08	5.70	10-39

Table 4  
Correlations of RTT Total Score and Its Scales, and TAS, with  
Cognitive Interference Questionnaire (CIQ) Scores for Males and Females

	<u>Males (N=144)</u>	<u>Females (N=241)</u>
RTT-Total	.47	.44
RTT-Tension	.31	.29
RTT-Worry	.54	.51
RTT-Test-Irrelevant Thinking	.33	.30
RTT-Bodily Symptoms	.27	.26
TAS	.44	.38

Table 5  
Performance Means for Worry X Conditions Interaction  
(Number of Correct Solutions)

<u>Conditions</u>	<u>Worry</u>		
	High	Middle	Low
Attention-Directing	5.92	5.67	5.77
Reassurance	5.45	4.78	4.41
Control	3.62	5.82	5.98



Table 6  
Cognitive Interference Questionnaire (CIQ) Means  
for Worry X Conditions Interaction

<u>Conditions</u>	<u>Worry</u>		
	High	Middle	Low
Attention-Directing	22.30	22.78	20.31
Reassurance	24.48	23.52	22.19
Control	33.62	21.44	19.61

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