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ADEQUACY OF UNDERGRADUATE CLASSROOM TEACHING PROGRAMMES FOR FOSTERING PROFESSIONAL VALUES: A CASE STUDY

Abstract: In this study, the adequacy of the undergraduate Classroom Teaching programmes of the Elementary Education Department for fostering professional values in preservice classroom teachers was evaluated. This assessment was carried out with a qualitative approach using data from in-depth interviews with 16 faculty members in the classroom teaching department of the education faculty at a state university in Turkey. The findings obtained in this study are grouped under the themes degree to which undergraduate classroom teaching programmes foster professional values in students and preservice activities to be carried out for fostering professional values. Planned with a qualitative design, this study reveals the need to increase the number of practical lessons related to the subject area, reduce the number and hours of undergraduate classes, increase the number of elective courses for nurturing professional values, select qualified teacher educators, create institutional values, and reduce the number of education faculties and teacher quotas. One of the most striking findings is that some of the research results show similarity with the Higher Education Council's revised primary school curriculum for 2018-2019. These results reveal that during the accreditation process of education faculties, importance should be given to the acquisition of professional values in undergraduate classroom teaching programmes in order to achieve success in education.

Keywords: classroom teaching, programmes, professional values, case study, evaluation

Nermin Karabacak, PhD

Assistant Professor
Department of Educational Sciences
Recep Tayyip Erdogan University
Turkey
Contact:
Email: nermin.karabacak@erdogan.edu.tr
ORCID: 0000-0001-5231-1730

İsa Korkmaz, PhD

Full Professor
Department of Curriculum Education
Necmettin Erbakan University
Turkey
Contact:
Email: ikorkmaz@erbakan.edu.tr
ORCID: 0000-0002-6647-1812

Mehmet Küçük, PhD

Full Professor
Department of Mathematics and Science
Education
Recep Tayyip Erdogan University,
Turkey
Contact:
Email: mehmet.kucuk@erdogan.edu.tr
ORCID: 0000-0001-5910-4099

INTRODUCTION

Teaching is a long-term based profession with roots as old as human history. Saying, “the teacher is an artist, he is an artist of minds”, John Steinbeck stated, “I have come to believe that a great teacher is a great artist and that there are as few as there are any other great artists. Teaching might even be the greatest of all the arts, since the medium is the human mind and spirit”. The teacher is at the same time the leading actor in the vital organisation of the education system. According to Arvasi, “To say ‘education’ is to say ‘teacher’”. The teacher is a person who constructs his/her day by knowing about a nation’s past and who determines its destiny by planning its future. He/she is someone who tries to carry out this plan with great enthusiasm and conviction. The teacher’s individual effort also includes society’s future goals. The teacher is the most important force in the formal education system for developing students’ individual skills, and for enabling the education of individuals in society who are useful to the nation and to humanity. It is essential that teachers expecting to achieve this possess personal values on the one hand and professional values on the other. In the Turkish education system, in the context of the information society paradigm, the aims are to raise free individuals who are useful to society, who observe communal values, who are equipped with effective communication skills, who can adapt to change, who have acquired the ability to access learning resources and to utilise these effectively, who can use information communication technologies efficiently, who are at peace with themselves and society, and who investigate, inquire, and possess critical thinking skills (Ministry of National Education [MEB] 2017). It is the teachers who have the most important duty in raising individuals with these qualities. In this context, the fundamental key to achieving success in education in a social structure is the teacher.

Classroom teaching, which belongs the teaching profession group, occupies a special position among all other fields of teaching. In this context, it is distinguished from other types of teaching in the teaching profession group in the sense that it involves skills needed for multidisciplinary competence and a spirit of striving to carry out

professional responsibilities (Karabacak et. al. 2015; Richardson and Watt, 2006; Thornton et. al.) teacher. Classroom teachers in particular have a duty for the socialisation of the child, to use Durkheim’s term. The performance of this duty of the teacher is seen in every society and at all stages of teaching. Teachers’ professional values are transferred to students by means of education. For this reason, in recent years, education policymakers and experts have placed a great deal of emphasis on the subjects of teachers’ values and professional values. Therefore, it is essential to define teachers’ values and professional values and to reveal the relationship between them.

Professional values can be defined as the whole of the rules, standards and principles that guide and give direction to the behaviours and decisions of working individuals while pursuing their careers. In this sense, professional values are important in terms of setting forth and reflecting the cognitive, behavioural and affective dimensions of a profession. Setting forth professional values and adhering to these professional values is a reflection of the importance given to one’s profession (Karabacak, 2016). In this context, it is expected that professional values should be set forth for each professional group and that its employees should comply with these. Among these occupational groups, there is a need for more studies on the teaching profession, since, when compared with the others, it constitutes a source for raising individuals that can be a guide for society. In recent times, the professional values of the teaching profession have been the subject of a number of studies. To summarise the results of the findings in these studies (Karabacak et. al. 2015; Richardson and Watt, 2006; Ryan and Bohlin, 1999; Thornton et. al. 2002), teachers’ professional values can be expressed as: 1) having a spirit of striving to carry out their professional responsibilities, 2) being a role model for the individuals that they educate, 3) instilling a spirit of hard work in their students, 4) being a teacher who is full of affection, 5) being committed to the profession, 6) being open to communication and collaborating with stakeholders, 7) believing in the need for human rights and giving reassurance in this regard, and 8) planning the education of productive individuals by renewing themselves.

The great majority of studies conducted within the framework of professional values of the teaching profession in Turkey reveal that the teaching profession conforms to its values. Although the professional values of the teaching profession have been classified, there are still uncertainties and different interpretations in practice. For this reason, it cannot be said that the behaviours reflected by teachers on education stakeholders always conform to the professional values of the teaching profession. Furthermore, with regard to professional values of teachers in Turkey, there are also studies revealing serious problems experienced in the relationships between teachers and students, colleagues, parents and the school administration (Altinkurt and Yılmaz, 2011; Pelit and Güçer, 2006). According to these research results, teachers' behaviours that conflict with professional values are revealed to occur in their relationships with students, colleagues, parents and the school administration. In addition, it is revealed that teachers display behaviours contrary to professional values such as 1) lying, 2) not entering class on time, 3) coming to class unprepared, 4) giving excuses that are contrary to the truth, 5) not using working hours for the purpose of education, 6) showing a tendency towards altering official letters or directing their colleagues towards this, and 7) coming to school after using drugs or alcohol.

Uncertainty or deficiency in professional values possessed by teachers can have a negative effect on both teachers and teachers' stakeholders. Teachers' uncertainties and conflicts in displaying professional values can create an obstacle to the process of fostering social responsibility in their students. Nowadays, the task of teaching and transfer of social values and norms imposed by the family and the whole social environment is carried out in modern societies to a large extent by schools, and especially primary schools and classroom teachers. Consequently, it can be said that classroom teachers transfer the values that they possess to the children that they raise in formal and informal ways. In this context, the knowledge and skills that are acquired in the primary school years constitute a basic infrastructure for preparing children for life. Therefore, in Turkish society, the prestige of classroom teaching, which has a different image from other types of teaching, has increased.

For these reasons, for preservice teachers who are to serve as classroom teachers in the 21st century to become successful in their profession in later years, it is a prerequisite that they should have a love of their profession, which is the most important indicator of professional values. On the other hand, although there are a large number of studies on the attitudes of individuals who choose the teaching profession in the related literature, it is determined that the number of studies aimed at the classroom teaching profession remains quite limited. However, although the acquisition of professional values during the preservice period is a primary aim, the fact that this aim is not adequately adhered to is revealed in the findings of the studies (Akdoğan and Uşun 2017; Çoban, 2011; Sarı and Altun 2015; Taş et. al. 2017).

The fostering of professional values by teacher candidates in the preservice period is a more economic and widespread strategy that has a high effect. Furthermore, in the undergraduate programme for classroom teacher candidates, the extent to which they acquire knowledge, skills and values and the degree to which they can become successful is an important problem. No studies can be found in which preservice classroom teachers' values are revealed or which are aimed at the acquisition of professional values in undergraduate programmes. In this context, determining the extent to which preservice classroom teaching undergraduate programmes are effective in fostering professional values emerges as an important need. In this process, the reflections of faculty members employed in this field are considered to be valuable as a main source of information. Therefore, the aim of this study is to reveal the evaluations of experts within the field of classroom teaching field regarding the adequacy of undergraduate programmes for fostering professional values.

METHOD

RESEARCH DESIGN

In this study, a “*single case study*” design was used in order to best serve the purpose of the research. A case study in the qualitative paradigm is a contextual interpretation that examines a phenomenon or event in depth, based on the questions “how” and “why”, and reveals the

reasons, ideas and attitudes underlying that phenomenon or event. In a case study, it is possible to reveal a situation or situations that can be perceived holistically in an in-depth longitudinal examination of an ongoing current event. In this design, in a similar way to experimental studies, the researcher collects data about the same dimensions. He or she gathers comparable data by means of a standard tool for a specific problem situation.

STUDY GROUP

In order to achieve research, aim the criterion sampling method, one of the purposive sampling methods, was used. These criteria can either be set by the researcher, or else a previously prepared list of criteria can be used (Merriam, 2013). With this sampling method, the study group is based on the theory that they possess the necessary knowledge about the research. The criterion for determining the participants was that they should have written scientific publications on the subjects of values and specifically of classroom teaching competencies. The research sample consisted of 16 faculty members, 10 of them associate professors and 6 of them professors, in the classroom teaching department of the education faculty at state universities in Turkey. 14 of the participants are male, and 2 of them are female. 6 participants from universities in Central Anatolia, 5 from universities in Eastern Anatolia, and 5 from universities in the Black Sea Region took part in the study.

DATA COLLECTION TOOL

With a review of the literature related to the subject and by obtaining the views of specialists, the questions *“To what extent are the existing undergraduate programmes effective in fostering professional values in preservice classroom teachers? Can you criticise the programmes?”* were addressed to the participants. *The research data were gathered with semi-structured interviews conducted with the voluntary participants during the 2016-2017 academic year. The semi-structured interviews were made in person by the first researcher. Faculty members who met the necessary criteria from state universities in Central Anatolia, Eastern Anatolia*

and the Black Sea Region were contacted. Pre-interviews were held with the participants in the study by giving them information about the aim of the research. After their permission had been obtained, appointments were requested. The principle of voluntariness was observed in the study. In this way, the planned semi-structured interviews were carried out, each lasting approximately 25-30 minutes. The interviews were recorded with a voice recorder. The data collection process was supported by means of notetaking.

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

The first stage of the data analysis was the transcript of the data. For the data transcript, the computer-assisted NVivo 12 software for qualitative data preparation was utilised. With this aim, the transcript of the voice recordings was made by the first researcher. The raw data obtained were converted into written format (29 pages). To check the accuracy and validity of the transcript, the voice recordings were listened to again by the second researcher. The written printouts of the research questions, written notes and all interviews were read and verified by the researchers. Following this operation, the analysis operations were begun.

The second stage of the data analysis was content analysis. For the content analysis, the researchers of this study worked as coders. The analysis of the data was performed using Moustakas's (1994) four-stage content analysis steps. These process steps are 1) coding the data, 2) identifying the themes, 3) organising the codes and themes, and 4) describing and interpreting the findings.

In the content analysis, the codes were created from the sections constituting a meaningful whole in themselves, according to the concepts extracted from the obtained data. The codes were examined by gathering them together. The initial themes were formed by combining related codes into themes according to similarities and differences in the codes. Within this scope, the data analysis framework was determined on the basis of the codes generated from the data, the themes that they belonged to, the related literature and the aim of the study. The codes for the obtained data were created separately by the researchers and three experts

from outside the faculty. Following these operations, goodness of fit between the codes was examined. Based on the codes obtained, the process of creating the final themes of the study was carried out. Based on these themes, the analyses were performed in the “Nodes” section of the NVivo 12 program. The subthemes of the main themes were indexed within the holistic framework of the concepts. The themes and subthemes that emerged from the analyses were visualised in the “Maps” section of the program.

Direct quotations were used for the coding of the themes. By giving the findings directly, the aim was to increase the consistency of the data in the study. In the quoted statements, the words spoken were transferred by preserving the meaning of the quotation. For words, phrases and paragraph narrations that were not transferred, three dots (...) next to the quoted statement were used. In quoted expressions regarded as necessary, the statements were organised according to the rules of spelling and orthography whilst preserving the meaning of the participants’ statements. After the quoted statements, in accordance with the principle of confidentiality, a symbol such as (P₇) representing each study participant was included. In this coding, P stands for participant and 7 represents that participant’s number.

VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Procedures for carrying out the internal validity of the study were: (1) The theoretical framework of the study was formed by conducting an in-depth review of the related literature. (2) The data in the findings section were interpreted according to the themes they belonged to. The findings from the data analysis were found to be suitable for realising the research aim, internally consistent, and related to the field literature. It can be said that this situation ensures the internal validity of the study. (3) The findings obtained in the data analysis were presented in the form of direct quotations. (4) The views of experts were obtained in order to confirm whether or not the themes accessed in the study represented the theme they were located in. For the expert views, two lists containing the themes and codes were given to three faculty members in the field of values and classroom teaching at different

state universities. These lists contain 2 conceptual themes and the names and characteristics of 15 subthemes belonging to these themes. The specialists were asked to match the 2 conceptual themes and their 15 subthemes without excluding any of the themes or codes. In order to ensure clarity and lucidity in some themes, revisions were made regarding expression in line with the views of the experts. Themes on which agreement could not be reached were (i) *university does not have a clear mission* and (ii) *preservice teachers’ qualities*. In this context, based on the opinions of the experts, agreement was reached on 2 conceptual themes and 13 subthemes.

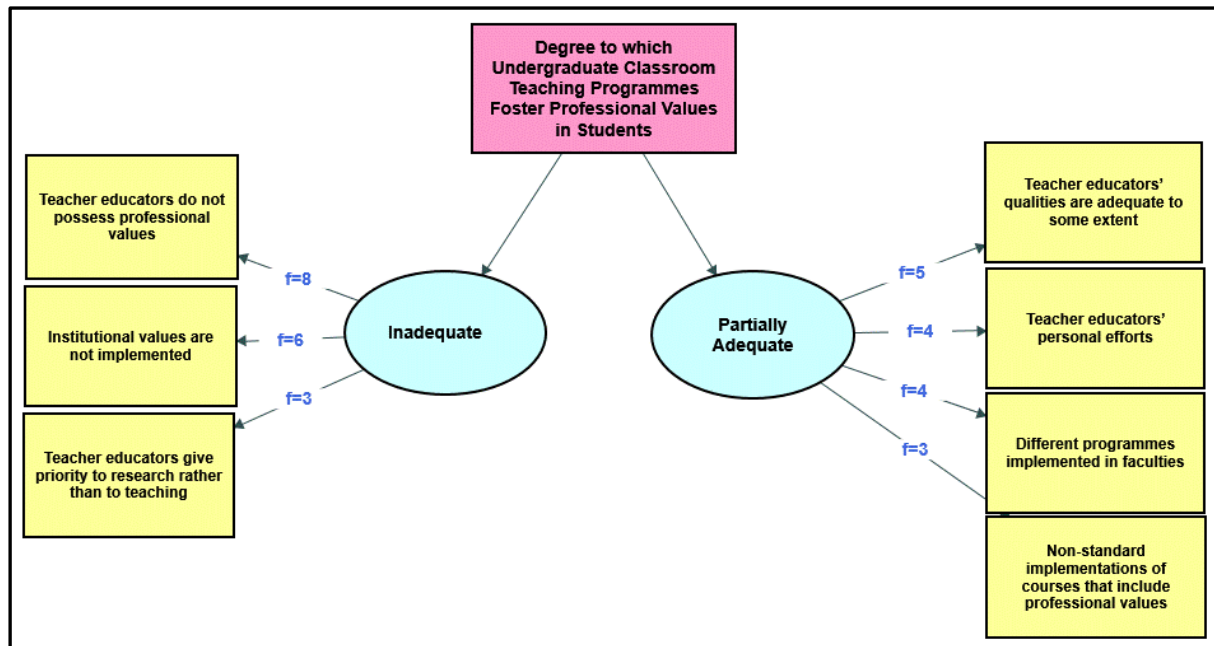
The operations made to ensure the external validity of the study were: in-depth explanation of the model of the research in the method section, the selection process for the study group, the data collection tool, and the data analysis based on the interviews that were conducted. The research process in the study, and the data analysis and interpretation are explained simply and clearly in a way that readers can understand.

To ensure the external reliability of the study, the procedures carried out were: (i) the data collection process was presented holistically by visualisation of the results based on in-depth data analysis operations, and (ii) the selection of the research topic of the study and operations related to conversion of the method into practice were explained in depth. By in-depth explanation of the operations in the research process, the confirmability of the study was ensured. The data and codes accessed in the study process were stored in an electronic environment so that they could be examined again in the future.

FINDINGS

The findings obtained from the data of the study were grouped under two themes. These themes are: (i) *degree to which undergraduate classroom teaching programmes foster professional values in students*, and (ii) *preservice activities to be carried out for fostering professional values*. The findings are presented thematically in depth below.

Figure 1. Degree to which undergraduate classroom teaching programmes foster professional values in students



As can be seen in Figure 1, for the theme of *degree to which undergraduate classroom teaching programmes foster professional values in students*, a total of seven themes belonging to the *inadequate* and *partially adequate* subthemes were obtained.

Views related to the theme of *degree to which undergraduate classroom teaching programmes foster professional values in students* are reflected in the following statements: (i) *Inadequate*: teacher educators do not possess professional values, institutional values are not implemented, and teacher educators give priority to research rather than to teaching; (ii) *Partially adequate*: teacher educators' qualities are adequate to some extent, teacher educators' personal efforts, different programmes implemented in faculties, and non-standard implementations of courses that include professional values. In this section of the study, the aim is to contribute to the field by in-depth presentation of the themes obtained from the data generation.

Regarding the fostering of professional values in preservice teachers by undergraduate programmes, for the finding under the *inadequate* theme that teacher educators do not possess professional values, with the opinions that “Just as we talk

about which professional values preservice teachers should have, what kind of lecturer should we, as lecturers, be? This should also be discussed. If I don't go into my lesson prepared, if I don't enter on time, if I have not mastered the subject area, I can only say these to the teacher candidates facing me...” (P₃) and “*They cannot foster them, since we faculty members do not possess these values. We do not come equipped...*” (P₁₁) an attempt was made to contribute to the field by reflecting quotations that best describe the teacher educators' opinions.

The finding that teacher educators prioritise research rather than instruction is supported by the view that “*The university is in a state of confusion between doing scientific research and educating teachers. Academicians do scientific research to advance themselves, but none of them do this to educate teachers. It is only done to acquire a new title...*” (P₁₂).

The theme related to the lack of implementation of institutional values in the fostering of professional values in preservice teachers by undergraduate programmes is supported by the views that “*Institutional values are important here as well. As an institution, we do not have a set of policies by*

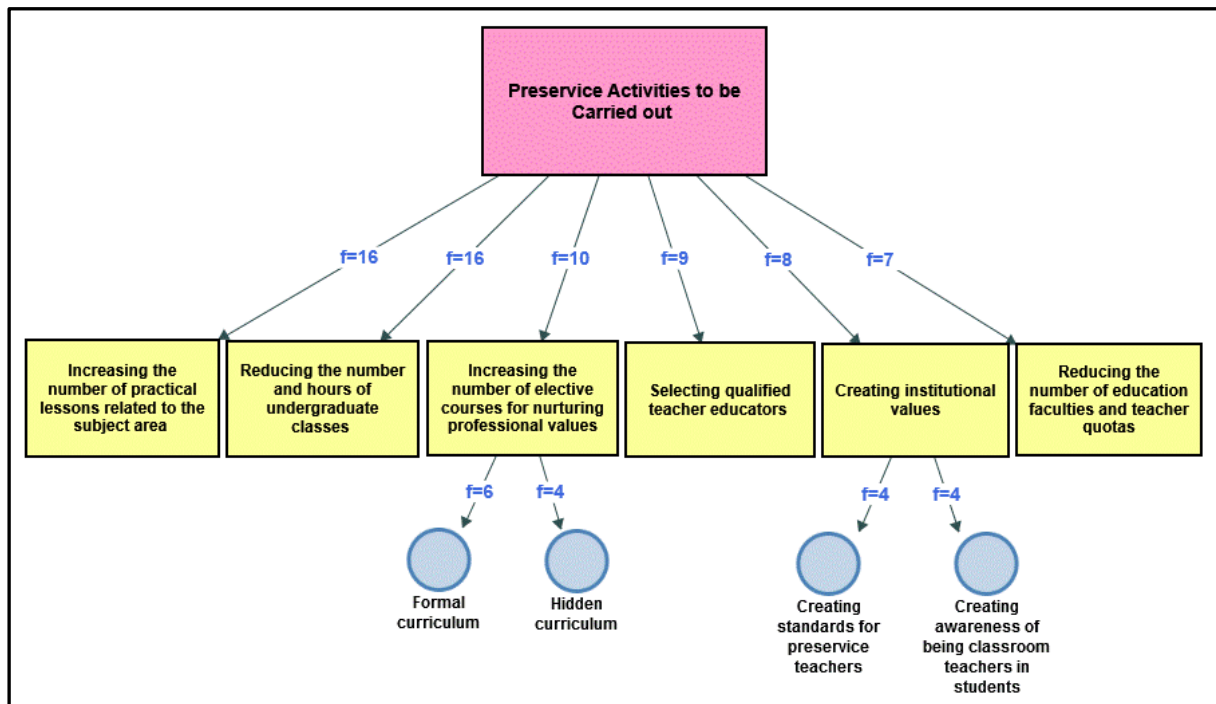
which we can demonstrate the worth to society of a teacher who has a set of values...” (P₂), “Rather than via the existing undergraduate programmes, an attempt is made to nurture professional values through the personal efforts of lecturers. When examining the existing programmes, I cannot see any explanation in the related curriculum or course content regarding the fostering of values” (P₁₅), and “Universities cannot deliver the essence, the nature of teacher training very well” (P₁₆).

The finding that teacher educators’ qualities are partially adequate is supported by the views that “Educators in universities also require training. Academicians entering classes can even differ with regard to their approach towards students. Academicians also need to have a common vision. We should act in unison when educating teacher candidates” (P₅), “Unfortunately, academicians are those without classroom teaching experience... I believe that experience is effective. I’m referring to an academician coming to class without practical experience. He/she should have at least 3 years of classroom teaching experience. I believe that a person who has never handled chalk or taught anything to children will fall short when entering the class and saying ‘look, this is how you will teach children’ ” (P₇), “In order to foster professional values, academicians themselves should also possess these competencies. Therefore, we, as lecturers, also need to ask ourselves whether we have these values. We definitely need to practise these values that we talk about...” (P₉), and “Due to the training that we receive as academicians and instructors, when we create a democratic atmosphere in class, the students who are trained with this system in class will reflect this professional attitude onto their own class when they begin to serve as classroom teachers” (P₁₂). The finding that teacher

educators’ qualities are partially adequate was reflected by the faculty members according to their own perceptions.

The view that professional values are fostered with teacher educators’ personal efforts was expressed as “I believe that the fostering of professional values is limited by lecturers’ personal responsibilities or personal beliefs. Otherwise, it does not seem possible that these values can be acquired with these lessons in a theoretical sense. The lessons are not really related to the things that we ourselves seek or expect. But aren’t there fragments? Of course, you can obtain results which you can associate with these in all areas. But it appears that it remains as a structure limited to the personal efforts of the lecturer delivering this course...” (P₁), while the finding that different programmes were implemented among faculties and that implementations of professional values by teacher educators were non-standard was supported by the view that “...Whether there is an error or not in the programmes in terms of reasoning, small changes may be required, but the extent to which these are put into practice by implementers is important. There may be different product outcomes even in the same programme at the same faculty because lecturers apply differently...” (P₉), and “In Turkey, even if the programme is the same, the product outcomes may differ. There are no different programmes at different universities. There is the same classroom teaching programme, but when you look, different types of teaching may develop, in terms of either achievement or personality...” (P₁₄).

Figure 2 Preservice activities to be carried out for fostering professional values.



As can be seen in Figure 2, for the theme of *preservice activities to be carried out for fostering professional values*, a total of six subthemes were obtained. Within the context of the study findings, the teacher educators made suggestions with their own reflections related to how the acquisition of professional values could be increased prior to service. *Preservice activities to be carried out for fostering professional values* were expressed as increasing the number of practical lessons related to the subject area, reducing the number and hours of undergraduate classes, increasing the number of elective courses for nurturing professional values (in the formal curriculum and in the hidden curriculum), selecting qualified teacher educators, creating institutional values (creating awareness of being classroom teachers in students and creating standards for preservice teachers, and reducing the number of education faculties and teacher quotas. In this section of the study, the aim is to contribute to the field by in-depth presentation of the themes obtained from the data generation.

Under the theme of *preservice activities to be carried out for fostering professional values*, the suggestion that the number of practical lessons related to the subject area should be increased is supported by the view that *“There is a lack of various activity-weighted projects and activities in the programme. The student just enters the lesson, and leaves after the lesson. Here, the school needs*

to be transformed into a campus and become an educational location, so that when the student comes to school, there is a conference here, an exhibition there, a theatre here, scouting there, and other activities... We educate classroom teachers, but we don't train them to be equipped for various skills. There may not be every facility in faculties, but some facilities must be provided. There should be a choir and a theatre. I regard these as deficiencies...” (P₁).

The suggestion that the number and hours of undergraduate classes should be reduced is supported by the views that *“The lessons should be reduced. The student should set aside one day per week for social activities...”* (P₁), *“Prior to service, the classroom teaching programmes should be revised, and the number of hours reduced. Perhaps a number of flexibilities could be introduced into the programme...”* (P₂), and *“160 credits and the number of classes are excessive. At university, theory should be supported with practice in lessons and content should be defined completely in detail...”* (P₁₂). The recommendation that the number of elective courses for nurturing professional values should be increased is supported by the opinions that *“There are no classes related to directly teaching values in the programme. My recommendation: in my opinion, a values education course, even an elective one, would be very beneficial...”* (P₁₀), and *“There*

could be a course designed related to professional ethics in teaching. There could also be a course into which we can feed or programme values. A course like this could be defined and designed..." (P₁₂). This recommendation is also supported by the view that *"In values education, the hidden curriculum is very important. This is related to well-rounded development of classroom teachers. I believe that for values education to be received implicitly, preservice classroom teachers should participate in more activities related to values"* (P₆).

The recommendation that qualified teacher educators needed to be selected is supported by the opinion that *"In order to nurture professional values, academicians also need to possess these competences. Therefore, when academicians are selected, it is important that they should possess the required professional values and have practical experience..."* (P₁₆). The suggestion that institutional values should be created is supported by the view that *"Prior to service, we should lay claim to our field institutionally. There could be activities, seminars and workshops that can raise awareness of this in our teacher candidates. Our graduating of undergraduate preservice teachers by nurturing awareness could perhaps be a more functional strategy. The more value you place on your own field and on yourself, and the more you protect your own values and allow them to be sustained, the more value you are given in society..."* (P₄). The recommendation that the number of education faculties and teacher quotas should be reduced is supported by the opinion that *"I believe that reduction of both education faculties and classroom teaching programmes is a crucial issue for educating qualified teachers... When the number of classroom teaching staff is increased too much, we see teachers who are not closely related to the field, such as teachers who have studied purely science or who have studied purely mathematics, in our field"* (P₂).

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The aim of this study was to reveal the *evaluations of experts in the field of classroom teaching about the adequacy of undergraduate programmes for fostering professional values*. For this purpose, a qualitative study based on the case study method

was conducted with sixteen lecturers in the field of classroom teaching. By analysing the data generated by the lecturers in a theoretical framework related to the subject area, the results obtained were presented in two themes. These themes were expressed as *degree to which undergraduate classroom teaching programmes foster professional values in students*, and *preservice activities to be carried out for fostering professional values*. Therefore, the aim was, by discussing the obtained findings thematically, to contribute to the subject area from the viewpoint of both Turkey and a universal context.

Considering the first theme of the study, it was stated by the relevant experts that undergraduate classroom teaching programmes were not at the desired level for nurturing professional values in students. The reasons for this finding were explained under the following headings: regarding *inadequacy, teacher educators do not possess professional values, institutional values are not implemented, and teacher educators give priority to research rather than to teaching*; in terms of *partial adequacy, teacher educators' qualities are adequate to some extent, teacher educators' personal efforts, different programmes implemented in faculties, and non-standard implementations of courses that include professional values*.

Regarding the finding that *teacher educators do not possess professional values*, there are studies on attitudes of lecturers and preservice teachers in education faculties in Turkey towards the profession (Şahin, 2014; Taş et. al. 2017; Tunca et al. 2015). In these studies, it is stated that problems were experienced regarding professional values in areas such as possessing qualities for the teaching profession, displaying democratic behaviour, communication skills, supporting students, giving feedback according to student evaluations, renewing and updating information, effective lesson delivery, classroom management, using different methods and techniques, and using materials. According to the literature results in these studies, it is seen that no studies exist in which professional values of teacher educators in Turkey are discussed and evaluated holistically. In Exley and Dennick's (2009) study, it was revealed that instructors preferred a *"didactic"* method.

However, in the age of information that we now live in, using primarily “*active learning*” methods instead of a “*didactic*” method can contribute more to students’ effective learning and their internalisation of what is learnt. In a very limited number of studies, problems stemming from inadequacy of professional values in teacher educators are revealed (Kaya et. al. 2017; Peker-Ünal, 2017). It can be said that one of the important factors in this problem of inadequacy is because academic staff who educate teachers in education faculties do not have teaching experience. This is a serious problem, and although the great majority of teacher trainers in Turkey have insufficient teaching experience or none at all, they are employed to train teachers. In contrast to this situation in Turkey, in the most successful education faculties worldwide, in countries like USA, Finland and Britain, one must have teaching experience in order to work as a teacher trainer.

The finding that *teacher educators give priority to research rather than to teaching* can be linked to the fact that for academic advancement, evaluation of academic performance is made based on studies included in the research dimension. This problem also occurs in USA, Germany, Australia, France and Canada. It is revealed in the related literature that since universities are classified according to the number of publications at an international level, and the quantitative and qualitative number of publications by the relevant department and faculty members is regarded, priority is given to research. In universities in these countries, priority is given to scientific research (Huber, 2002; Taylor, 2001).

Although this practice generally pertains to those countries, it can be said that the situation is the same in universities in Turkey. The fact that academicians also give priority to publication due to the academic incentive payments implemented in Turkey in 2015 was brought onto the agenda with the quantitative increase in the number of publications in 2015 and 2016. In related studies, the striking finding that academicians put instruction in the background and gave priority to research was revealed (Göksu and Bolat, 2017; Küçük and Karabacak, 2017). In contrast with these practices, in Britain, priority is given in academic performance assessment to evaluation of

the qualitative dimension and of instruction. Academicians have three main duties, namely research, instruction and generating community-oriented projects (Küçük and Karabacak, 2017). Despite the necessity for these three duties to support each other and be given equal consideration, it is stressed that since the process of transforming academic studies into publications is a tough task, preference is given to research. As in the example of practices carried out in Britain, in academic advancement of lecturers and their evaluations, their success regarding lesson delivery must be used towards increasing teaching quality (Arubayi, 1984; Gracas et. al. 1986). In this context, for standardising professional values required by the teacher educators who train teachers, conducting studies aimed at fostering these professional values becomes an important obligation.

Regarding the finding that *institutional values are not implemented*, the results revealed in the literature show that although every education faculty in Turkey has a written mission, no studies exist on whether these missions are carried out, whether they are sufficiently known, or how successful they are in this regard. Turkey’s educational mission is “*contemporary civilisation*”. In line with this mission, in the undergraduate programmes of education faculties, fulfilment of the requirements of the information age can be realised by training qualified teachers. (Wilson and Cameron 1996). In this context, in parallel with global developments, Turkey is attempting to attain certain standards to take its place in social, political, economic, technological, scientific and educational fields. In order to reach these standards, the way to providing a trained workforce that can introduce new products by combining scientific knowledge with use of technology is achieved by educating qualified teachers.

For teachers to bring about this change, it is very important that they are trained to be equipped with professional values prior to service. In this regard, undergraduate teaching programmes must train teacher candidates who are equipped with professional values so that they can produce solutions to problems they may encounter in their careers.

Regarding the research results, it can be said that the reason why *institutional values are not implemented* may again be because education faculties do not adequately adopt the required mission. Every culture creates its own education system. Although Turkey has a long-established history of teacher training, it is seen that education faculties have not sufficiently created institutional values. In education faculties, it is very important to educate teachers equipped with professional values who can generate solutions according to the environment where the school is located, cope with problems they encounter, and spend energy on the school and stakeholders for sustaining professional responsibility.

When we examine the countries at the top of the list in the order of development nowadays, it can be said that they are countries with institutional values in education (Singapore, Britain, Finland, the Netherlands, Malaysia, South Korea, China (Shanghai), Mexico, Australia and Romania). Among these countries, in Britain, school-centred teacher training is conducted. In Finland, except for preschool teaching, since 1978, all teachers have been required to do postgraduate education in their own fields. Singapore always honours and supports its teachers. For example, in Singapore, preservice teachers receive a salary and personal benefits as soon as they begin their teacher training. In this context, analysing these countries in terms of institutional standards in education, and examining the solutions and functionality that they bring to current equivalent problems in education, will contribute to examination of ways of generating solutions to our own education problems in a universal context but with regard to Turkey.

Examining the research results, no studies could be found in the related literature to support the findings that undergraduate classroom teaching programmes were partially adequate for fostering professional values in students due to personal efforts of teacher trainers and to non-standard implementations of professional values by teacher trainers. A limited number of studies exist in the related literature regarding the finding that *teacher educators' qualities are adequate to some extent* (Çoban, 2011; Kaya et. al. 2017). In these studies, it is revealed that undergraduate classroom

teaching programmes are insufficient for fostering professional values in students, and that the programme needs to be supported for nurturing professional values. Regarding the finding that *different programmes are implemented among faculties*, since instructors have to teach subjects outside their own fields for fostering professional values in preservice teachers, course load and student numbers are excessive, and instructors do not graduate from education faculties, they focus on general topics of subject knowledge rather than giving preference to professional knowledge/education, which supports the results of these studies.

There are also a few studies revealing that the professional values possessed by teacher educators conducting different programme applications among faculties have a significant effect on the quality of teachers that are trained (Babadoğan and Boz 2005; Erginer et. al. 2009).

Regarding the second theme of the study, *preservice activities to be carried out for fostering professional values* were expressed as a recommendation. The recommendations made in this regard were *increasing the number of practical lessons related to the subject area, reducing the number and hours of undergraduate classes, increasing the number of elective courses for nurturing professional values, selecting qualified teacher educators, creating institutional values, and reducing the number of education faculties and teacher quotas*. With regard to *creating institutional values*, relevant findings that support these results can be found only in the study by Karabacak, Küçük and Korkmaz (2018). A few studies exist related to *reducing the number of education faculties and teacher quotas*. In these recent studies, it is revealed that the number of programmes that can be chosen by students in education faculties is excessive and that there are problems with the increase in the number of education faculties in newly-opened universities and with reducing student quotas (Aslan et. al. 2017; Kılınç et. al. 2017).

The problem of *reducing the number of education faculties and teacher quotas* has also appeared in the current press as a problem experienced in education faculties in Turkey. In 2019, the quotas

for teaching programmes were reduced by 10% by the Higher Education Council (YÖK) (bianet.org 2019). The implementation of the decision to reduce quotas for teaching programmes as an education policy means that the theme of *reducing the number of education faculties and teacher quotas* is an important and striking finding of this study.

T

he findings regarding *increasing the number of practical lessons related to the subject area, reducing the number and hours of undergraduate classes, and increasing the number of elective courses for nurturing professional values* are supported by studies in the related literature (Karabacak et. al. 2018; Şahin and Kartal, 2013). The finding related to *selecting qualified teacher educators* corresponds to the findings in Şahin and Kartal's (2013) study, in which the subject of teacher educators being domain experts and their effectiveness in the education process was discussed.

In the studies stated above, the need for preservice teachers graduating from bachelor's programmes and beginning their careers to be given extensive guidance in the first years of their careers is revealed in many studies. Similarly, the problems experienced by teachers (communication with stakeholders, classroom management, making students enthusiastic to learn, lesson planning, preparing individual teaching programmes, preparing materials, meeting the needs of students from different cultures, giving guidance to students, multigrade classes, rural education, active use of technology, etc.) are included in the field literature. Within the context of *increasing the number of practical lessons related to the subject area*, it is revealed that the preservice training received by teachers beginning their careers is mostly theory based (Abalı-Öztürk and Şahin, 2018; Arslanoğlu, 2015). Therefore, it is considered necessary to increase the number of practical lessons related to the subject in undergraduate classroom teaching programmes. Taking this need into consideration, the course catalogues of the *2018-2019 Undergraduate Classroom Teaching Programmes* were updated (YÖK, 2018).

There are studies, albeit limited in number, related to solving qualitative problems as opposed to quantitative problems in teacher training in Turkey. The field literature in recent years reveals that there is a need to educate teachers and increase their quality, that although there is a need for courses related to professional values/ethics in teachers' undergraduate education, they do not take these courses, and that the most important of the trainings needed is training in professional values. According to the results of Arslanoğlu's (2015) study, the fact that teacher educators in Turkey are deficient regarding expertise, work ethics and work discipline weakens the relationship between theory and practice for providing the required guidance and assistance to students. Contrary to this finding, the effectiveness of the hidden curriculum in fostering professional values in undergraduate students in classroom teaching and the fact that teacher educators are role models are revealed in related studies (Peker-Ünal, 2017). In the context of fostering professional values, professional values courses must be included in course catalogues of teacher training programmes. With the inclusion of a "*Professional Morals and Ethics*" course in the catalogue of the *2018-2019 Undergraduate Classroom Teaching Programmes* (YÖK, 2018) based on this need, it can be said that this study, with its striking results, contributes to the field with scientific findings.

In the study by Abalı-Öztürk and Şahin (2018), it was stated that with the revisions made in the *2018-2019 Undergraduate Classroom Teaching Programmes*, the reduction in course hours allowed preservice teachers to participate in social and cultural activities outside the programme, and that the inclusion of the "*Morals and Ethics in Education*" course was a positive development in terms of fostering professional values needed for the teaching profession in preservice training.

Regarding the related literature, a limited number of studies were accessed that deal with fostering professional values in undergraduate classroom teaching programmes. When these were examined, it was seen that *although similar applications are carried out in Turkey to those of countries that are successful in fostering professional values in undergraduate teacher training programmes, the fact that professional values are not adequately*

nurtured in preschool teachers prior to service in this country is a striking problem. For professional values to be acquired and internalised in teacher education, it is very important for preservice teachers to gain school experience combined with courses that provide experiential learning. In addition, it is essential that by intensification of pedagogically-based courses, students gain practical experience by which they can identify individual differences and needs and recognise school culture so that preservice programmes can achieve their aims.

Based on the discussion made up to this point, for the *Undergraduate Classroom Teaching Programmes* to succeed in nurturing knowledge,

skills and professional values in teacher candidates, it is essential that qualified teacher educators are selected, that teacher educators possess professional values and that institutional values are created. In the 2018 revision of the Undergraduate Classroom Teaching Programme in Turkey, elective courses aimed at fostering professional values in students in the preservice period were added, and implementations for reducing quotas in education faculties were made. These recent implementations reveal the value of the research in the context of the striking results of this study.

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INVESTIGATION OF EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHIES AND GENERAL SELF-EFFICACY PERCEPTIONS OF GRADUATE STUDENTS IN EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES PROGRAMS

Abstract: The purpose of the research is to determine the educational philosophy orientations and general self-efficacy perceptions adopted by graduate students in educational sciences programs. This study was designed a correlational survey model. The study group consisted of 128 graduate students enrolled in educational science programs in different universities. Two different scales were used as data collection tool in the research. The first is the Philosophical Orientation Evaluation Scale adapted to Turkish by Doğanay and Sarı (2003). The second scale is adapted into Turkish by Aypay (2010) to determine the general self-efficacy perceptions of graduate students. Frequency, percentage, arithmetic mean and standard deviation; Mann-Whitney U test and Kruskal Wallis H-Test were used in data analysis. As a result, it was observed that 96 (75%) of 128 graduate students adopted the educational philosophies of experientialism and followed by the philosophies of realism, perennialism, existentialism and idealism, respectively. A significant difference has been determined in favor of teachers in the profession variable, idealism and realism sub-dimensions of graduate students' philosophical orientation scores. It was also clarified that the philosophical orientation scores of students differed significantly in favor of graduate students in the sub-dimensions of philosophy of perennialism and idealism according to the graduate program level. Based on the reasons of these educational philosophy orientations, in depth studies based on different variables may be carried out with a broader participation. It may also be suggested to conduct qualitative researches based on the processes and problems experienced by graduate students in both professions. The draft version of this study was presented as an oral presentation in the 3rd National Congress of Curriculum & Instruction, 07-09 May 2014, Gaziantep.

Keywords: educational philosophy, philosophical orientation, self-efficacy perception, graduate students

Kerim Gündoğdu, PhD
Full Professor
Faculty of Education
Adnan Menderes University
Aydın
Turkey
Contact:
E-mail: gundogduk@gmail.com
ORCID: 0000-0003-4809-3405

Fevzi Dursun, PhD
Assistant Professor
Faculty of Education
Gaziosmanpaşa University
Tokat
Turkey
Contact:
E-mail: fevzidursun@gmail.com
ORCID: 0000-0003-2103-8940

Asuman Seda Saracaloğlu, PhD
Full Professor
Faculty of Education
Adnan Menderes University
Aydın
Turkey
Contact:
E-mail: sedasaracal@gmail.com
ORCID: 0000-0001-7980-0892

INTRODUCTION

The Greek word philosophy is derived from the words of *Philia* (love) and *Sophia* (wisdom). Therefore, while philosophy means love of knowledge or wisdom, the philosopher is the person who loves wisdom, knowledge and wants to reach it (Cevizci, 2009; Küken, 1996).

When establishing the education system, priority should be given to the goals and objectives. It is imperative to approach philosophy in order to decide what the goals should be. The set of criteria obtained from philosophy can be used to evaluate the education system in terms of internal consistency (Ertürk 1986). The most important question that philosophy addresses to education is the question of what the characteristics are desired to be gained to the individual (Demirel, 2001; Fidan & Erden, 1998; Topdemir, 2008).

Many of the instructional decisions that teachers make in the classroom and the quality of access to information are influenced by their educational philosophies (Asan, Koymen and Obeidat, 2005; Feinberg, 1995). For decades, there has been studies of beliefs, perceptions and tendencies related to educational philosophies and philosophical orientations affecting classroom practices and activities within the field of education (Waichan and Elliott, 2000). Teachers' beliefs, thoughts or philosophical understandings shape their classroom practices since goals and curricular objectives strongly affected and determined by the philosophy as a discipline (Fidan & Erden, 1998; ; Reed & Bergemann, 1995; Reigeluth, 1996).

The teaching profession has been defined in various laws and regulations as a profession that requires specialist knowledge. This definition shows that the teaching profession should have some qualifications and efficacies. Turkish Language Institution 'efficacy/competence' has been defined as the power to fulfill its duty (<http://www.tdk.gov.tr>). The attitude, behavior, knowledge and skills required by the teaching profession are possible with the general cultural knowledge of the teacher training programs, the field knowledge and the teaching profession knowledge (Celep, 2004).

Self-efficacy is the perception of individuals related to how well they can perform the actions required in dealing with possible cases (Bandura, 1995). Self-efficacy is tried to organize the activities necessary for the individual to perform a certain performance and to do it successfully. The concept of self-efficacy in Bandura's social learning theory is assumed to be a key part for behavior change and cognitive development (Heaton, 2013). Self-efficacy beliefs are effective in determining the future goals and life of the individual and controlling the environment (Çubukçu & Girmen, 2007).

Self-efficacy determines the individual's setting goals for himself, how much effort he will make to achieve the goal he has set, and how long he can withstand the challenges he faces. If they experience failure, they affect their reactions to this failure (Akkoyunlu, Orhan and Umay, 2005). Bandura defines self-efficacy as the belief or self-judgment of the individual's capacity to succeed in performing a certain performance or behavior (Bandura, 1997, p. 15). According to Bandura, self-efficacy is one of the most important factors contributing to the individual's social cognitive theory-based behavior: "Beliefs in personal efficacy are the key factor of human agency. If people believe that they do not have the power to produce results, they will not attempt to do something" (Bandura, 1997, p. 3). Senemoğlu (2013), put forwards that self-efficacy is not an indication of an individual's skills, but a self-perception of a product of their thoughts about what they can do with their skills and the ability to deal with different situations and solve a problem. Those with high self-efficacy perception have high motivation and responsibility to perform a task and focus on their goals with a strong sense of responsibility. Individuals with low self-efficacy struggle weakly to reach their goals and produce excuses in the difficulties they face (Pajares, 2002; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001).

In this respect, it is considered important to investigate the educational philosophies, efficacy perceptions and experiences of those who want to improve themselves in the field of education and especially those who have graduate education in this field. Because the contribution of those who want to specialize in educational sciences

(curriculum & instruction, guidance and psychological counseling, educational administration, measurement and evaluation in education) seems to be crucial for the educational professionalism. Employees in the field of education can adopt a single educational philosophy as well as multiple educational philosophies. From this point of view, the relationship between people's epistemological beliefs and educational philosophies affects their environment by shaping all their emotions, thoughts and behaviors in their lives. General self-efficacy is also defined as the general trust of the person in many areas, and in situations that are difficult to deal with or are not accustomed to (Scholz, Gutierrez-Dona, Sud, and Schwarzer, 2002, cited by Aypay, 2010).

Every element of the educational process has a dynamic structure: school buildings, curricula, student needs, materials, policies. Teachers, who are a natural part of this change, are in a position to direct this process with their competencies. Investigating the extent to which teachers have qualifications will increase the efficiency of the learning and teaching process, as well as provide important data to policy makers in the decision-making process. Whatever philosophy is taken as the basis, people are treated as such and the education system is arranged accordingly. As a matter of fact, without determining how the philosophy on which the education system is based on human beings is determined, a healthy decision cannot be reached regarding the consistency of the goals, behaviors, content, education and testing situations. In this respect, philosophy contributes to education. The philosophy of education is to evaluate educational practices with a critical approach, to base theoretical foundations of applications and to reveal educational theories consistent with the quality of society, culture, and people for educational practices. According to Aydemir (2019), the Education Beliefs Scale developed by Yılmaz, Altinkurt and Çokluk (2011) in the studies conducted in order to reveal the educational philosophies of administrators, teachers and teacher candidates; Doğanay and Sarı (2003) translated into Turkish and crunch of Philosophical Orientation Assessment; İlhan, Çetin and Arslan (2014) developed Prospective Teachers' Adopted Philosophies are noteworthy

that is frequently used. Withing this context, the purpose of the research is to determine the educational philosophy orientations and general self-efficacy perceptions adopted by graduate students in educational sciences programs.

METHOD

In this study correlational survey model was employed to determine the relationship with general self-efficacy perceptions with educational philosophies adopted by educational sciences graduate students (Karasar, 2009). The study group is composed of 128 graduate students in the field of educational sciences enrolled in different graduate schools of the universities in Turkey. Lowerhough the study group participants create their universities in Turkey; The questionnaire on the internet (GOOGLE drive) was announced on social media (facebook and e-mail) and was created by volunteering by the participants.

PARTICIPANTS

Of the 128 graduate students constituting the sample group in the study, 46 (35.9%) are women and 83 (64.1%) are men. Of the 128 graduate students constituting the sample group, 19 (14.8%) were in the 20-25 age group, 46 (35.9%) were in the 26-30 age range, 38 (29.7%) were in the 31-35 age range in the group and 25 (19.5%) in the age group 36 and above. It was determined that 32 (25%) of the 128 graduate students in the study worked as academicians and 96 (75%) as teachers. 101 of the 128 graduate students in the study stated that they studied at the level of master's degree (78.9%) and 27 at the level of doctorate (21.1%). It was determined that 91 (71.1%) of the 128 graduate students in total continued their education in the Institute of Educational Sciences and 37 (28.9%) in the Institute of Social Sciences. Again, 48 of the 128 graduate students (43.8%) were found to continue their graduate studies in education programs and education and 72 (56.3%) of education management planning and economics. Of the 128 graduate students in the study, 9 (7%) Mediterranean, 24 (18.8%) Eastern Anatolia, 14 (10.9%) Aegean, 1 (0.8%) Southeast Anatolia, 34 (26% 6) They completed their undergraduate studies in universities in Central

Anatolia, 31 (24.2%) in the Black Sea region and 15 (11.7%) in the Marmara region.

Table 1. Demographic Information of Graduate Students

		f	%
Gender	Female	46	35,9
	Male	82	64,1
Age range	20-25	19	14,8
	26-30	46	35,9
	31-35	38	29,7
	36 and above	25	19,5
Profession	Academician	32	25,0
	Teacher	96	75,0
Graduate Program	Masters (With thesis, 48: without thesis,.53)	101	78,9
	Doctorate	27	21,1
Graduate School	Educational Sciences	91	71,1
	Social Sciences	37	28,9
Department	Curriculum & Instruction	56	43,8
	Educational Administration	72	56,3
	Total	128	100

DATA COLLECTION TOOLS

Two different scales were used as data collection tool in the research. The educational philosophies adopted by graduate students were tried to be depicted with the data obtained with the general self-efficacy perception scale to determine the philosophical Orientation assessment form (FTDF) and general self-efficacy perceptions. With the philosophical Orientation assessment form applied to graduate students, the information obtained from the inventory of general self-efficacy perception scale and learning styles will be analyzed by associating them with each other. The First Tool: Philosophical Orientation Evaluation Form. Originally developed by Wiles and Bondi (1983), it is a Philosophical Orientation Evaluation Scale adapted to Turkish by Doğanay and Sarı (2003). Alpha reliability coefficient of the scale was calculated as 0.81. Second tool: In order to determine the general self-efficacy perception levels of graduate students, the alpha coefficient of the scale adapted to Turkish by Aypay (2010) is .83.

ANALYSIS

The total score and arithmetic average of each educational philosophy was calculated by summing up the students' responses to items related to persistence, idealism, realism, experientialism, and existentialist philosophy in the Philosophical Orientation Assessment Form. Again, the total self-efficacy scale and the arithmetic average of the students' responses to the 10 items on a four-point scale were calculated on the general self-efficacy scale. In statistical analysis; frequency, percentage, arithmetic mean and standard deviation, Mann-Whitney U test and Kruskal Wallis H-Test were used.

RESULTS

For the purposes of the research, the educational philosophy approaches and general distribution of general self-efficacy levels and statistical analyzes related to gender, profession, graduate programs, institute and majors are included. Also, comparison of adopted educational philosophies and general self-efficacy levels is included.

GRADUATE STUDENTS' EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY ORIENTATION

In this section, the Mann-Whitney U test was used because the number of people in the groups was below fifty (50) when the variables were included in the analysis, and the average scores obtained from the measurements did not show normal distribution as a result of the Kolmogorov Smirnov test ($p > 0.05$). The scale, consisting of a total of 40 items in the five-point Likert type, was applied to

128 students studying graduate. By summing up the answers given by the students to the items in the scale, the total score and the arithmetic average of each educational philosophy were calculated. Accordingly, the education philosophy with the highest average was accepted as the first choice of graduate students and evaluations were made on this basis. The frequency and percentage values of pre-service teachers' philosophy Orientations according to the five dimensions of the scale are given in Table 3.

Table 3. General Distribution of Educational Philosophy Orientations

Philosophy	f	Percent (%)
Perennialism	10	7,81
Idealism	1	0,78
Realizm	13	10,16
Experientialism	96	75
Existentialism	8	6,25
Total	128	100

Of the 128 graduate students participating in this research, 10 (7.81%) philosophy of persistence, 1 (0.78%) philosophy of idealism, 13 (10.16%) philosophy of realism, 96 (75%) philosophy of experientialism and 8 of them (6.25%) has been found to adopt the philosophy of existentialism. It is seen that the vast majority of students adopt experiential philosophy. Similar result In the study of Duman (2008) with prospective teachers, it was observed that a large proportion of 71.1% of the

students adopted the philosophy of experientialism. Similarly, in the studies conducted by Duman and Ulubey (2006), the philosophy of education adopted by university students and the researches of Doğanay and Sarı (2003), it was determined that experientialist education philosophy was adopted more. Education philosophy Orientations analysis according to gender variable of graduate students are given in Table 5.

Table 5. Mann-Whitney U Test Results According to Gender Related to Philosophical Orientation

Philosophy	Gender	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Perennialism	Female	46	52,09	2396,00	1315,000	-2,839	,005
	Male	82	71,46	5860,00			
Idealism	Female	46	56,24	2587,00	1506,000	-1,888	,059
	Male	82	69,13	5669,00			
Realizm	Female	46	56,24	2587,00	1506,000	-1,889	,059
	Male	82	69,13	5669,00			
Experientialism	Female	46	54,87	2524,00	1443,000	-2,204	,028
	Male	82	69,90	5732,00			
Existentialism	Female	46	60,62	2788,50	1707,500	-,887	,375
	Male	82	66,68	5467,50			
	Total	128					

As can be seen from Table 5, there is a significant difference between the gender variable of students' philosophical Orientation mean scores and

philosophy of persistence ($U = 1315,000$; $P < 0.05$) and experientialism ($U = 1443,000$; $P < 0.05$). exhibit. Considering the rank averages, it can be

said that male students have a higher average than female students in the sub-dimension of philosophy of persistence and experientialism. There is no significant difference in terms of gender with other idealism, realism and

existentialism philosophical Orientations. Educational philosophy Orientations analysis according to the professions of graduate students are given in Table 6.

Table 6. Mann-Whitney U Test Results According to Profession Related to Philosophical Orientation

Philosophy	Profession	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Perennialism	Academician	32	54,64	1748,50	1220,500	-1,738	,082
	Teacher	96	67,79	6507,50			
Idealism	Academician	32	50,72	1623,00	1095,000	-2,428	,015
	Teacher	96	69,09	6633,00			
Realizm	Academician	32	53,06	1698,00	1170,000	-2,016	,044
	Teacher	96	68,31	6558,00			
Experientialism	Academician	32	57,36	1835,50	1307,500	-1,260	,208
	Teacher	96	66,88	6420,50			
Existentialism	Academician	32	72,39	2316,50	1283,500	-1,391	,164
	Teacher	96	61,87	5939,50			
Total		128					

As seen in Table 6, there is a significant difference between the occupational variable of students' philosophical Orientation scores and the sub-dimensions of idealism ($U = 1095,000$; $P < 0.05$) and realism ($U = 1170,000$; $P < 0.05$). exhibit. Considering the mean ranks, it can be said that the students who teach in the sub-dimension of idealism and realism philosophy have a higher

average than students working as academicians. There is no significant difference in gender with other philosophy of perennialism, experientialism and existentialism. Educational philosophy Orientations analysis of graduate students according to graduate programs is given in Table 7.

Table 7. Mann-Whitney U Test Results According to Graduate Program Variable Related to Philosophical Orientation

Felsefî tercih	Level	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Perennialism	Masters	101	68,06	6874,00	1004,000	-2,102	,036
	Doctorate	27	51,19	1382,00			
Idealism	Masters	101	68,52	6921,00	957,000	-2,376	,018
	Doctorate	27	49,44	1335,00			
Realizm	Masters	101	67,31	6798,00	1080,000	-1,657	,098
	Doctorate	27	54,00	1458,00			
Experientialism	Masters	101	63,72	6436,00	1285,000	-,459	,646
	Doctorate	27	67,41	1820,00			
Existentialism	Masters	101	61,51	6213,00	1062,000	-1,763	,078
	Doctorate	27	75,67	2043,00			
Total		128					

As seen in Table 7, the students' philosophical orientation scores show a significant difference between the graduate program level and the sub-

dimensions of the philosophy of persistence ($U = 1004,000$; $P < 0.05$) and idealism ($U = 957,000$; $P < 0.05$). Considering the mean ranks, it can be said

that the students at higher undergraduate level in the philosophy of persistence and idealism have a higher average than students at doctorate level. There is no significant difference in terms of gender with other realism, experientialism and

existentialism philosophical Orientations. Analysis of educational philosophy orientations according to the institutes of graduate students are given in Table 8.

Table 8. Mann-Whitney U Test Results According to Philosophical Orientations and Graduate School Variable

Philosophy	Grad.School	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Perennialism	Educational Sciences	91	72,88	6632,50	920,500	-4,015	,000
	Social Sciences	37	43,88	1623,50			
Idealism	Educational Sciences	91	63,10	5742,00	1556,000	-,671	,503
	Social Sciences	37	67,95	2514,00			
Realizm	Educational Sciences	91	65,58	5968,00	1585,000	-,518	,604
	Social Sciences	37	61,84	2288,00			
Experientialism	Educational Sciences	91	65,02	5916,50	1636,500	-,248	,805
	Social Sciences	37	63,23	2339,50			
Existentialism	Educational Sciences	91	64,26	5848,00	1662,000	-,113	,910
	Social Sciences	37	65,08	2408,00			
	Total	128					

As can be seen from Table 8, the philosophical Orientation scores of the students show only a significant difference between the sub-dimension of the philosophy of permanence ($U = 920,500$; $P < 0.05$) according to the institute variable. Considering the rank averages, it can be said that those studying in educational sciences institutes have a higher average than those studying in social

sciences institutes. There is no significant difference in terms of other idealism, realism, experientialism and existentialism philosophical orientations and the institutions studied. Education philosophical orientations analysis according to the departments of graduate students are given in Table 9.

Table 9. Mann-Whitney U Test Results According to the Philosophical Orientation Variable Related to Enrolled Program

Felsefî tercih	Program	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Perennialism	C&I	56	46,81	2621,50	1025,500	-4,764	,000
	EA	72	78,26	5634,50			
Idealism	C&I	56	54,30	3041,00	1445,000	-2,744	,006
	EA	72	72,43	5215,00			
Realizm	C&I	56	53,64	3004,00	1408,000	-2,923	,003

	EA	72	72,94	5252,00			
Experientialism	C&I	56	58,57	3280,00	1684,000	-1,598	,110
	EA	72	69,11	4976,00			
Existentialism	C&I	56	69,28	3879,50	1748,500	-1,286	,198
	EA	72	60,78	4376,50			
	Total	128					

As it can be seen in Table 9, the departmental variable of the students' philosophical orientation score averages and permanence ($U = 1025,500$; $P < 0.05$), idealism ($U = 1445,000$; $P < 0.05$), realism ($U = 1408, 000$; $P < 0.05$) show a significant difference between the philosophy sub-dimensions. Considering the rank averages, it can be said that students in the sub-dimensions of educational administration in the sub-dimensions of perennialism, idealism and realism have a higher average than students in education programs and education. There is no significant difference in terms of other experientialism and existentialism philosophical Orientations and institutions.

96 (75%) of the 128 graduate students participating in this study were observed to adopt the philosophy of experientialism, followed by the philosophies of realism, permanentism, existentialism and idealism, respectively. There was a significant difference in favor of men in the gender variable of philosophical Orientation scores of graduate students and in the sub-dimensions of philosophy of persistence and experientialism. A significant difference has been determined in favor of employees as teachers in the occupational variable and philosophy of idealism and realism sub-dimensions of philosophical Orientation scores of graduate students. A significant difference was found in favor of students at the undergraduate level of philosophical Orientation scores of graduate students in terms of graduate program level and philosophy of persistence and idealism.

A significant difference was determined in favor of students studying in educational sciences institutes in the sub-dimension of philosophy of choice of graduate students according to institute variable. A significant difference has been determined in favor of students in the department of ededucational administration in the sub-dimensions of philosophy Orientation scores of the graduate students in the sub-dimensions of permanence, idealism, realism philosophy.

FINDINGS FOR GENERAL SELF-EFFICACY LEVEL OF GRADUATE STUDENTS

The self-efficacy levels are grouped as low-medium-high considering the arithmetic mean and standard deviation of the total scores of graduate students from the general self-efficacy scale. While the scores are grouped; Lower Level; Lowest Score $<X \leq$ Arithmetic Mean - Standard Deviation; ($28,96 - 4,87 = 24.09$)

Intermediate; Arithmetic Mean - Standard Deviation ($24.09 < X \leq$ Arithmetic Mean + Standard Deviation (33.83) Top level; Arithmetic Mean + Standard Deviation $< X \leq$ Highest Score ($28.96 + 4.87 = 33.83$)

Taking into account the above calculation, teachers are divided into 33% slices. Descriptive statistics related to general self-efficacy beliefs of graduate students are given in Table 10.

Table 10. General Self-Efficacy Levels of Students

SED Level	Self-Efficacy Levels	n	%	\bar{X}	sd
Lower	$1 < X \leq 24,09$ Lower	15	11,7	28,9578	4,87089
Middle	$24,09 < X \leq 33,83$ Middle	94	73,4		
Upper	$33,83 < X \leq 40$ Upper	19	14,8		
Total		128	100		

* Calculations are based on the total score averages that teachers received across the scale.

As seen in Table 10, when the results are examined according to the average obtained from the total of the general self-efficacy scale scores of the graduate students, it is seen that the arithmetic average in the scale in the range of 0-40 points can be 28.95. In line with this result, the general self-efficacy of graduate students is 15 (11.7%); moderate 94 (73.4%); it is observed that there is a high level of 19 (14.8%). In this section, the Mann-Whitney U test was used because the number of

people in the groups was below fifty (50) when the variables were included in the analysis, and the average scores obtained from the measurements did not show normal distribution as a result of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test ($p > 0.05$). General self-efficacy beliefs of the graduate students according to gender, profession, graduate program levels, institute and department variables were examined and the results of the analysis are given in Table 11.

Table 11. General Self-Efficacy Levels of Graduate Students According to Various Variables Kruskal Wallis H Test Results

Variable	Self-Efficacy Levels	n	Mean	df	χ^2	p
Gender	Lower	15	70,43	2	,869	,647
	Middle	94	64,35			
	Upper	19	60,55			
Profession	Lower	15	67,70	2	3,492	,174
	Middle	94	66,20			
	Upper	19	53,55			
Graduate Program	Lower	15	59,53	2	1,827	,401
	Middle	94	63,94			
	Upper	19	71,21			
Graduate School	Lower	15	58,80	2	1,154	,562
	Middle	94	64,38			
	Upper	19	69,58			
Department	Lower	15	66,90	2	3,389	,184
	Middle	94	66,63			
	Upper	19	52,08			
	Total	128				

As can be seen in Table 11, no statistically significant difference was found between the genders' perceptions of general self-efficacy ($\chi^2 = ,869$; $p > 0.05$). There was no statistically significant difference between graduate students' perceptions of general self-efficacy ($\chi^2 = 3.492$; $p > 0.05$) and their professions. No statistically significant difference was found between the graduate students' general self-efficacy ($\chi^2 = 1.827$; $p > 0.05$) perceptions and graduate program levels. No statistically significant difference was found between the graduate students' perceptions of general self-efficacy ($\chi^2 = 1.154$; $p > 0.05$). No

statistically significant difference was found between the graduate students' perceptions of general self-efficacy ($\chi^2 = 3.389$; $p > 0.05$) and their departments. No statistically significant difference was found between the general self-efficacy perceptions of the graduate students and their gender, graduate program levels, institutes where they studied and the departments where they studied. Similarly (Uysal, in his study with academics in 2013, revealed that there was no significant difference between variables such as department and gender and general self-efficacy.

COMPARISON OF EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY
ORIENTATIONS AND GENERAL SELF-EFFICACY
LEVEL

The philosophical orientations of graduate students were analyzed by comparing their sub-dimensions and general self-efficacy perception levels and their results are shown in Table 12.

Table 12. Kruskal Wallis H Test Results for Comparing Graduate Students' Educational Philosophy Orientations and General Self-Efficacy Levels.

Philosophy	Self-Efficacy Levels	n	Mean	df	χ^2	p
Perennialism	Lower	15	59,43	2	,406	,816
	Middle	94	64,71			
	Upper	19	67,47			
Idealism	Lower	15	61,87	2	1,664	,435
	Middle	94	66,82			
	Upper	19	55,11			
Realism	Lower	15	58,70	2	,466	,792
	Middle	94	64,92			
	Upper	19	67,00			
Experientialism	Lower	15	65,80	2	1,772	,412
	Middle	94	62,26			
	Upper	19	74,58			
Existentialism	Lower	15	60,57	2	1,208	,547
	Middle	94	63,44			
	Upper	19	72,84			
	Total	128				

As seen in Table 12, no statistically significant difference was found between the perceptions of graduate students' perceptions of self-efficacy ($\chi^2 = ,406$; $p > 0.05$) and perennial philosophy. No statistically significant difference was found between the perceptions of general self-efficacy ($\chi^2 = 1.664$; $p > 0.05$) and idealism philosophy of graduate students. No statistically significant difference was found between the perceptions of general self-efficacy ($\chi^2 = ,466$; $p > 0.05$) and realism philosophy Orientations of graduate students. No statistically significant difference was found between the perceptions of general self-efficacy ($\chi^2 = 1.772$; $p > 0.05$) and experientialism philosophy of graduate students. No statistically significant difference was found between the perceptions of general self-efficacy ($\chi^2 = 1.208$; $p > 0.05$) and the existential philosophy of graduate students. As a result, no statistically significant difference was found between the lower, middle and upper levels of the general self-efficacy perceptions of graduate students and the Orientations of perennialism, idealism, realism

experientialism, existentialism, which are the philosophy of education philosophy.

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

Related literature consist of different studies (Arıza & Del Pozo, 2002; Asan, Koymen and Obeidat, 2005; Ekiz, 2007; İlhan, Çetin and Arslan (2014) clarifying that educators' individual innovativeness and daily curricular practices are significantly correlated with their adopted philosophies of education. In this study, 96 out of 128 graduate students (75%) were observed to adopt the philosophy of experientialism, followed by the philosophies of realism, perennialism, existentialism and idealism, respectively. A significant difference was found in favor of undergraduate education variable in philosophical orientation score average of graduate students and in the sub-dimensions of philosophy of perennialism and idealism. A significant difference has been determined in favor of students studying at educational sciences institutes in the sub-

dimension of philosophical orientation of students according to institute variable. A significant difference has been determined in favor of students in the department of educational administration in the sub-dimensions of philosophical orientation scores of the students in the sub-dimensions of perennialism, idealism, realism philosophies. No statistically significant difference could be determined between the lower, middle and upper socio-economic levels of students' perceptions of general self-efficacy and gender, profession, graduated program, graduate school and departmental variables. No statistically significant difference was found between the lower, middle and upper levels of students' perceptions of self-efficacy and the philosophy of education, perennialism, idealism, realism, experientialism, existentialism.

With regard to teachers' experientialist orientation, Doğanay and Sarı (2003) obtained similar results. In their study with pre-school teachers candidates, Balcı and Küçüköğlu (2019) determined that teacher candidates adopted the belief in existentialism and progressivism and later followed the philosophy of reconstruction, perennialism and essentialism. Findings regarding the educational beliefs of middle school teachers and prospective teachers in the study by Uğurlu and Çalmaşur (2017) showed that they were at the highest level of existentialism and progressivism, and at the least essentialism education philosophy in both groups. These results confirm that teachers employ and approach the educational philosophy which was stated in official curriculum developed centrally. There was a significant difference in favor of men in the gender variable of philosophical orientation scores of graduate students and in the sub-dimensions of philosophy of persistence and experientialism. A significant difference has been determined in favor of employees as teachers in the occupational variable and philosophy of idealism and realism sub-dimensions of philosophical orientation scores of graduate students.

As a result of a research conducted by Balcı and Küçüköğlu (2019), it has been observed that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs increase as their belief in progressivism, existentialism and reconstructionism increases. In addition, progressive and existentialism education beliefs

have been found to have a high level of influence on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. Ilgaz, Bülbul and Çuhadar (2013) stated that teachers with high self-efficacy can easily adapt to new curricula because they are open to new ideas. In addition, it is concluded that teachers who adopt traditional educational belief and orientations have low self-efficacy in controlling external factors. According to Kozikoğlu and Uygun's (2018) study, it has been determined that there is a moderate significant relationship between teachers' educational philosophies and curriculum design approaches. In this study, it has been also determined that there is a moderate and positive relationship between teachers' philosophy of perennialism and essentialism with regard to the subject-centered curriculum design approach. In Koç's study (2013), it was concluded that there was a moderate positive relationship between classroom teachers' self-efficacy perceptions and their constructivist learning environment. Regarding the results of this study, different studies may be done for graduate students with different tools. Again, it may also be suggested to conduct researches with qualitative methods related to the process that the graduate students experienced and the deficiencies they experienced in this educational step.

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CHALLENGES AND ADVANTAGES OF WORKING ABROAD: TURKISH AND TURKISH CULTURE TEACHERS' PERSPECTIVE

Abstract: This paper aims to determine the problems and gains of Turkish teachers employed in Europe. The research was designed in the survey model and the basic qualitative approach. The sample group of the study consists of 210 Turkish teachers who work in Germany, France, England, and Switzerland. The data were collected by an open-ended survey and analysed by the descriptive analysis method. The results revealed that teachers experienced adaptation problems in language and communication, housing, a feeling of loneliness, prejudices, a new educational environment, and cultural diversity. Besides, they had social problems, family affairs, relationships with associations, health, and economic issues. Furthermore, teachers had professional, personal, social, and financial gains.

Keywords: teacher professional development, professional problems, teaching abroad, working abroad, teacher problems

Hatice Gül

Teacher, Ministry of National Education,
France

Contact:

E-mail: hatice_1110@hotmail.com

Asiye Toker Gökçe, PhD

Associate Professor
Educational Sciences Department
Kocaeli University
Turkey

Contact:

E-mail: asi.gokce@kocaeli.edu.tr,

ORCID: 0000-0003-1909-1822

INTRODUCTION

With the end of the Second World War, the industry in Europe began to develop rapidly and created a need for workers. Therefore, people who have financial difficulties in Turkey constitute an essential part of the migration to many European countries. Although Turkish citizens went there to earn money and return to their country in the early years, most of them eventually settled and started living there. According to the data of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (2017), approximately 5.5 million of the 6 million Turkish people living abroad live in Western European countries. These people, who started a new life abroad, tried to maintain their cultural values on one hand while trying to adapt to the social and cultural structure of the countries where they live on the other side. One of the biggest problems they experienced in this process was related to the education of their children.

The school process has a significant impact on the identity formation of the child and the process of acculturation. Teachers are one of the most essential factors to shape society, because, they shape individuals and, accordingly, the whole community. Knowing their crucial role in the creation of new generations, Atatürk (1924) said teachers as “Teachers, the new generation will be your masterpiece” just in the early years of the Turkish Republic. Supporting this point, Gündoğdu, Üstündağ, Altın, Yolcu, Çirakoğlu & Eken (2019) found that the quality of teachers, profession-love, and openness to improvement are the most influential factors on character/values education. Furthermore, they bring up all the workforce in society. Therefore, the teaching profession continues to maintain its importance in every culture. However, as in every job, many different problems are experienced in the teaching profession.

Article 22 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights states that “Everyone is entitled to realization, following the organization and resources of each state, of the economic, social and cultural rights indispensable for his dignity and the free development of his personality.” Besides, Article 25 states that “Choosing the type of

education to be given to children is primarily the right of parents.” As seen, the desire of foreigners living abroad to teach their children their mother language, culture, and history is primarily a problem of human rights. It is mainly the responsibility of the country, sending its citizens to that country to meet such requests. The country sending its citizens must make special efforts to ensure that its citizens learn their mother language, following international agreements, and with the approval and cooperation of the host country.

Turkey sends Turkish and Turkish Culture for teachers to the countries through agreements made between countries. Therefore, approximately 1,726 teachers and 48 lecturers, who are assigned in various countries abroad, are still serving with the decision of the Inter-Ministerial Joint Culture Commission (Ministry of National Education [MNE] 2017). These teachers teach mainly in Turkish, Turkish Language and Literature, English, German, French, Class, Guidance, Religious Culture and Moral Knowledge, Social Studies branches in Germany, France, England, and Switzerland. Most of these teachers work in Germany, Arabia, and France. There are 505 teachers in Germany, 370 in Saudi Arabia, and 192 teachers in France. Besides, there are 151 teachers in the Republic of Northern Cyprus, 93 in Kyrgyzstan, 80 in Azerbaijan, and one for each teacher in the USA, Albania, and Bahrain. The Ministry of National Education assigns these teachers for five years in these countries.

Pickering (2008) emphasized that teachers have many issues such as student requests that arise simultaneously, excessive workload, lack of time, insufficient resources, insufficient administrative support, inclusive students, student behaviors, inadequate professional support, and the need for continuous change. Although these problems vary from school to school and from region to region, many teachers experience similar issues. For instance, Toker-Gökçe (2013) emphasizes that the negativity of the characteristics of the region where the school is located leads problems that teachers be affected when starting the profession.

Adaptation problems are one of the leading difficulties experienced by teachers when they

change places. Özdemir, Civelek, Çetin, Karapınar, and Özel (2015) and Güvendir (2017) state that teachers who are alien to the culture of the region where they are employed and who have a restrictive social environment have difficulty in feeling that they belong to that region and the institution they work. In this context, it may be inevitable that teachers employed abroad will encounter various problems.

In general, the problems experienced by teachers are categorized as socially, economically, and professionally. For a teacher living in another country, social factors such as language, traditions, religion, norms, and communication styles of that country may lead to adaptation problems. Frederiksen (2014) states that one of the essential difficulties experienced by teachers working abroad is that they do not know the mother language of that country. He also said that teachers avoid speaking even if they know the language, thinking that they will be ridiculed for pronunciation errors. Gündoğdu (2014) and Halicioğlu (2015) revealed that teachers wanted these tasks to gain experience abroad and to learn the language. However, they experience culture shock even on their way from the airport to their destination when they arrive at their new place of duty no matter how ready they are for their mission abroad.

Teachers working abroad are also homesick (Frederiksen, 2014; Halicioğlu, 2015). These teachers experience cultural shock in this new environment with which they are not familiar (Halicioğlu, 2015), so they feel lonely (Akman, 2017). On the other hand, Cevahir (2013) found that these teachers had problems adapting to their former lives when they completed their duties and returned to their countries. Adapting to this new environment in every sense is the first step that teachers need to take to do their tasks. Seminars, which they attended before starting their responsibilities, are inadequate because they provide only general information. In addition to loneliness, these teachers working abroad are also experiencing economic problems (Akman, 2017). The said financial problems include housing, transportation, and health expenditures (Gündoğdu, 2014).

Nagel and Brown (2003) list the professional problems experienced by teachers in the form of lack of time, poor relations with administrators and colleagues, crowded classes, insufficient resources, excess workload, and problematic student behaviors. In this context, teachers working abroad are likely to have professional problems in terms of mastering a different curriculum, knowing the student structure, establishing close relations with colleagues, and communicating with administrators. For example, Arıcı and Kırkkılıç (2017) found that teachers working in Germany had problems because their textbooks, materials and course time were insufficient, and students and parents were indifferent to Turkish lessons. Erol ve Güner (2017) revealed that the problem for teachers in France is that they had to teach late and in multigrade classes, that the students are old, and that the course time is insufficient.

Santoro (2011) states that the teachers' stress wears them down and de-energizes them. In line with this opinion, Başar, and Doğan (2015) state that teachers feel weak and alone when they do not receive enough attention and support from administrators and colleagues. Cevahir (2013) revealed that teachers working abroad had trouble finding students to teach. Yaman and Dağtaş (2015) showed that teachers working in the UK had various problems such as finding materials, lack of necessary experience abroad, and level differences between students in the classroom.

Working in a foreign country brings individual gains in addition to the problems. Working abroad raises the global awareness of teachers for teaching. Teachers become more open-minded and critical about educational practices and get rid of their dogmatic thinking since they encounter a different culture. Thus, they can develop international instructional strategies with their ideas. Teachers working in a foreign country establish their pedagogical skills in providing students with the ability to understand multiple perspectives and understand the matters from different angles (Shiveley and Misco, 2015). Cook (2009) examined American educators who had been in Japan for a short time; and concluded that this experience gave teachers new points of view in social, political, and economic fields. Shiveley

and Misco (2015) found in their study that working abroad makes teachers more open-minded and provides them with a better understanding of the American Education system. He also concluded that the most significant opportunity for teachers other than personal development and classroom experience was personal enrichment. Finally, the authors found that teachers with experience abroad have the potential to understand different cultures and gain the ability to understand the weaknesses and strengths of their education systems.

Frederiksen (2014) mentioned the benefits and disadvantages of working in a foreign country. Making friends from different environments, meeting different people, and learning a new language are the gains of teachers. Moreover, the reasons for teachers to choose abroad were mostly higher salaries and better conditions. Several authors (Adler, 1975; Cushner and Brislin 1996; Weaver 2000 as cited in Halicioğlu, 2015) state that culture shock, which as a negative result of working abroad, improves people psychologically, contributes positively to the person in this context and therefore should be considered as a remarkable experience. Gündoğdu (2014) also found that working abroad provides to teachers in learning languages, gaining work experience elsewhere, recognizing different cultures, and gaining professional experience. This research aims to examine the challenges and benefits of these teachers. The research questions are as follows.

1. What are the adaptation problems experienced by teachers?
2. What are the social difficulties experienced by teachers?
3. What are the professional problems encountered by teachers?
4. What are the managerial challenges experienced by teachers?
5. What are the gains of teachers?

This study is supposed to guide administrators in the maintenance and improvement of education abroad and the measures to be taken. Besides, the results of the research are supposed to guide those who consider going abroad to work about the situations and problems they will encounter. Furthermore, this study is essential in terms of being the first study conducted on a large number

of teachers in four different countries in Europe (France, Germany, Switzerland, England) with a broad scope.

METHOD

This research was carried out using the survey model and the basic qualitative approach. The basic qualitative approach, referred to by various authors as “general qualitative” (Kahlke, 2014; Percy, Kostere and Kostere, 2015), simple qualitative or interpretive qualitative (Merriam, 2013) approach, examines people's subjective opinions, attitudes, beliefs or experiences about the outside world (Percy, Kostere and Kostere, 2015). Basic qualitative research, like other qualitative types, tries to provide how people interpret, construct, or make sense of their worlds and experiences. This type of research is epistemologically social constructivist and explains theoretically by focusing on (1) how people understand their experiences, (2) how they construct their worlds, and (3) what their own experiences mean (Merriam, 2013). The basic qualitative approach is appropriate when a complete qualitative screening approach is desired (Percy, Kostere, and Kostere, 2015). In other words, this approach is research that cannot be guided by one of the known qualitative methodologies, such as phenomenology, ethnography, and embedded theory, the dominant trio of qualitative research (Kahlke, 2014).

In the basic qualitative approach, data collection aims to obtain more diverse views, ideas, or reflections and to go less “in-depth” in doing so. For data collection in a basic qualitative approach, data collection methods that allow people to report their opinions about things other than themselves are used. To this end, data were collected through semi- or fully structured interviews, surveys, or questionnaires. The focus of data collection is not the inner world or psychological state of the individual as in other qualitative approaches, but rather his/her perception of the external, real world. Also, reliability study is not required in this approach because the data is not measurable (Percy, Kostere and Kostere, 2015).

SAMPLE

In the basic qualitative research, an example is selected to obtain data, and information is searched for real-world events and processes or experiences of the selected sample. Data collection aims to collect more diverse views, ideas, or reflections and to go less “in-depth” in doing so. Therefore, unlike other qualitative approaches, a sample to represent the more substantial part of the universe is chosen. Thus, in this approach, a larger sample is generally achieved than that used by other qualitative methods, because the larger sample has a more widespread representation power (Percy, Kostere and Kostere, 2015).

The majority of 759 teachers employed in Europe by Turkey are located in France, Germany, the UK, and Switzerland. In this context, the research group of the research consists of 210 Turkish and Turkish Culture teachers working in these countries. It was not possible to collect data by contacting the said teachers through official channels. Therefore, data were collected from those who volunteered to participate in the research by snowball sampling method to the extent of accessibility. Coşkun, Altunışık and Yıldırım (2017) state that in the snowball sampling method, the first-person access to the researcher, who is primarily within the research universe is determined first. The next unit is reached with the information to be obtained from this unit, which goes on one after the other. In this way, the sample volume of the first single-unit increases as a snowball grows when rolling. As a result, the sample of the research consists of 210 teachers working in Germany, France, England, and Switzerland.

Half of the participants work in Germany (n=107), one third in France (n=78), and very few in Switzerland (n=16) and England (n=9). More than half of these teachers were male (n=127), and fewer were female (n=83). While more than half of the participants had a bachelor's degree (n=153), one-third had a master's degree (n=51) and a doctor's degree (n=6). The branches of the participants are as follows: English (n=79), Primary School Teaching (n=49), German (n=28), French (n=17), Turkish (n=13), Religious Culture and Moral Knowledge (n=11), Turkish language and literature (n=4), guidance (n=4), mathematics

(n=1), social studies (n=3) and child development (n=1). A quarter of the participants (n=52) were assigned abroad for the second time. 20% (n=43) of the others were in their fourth year, 20% (n=42) in their third year, 17% (n=36) in their second year, 11% (n=23) in their last year and 7% (n=14) in their first year. Most of the participants were married (n=131), and few were single (n=79). Given the professional seniority, 36% (n=75) were employed for 11-15 years, 31% (n=65) were employed for 21 years or more, 21% (n=45) were employed for 16-20 years and 12% (n=25) were employed for 10 years and under

DATA COLLECTION TOOL AND PROCESS

Jansen (2010) states that in qualitative research, data is collected with open-ended questions or in different formats, but it is rarely mentioned as qualitative survey in this field. According to Patton (1990), participants write their answers to open-ended questions. Therefore, these answers are considered a kind of document. Percy, Kostere, and Kostere (2015) state that there were semi- or fully structured verbal or written interviews among data collection methods in basic qualitative research. In these qualitative interviews, the questions were configured beforehand based on the researcher's prior knowledge and are looking for more information on this structuring. Whetzel and others (2003) state that the written, structured interview as an alternative to verbal interview as it was more flexible and cost-effective in gathering detailed information from the participants. In this context, the data required for the research was obtained through written, structured interviews. Researchers prepared an open-ended question form to determine the compliance, professional, social, managerial problems, and gains of teachers working in Europe. In the question form, participants were asked to answer the open-ended questions posed to them, questioning the sub-problems of the research. Participants were also asked to write what they would like to add.

After obtaining the official permits, the question form was sent to 16 Consultancy Services and Attache's Offices in Germany, France, England, and Switzerland through the Department for Missions Abroad of the Ministry of National Education to reach all teachers working in these

countries. In this context, 759 teachers were tried to be achieved; however, 232 teachers participated in the study voluntarily. Since it was seen that 22 forms were left blank during the preliminary analysis of the question forms obtained from the said participants, data from 210 teachers were taken into consideration.

DATA ANALYSIS

Patton (1990) suggests that researchers may behave flexibly in the qualitative analysis unless they contradict with invariant rules and guidelines for content transfer. In this context, a descriptive study was performed in the analysis of the data obtained from the research, as a result of the literature review and within the framework of the themes created during the study. One of the processes used in the analysis of qualitative data is descriptive analysis. Yıldırım and Şimşek (2013) point out that qualitative data analysis, which includes summarizing and interpreting data according to pre-determined topics is descriptive. Since the primary purpose of this type of analysis is to present the results to the reader in a summarized and interpreted form, the researcher can often include direct quotations to reflect the views of the participants. In this context, data analysis consists of stages such as creating

categories, classifying these categories and data, naming groups utilizing the themes obtained in the literature. In this process, primarily, the data collected from the question forms were transferred to the computer environment in the same manner. Thus, raw data were obtained. This data has been arranged according to serving the purpose of the research.

This data was then thematised in line with the sub-objectives of the study and interpreted in a descriptive narrative. Participants have been coded according to the countries in which they work and gender. Moreover, all the participants are numbered differently. In this context, the encodings were made in such a way as to refer to PGF=female participant in Germany, PGM=male participant in Germany, PFF=female participant in France, PFM= male participant in France, PSF=female participant in Switzerland, PSM=male participant in Switzerland, PEF=female participant in England, PEM=male participant in England.

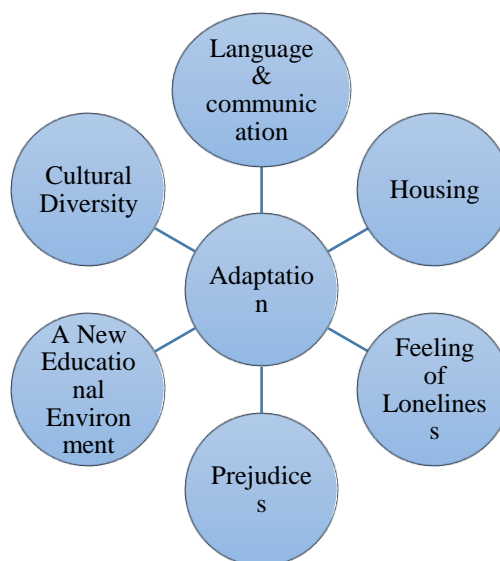
FINDINGS

According to the results, most of the participants had adaptation problems while few, who came to the country in the same area for the second time, did not.

ADAPTATION PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED BY TEACHERS

The results revealed six general themes of the participants' adaptation problems (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Adaptation problems experienced by participants



The results indicated that the participants had adaptation problems. Because they did not know the language of the country in which they were charged. Besides, some of the participants stated that they could not find an affordable house, and they had to stay with people they did not know or in places such as dormitories. Some teachers stated that they had to start working without solving the housing problem, and they affected negatively in the first year. Some of the views of the participants are as follows:

PGF22: “..Some of the school principals and some government officials refused to communicate in English even though they knew English, or expressed that they only want to speak German.”

PGF7: “It is difficult to find a house. We had to spend the night in a place like a hostel for 2.5 months. Obtaining residence, procedures required for this, filling out forms. You needed someone for all of them. How we will start schools, with whom we will deal... ...Finding a house is difficult, and when you find it, you need to prove that you are the right tenant... ...You need to document your earnings while you rent the house, and we receive this document from the consulate. However, my homeowner did not find the document I received from the Turkish consulate sufficient; I was able to rent the house under the guarantee of my sister, who is a German citizen who lives in another city of German and has a good job and income.”

Some participants revealed that wavered because they could not adapt to a different culture at first. Besides, some participants indicated that they had adaptation problems with Turks living in that country. Furthermore, they mentioned that starting to work in an educational environment with different rules also causes adaptation problems. Participants indicated that they were unable to adapt to education and school culture for a long time, primarily due to a lack of prior knowledge about the student and parent profiles and the fact that their working hours were different from those

in Turkey. Some of the views of the participants are as follows:

PGF9: “Cultural differences caused distress. I had difficulties because language, food, and entertainment were different from those of my own country.”

PGM67: “The Turkish people here are about to lose their identity. They are in the mindset of Turkey as it was fifty years ago. The imams are like sheikhs; they are almost going to stone the teacher. When I asked why you behave differently like this, they said 'professional difference.' What am I to understand from this?!... What should I tell these people?!...”

PFM9: “I had problems with the lifestyle of Turkish society here and the perspective from which they look at life and events. Even though they live in Europe, their perspectives on life, education, and social and cultural issues were far from the present, and it took time to build relationships.”

PFM15: “The Turks here and the Turks in Turkey are like two separate nations. They exclude those who are not like themselves. They are attracting us into their fights.”

PGM18: “It was a little challenging to contribute to the culture of students who grew up between two languages and two cultures and who did not fully belong to either language/culture.”

The participants emphasised that they had adaptation problems because of prejudices against them. Finally, the feeling of loneliness appeared both the result of and the reason for the adaptation problem. Some of the statements regarding these issues are as follows:

PGF8: “Interesting things in a small residential area, like German teachers not wanting one to enter the teachers' room or holding themselves at a distance... In short, they caused a loss of self-confidence. Therefore, you also experience the feeling of loneliness. The first year goes by with terrible feelings.”

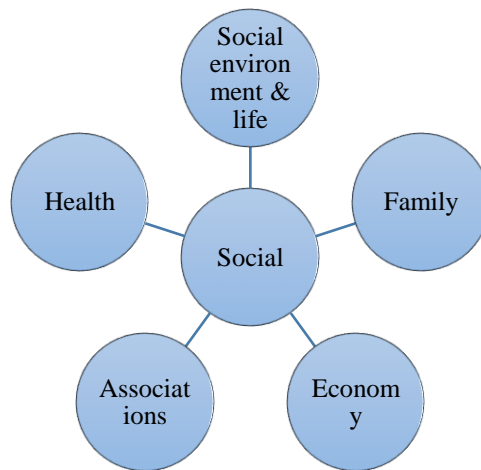
PGM26: “A sense of foreignness brought about by a different culture.”

PFF1: “The most negative impact of your overseas duty is to stay away from your family and friends and to get lonely.”

SOCIAL PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED BY TEACHERS

Social problems experienced by teachers are classified under five main headings (Figure 2).

Figure 2. Social problems experienced by participants



The participants revealed that they had difficulty to find friends in the country where they were charged. Besides, they just made friends with the Turkish people, only within the professional framework. Some of the participants' statements are as follows:

PGF4: "Longing for family, friends, and in short, the homesickness is difficult; it seems that it is invaluable to share with people in the same language and culture."

PFF11: "You are all alone here. I've been here for four years, and I do not have a proper French friend. Unfortunately, our citizens love imams and exclude teachers. Language is also a handicap. French is a complicated language."

PGM32: "It is a very vicious cycle in terms of the social environment... The presence of people around you who watch your work, you, your life, and who constantly judge you and who look for incompetencies can irritate you from time to time."

Moreover, the biggest problem of teachers working in France, Germany, and Switzerland was the lack of health insurance. Teachers who had their parents indicated that they had a more significant health problem. Some of the views of the participants are as follows:

PFM3: "The lack of an agreement between the two countries on health constitutes a serious financial sum."

PFF7: "It is a problem that we make our health-related expenses at our own expense and that we prepare many documents, make photocopies, translate them and send them to Turkey and that we wait for months to get our payments back. Full consideration is not taken back."

While those who were alone had longed for their family, those who had their family had problems related to their spouses' inability to work and not knowing the language of that country. Furthermore, their children had issues getting used

to the schools, and some of them could continue their education. Some participant views are as follows:

PFM29: "I have remained separate from my wife and child. Because my wife had returned to Turkey after two years."

PGF38: "My children could not find friends. All Turkish children were repulsive."

In addition, teachers were welcomed by the authorities of the school/parent-teacher association formed by the Turkish community. This association organized the first communication between the teachers and the principals of the schools. As a result, this association saw itself as the head of teachers and tried to manage these teachers. Some of the views of the participants on this issue are as follows:

PFM6: "Associations do not attach teachers the importance they attached to imams."

PFF28: "Turkish associations think that they are our bosses, they want us to live like them, to meet with people they meet and they want us to be tied to their apron strings. They meddle in the content of the programs we do, and they do not want different groups to be called in the events we hold."

The economic problems included insufficient salary, receiving a late salary, high rents, health expenses, and residence tax. Some of the views of the participants are as follows:

PGF42: "I did not receive a salary for the first four months of the year I arrived, and I receive my salary late every year in December-January. For these reasons, I am having economic problems."

PEF2: "House rents are too high. We have to rent a room. The fares are too high."

PGM18: "The religious officials assigned here have a ready-made lodging, but the teachers' pay high rents.

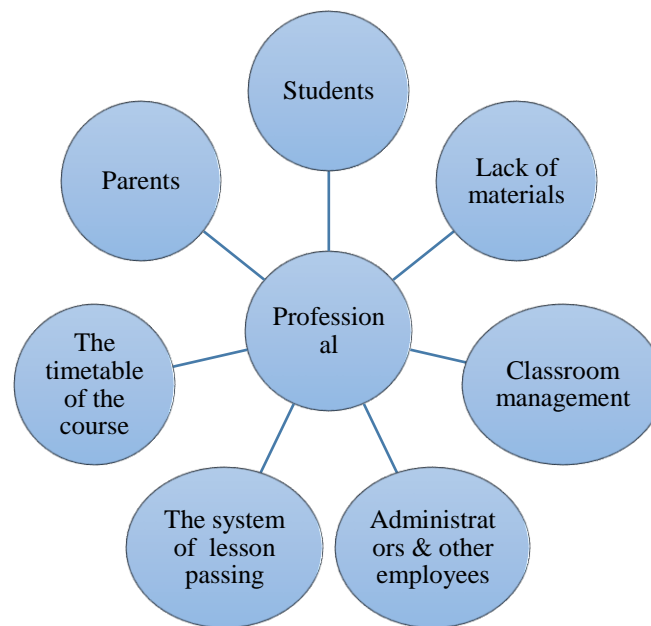
PGF4: "Not being able to live in a comfortable house, having to make do with makeshift items, not

being able to get into a good car, that is, living standards cannot be the same as another German teacher here, you have to cut back on the expenses to make a living."

PROFESSIONAL PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED BY TEACHERS

The professional problems included seven themes (Figure 3).

Figure 3. Professional problems experienced by participants



According to the findings, the low level of readiness of the students was the primary professional problem experienced by the teachers. Since the Turkish lesson did not evaluate in the passing system and the lessons were held after school or at weekends, the students were usually come to class tired and reluctant. There In addition, lack of materials and unsuitable classrooms mostly decreased teachers' motivation.

Besides, parents' adverse treatment towards these teachers also affected their achievement. Moreover, since some of the school principals did not show enthusiasm to these teachers, these teachers had problems with other staff in schools. Some of the participants' statements about their professional issues are as follows:

PGM11: "Students behave more differently in Turkish lessons than they have in their German school."

PGF4: "Children's indifference and their low educational level when compared to the students in Turkey."

PEM5: "The reluctance of the students and the fact that they attend the classes with the force of their family are the general problems."

PGF4: "Not being able to have the same rights as the other teachers, not having a class, not being able to enter to the teachers' room as you do not have the school key, the remote and prejudiced attitudes of the principals due to the political and social reasons; these all cause to feel myself like a extraneous in the school environment."

PGM17: "The fact that we who come here as the cultural ambassadors with the idea of representing our state are perceived as representing the current government. The fact that every action of the current government good or bad is reflected in us; unfortunately, our work depends on the political conditions. The Status of the relationship between Turkey and the country we work in has a direct impact on our working conditions. Concerning this impact, we can teach at schools, or we can encounter school administrations that do not want us to open classes and make things difficult for us."

PFF14: "As we do our lessons after school, the teachers do not appreciate us as a teacher, they do not even greet. They do not give us a certain classroom at

school we make our lessons always in different places at school. They do not provide us with necessary materials even though we have a right to have. Moreover, the provincial directorates of national education send our work permit certificate late. The schools start in September, but we can start our lessons only at the end of October and when it is June we are asked to finish our classes one month before the schools are closed. We cannot give grades to the school reports of the students."

PGM15: "In some of the schools, I had the feeling that my presence was not desired in the teachers' room."

PSF6: "First of all, the fact that our lesson is based on voluntariness and the mark of it is invalid psychologically creates at the students an impression of the unnecessary of the lesson."

PGM16: "The parents behave to the Turkish teachers in a manner that they cannot show this attitude to German teachers. Even sometimes, they act capriciously. "-He has an exam tomorrow, so I will not

send him to your class today. -He did not want to come. - You talk about Ataturk or -You talk about religion in the lesson, so I do not want my child to be in such an environment ...": It is possible to hear such kind of objections from the parents. Furthermore, they negotiate with us in this way: "I send my child to your course, but I do not want him to participate in the activities for the 23rd April celebrations."

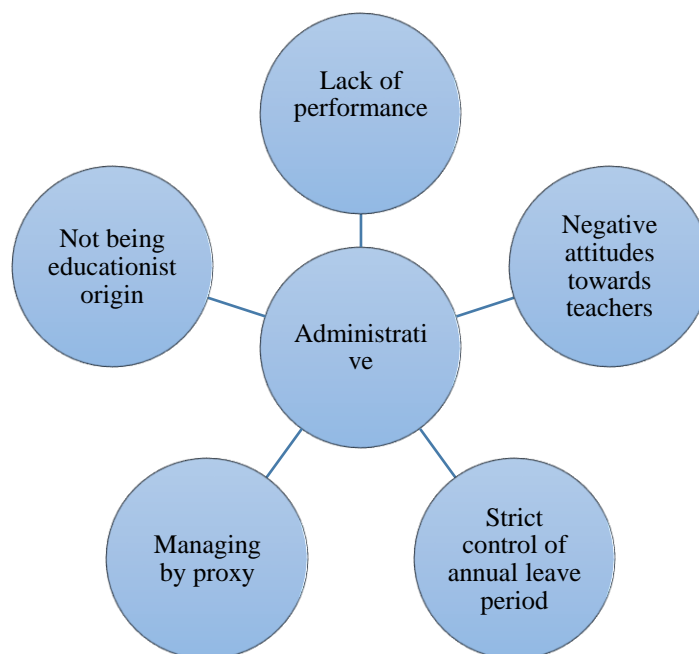
PFM12: "Some parents do not show respect to Turkish teachers as they do French teachers; therefore, I have to feel apprehension constantly about the reactions I will receive about my work."

Uysal & Gündoğdu (2019) remind, teachers focus content knowledge during the teaching phase at first. However, the results revealed that the participants seem to have challenges related to multivariate factors to their job at schools.

THE ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED BY TEACHERS

The teachers have to work with administrators (consultancy and attaché) abroad. The participants' administrative problems with these administrators included five main headings (Figure 4).

Figure 4. Administrative Problems experienced by the teachers



The results showed that the administrators did not care about teachers. The officers acted as if they were the chief of the teachers because of the lack of administers in that area. Since most of the administrators did not have work tenure, they

worked for a short period and went back without being productive. Moreover, most of the administrators were not educators; therefore, they could not understand the teachers' problems. Some of the statements of the teachers are as follows:

PFM35: "I think that as teachers, we are isolated in our region. During my tenure, the attache has not found any solution to the recurring problems of the teachers in education, teaching, social, economic, or any other subjects. I do not think that we have a representative who can find solutions to the problems of a teacher as it is done for a religious official who is on duty abroad."

PGM44: "Attaches leave teachers on their own apart from meeting at the airport. Unfortunately, we do not receive any interest from our institution as the religious affairs and religious attache show to a religious official."

PGF11: "They stand behind teachers by no means. They do not solve any of our problems. Moreover, they put pressure in various ways."

PSM1: "Counsellors come to work for a short time, and they go back without learning the job."

PGM13: "Although we are teachers abroad, we have 30 days of annual leave. During the holiday period of the schools, even though we do not have a duty, we have to stay in our house according to the legislation. The ones who exceed the leave period face a prosecution, get a disciplinary punishment, and our payments with which we live are reduced."

PFF6: "Attache is nothing more than a name and a label. We do not have any contact with them. They had left us alone from the first time when we arrived here... When there is a problem, the only accused is always

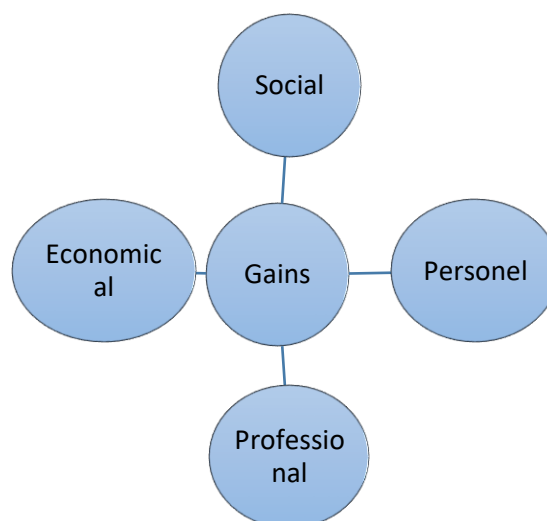
'the teacher'... That is us 'the teachers' who represent our state... For example, none of my directors or French colleagues know counselor or attaché... We are the ones they have the official relation with on behalf of Turkey. However, I think that the authorities are not aware of this. The attache or the consultancy does nothing to make us feel relevant and valuable. Their attitude towards us is like this: "Do not reflect us any of your problems and have it your way." We are afraid to voice our demands and rights. I could not think of any organization abroad whose communication is such a grave with its employees."

PFM51: "...The idea that they need just religious officials and they can deal with the Turkish language with their children by themselves is widespread in this society... There are many examples; the teacher who is considered as the most valuable teacher by the consultancy carries out congregational activities and damages the state financially, but he pretends to be such a perfect teacher that you think that he is the best teacher ever in Europe. Another teacher has close contacts with illegal associations, leaves to be a teacher, and decides to rest in France, but probably the consultancy learns this as the latest. Another teacher comes and commits suicide after six months, and it is said and attributed that he has already had psychological problems."

THE GAINS TEACHERS HAVE THROUGH WORKING ABROAD

Almost all of the participants agree that working abroad contributes them to a lot of avocationally. The gains of the participants are grouped under four main headings (Figure 5).

Figure 5. The gains of the participants



Almost all of the participants indicated that they consider this duty is as an excellent opportunity for

their social and cultural development. Travelling in Europe quickly and making new friends were

among the social gains that the teachers had. Also, they were able to observe the Turkish population living in Europe closely; in this way, they could see their own culture from an external perspective. Therefore, they could recognize cultural differences and got cultural richness. They could be free from their prejudices, and in this way, they can see the world from a new perspective. Finally, some of their family members took advantage of learning a foreign language and education. Some of the statements of the teachers are as follows:

PGF28: "My perspective on life has changed. I realized that the world is on the way of becoming a small village. Everywhere there are people from all nationalities, and they know how to live together."

PFM9: "I had the opportunity to meet with a different group of students and parents. Sharing life with people from diverse cultures provides us to realize many things; respect, empathy, sharing, and so on. I had the opportunity to have an external perspective on myself and the society. In addition to this, I have seen my rights, my mistakes, and my shortcomings."

PGF7: "I was able to see my country from an objective point of view. I am learning a new language and meeting people from many different countries. While talking with people on historical and political issues, I can see the dogmas both in their minds and the ones in my mind. I question the trueness of the things we have been taught, and I read more to understand different points of view."

The results revealed that the teachers got self-confidence, living alone in a foreign country. They learned a new language or developed their knowledge of a foreign language. Also, they became open to learning, had the desire to research and read, and gained different perspectives. Their perception degree improved. Finally, they learned to be patient once again, they started to think universally and began to cope with difficulties, and they tended towards academic studies. Some statements about this subject are as follows:

PFF2: "Living alone in a foreign country contributed to the development of my ability to travel alone to different foreign countries."

PSM1: "When I came here, I have known English. In the region I work, the people speak Italian, so I have learned Italian and Spanish."

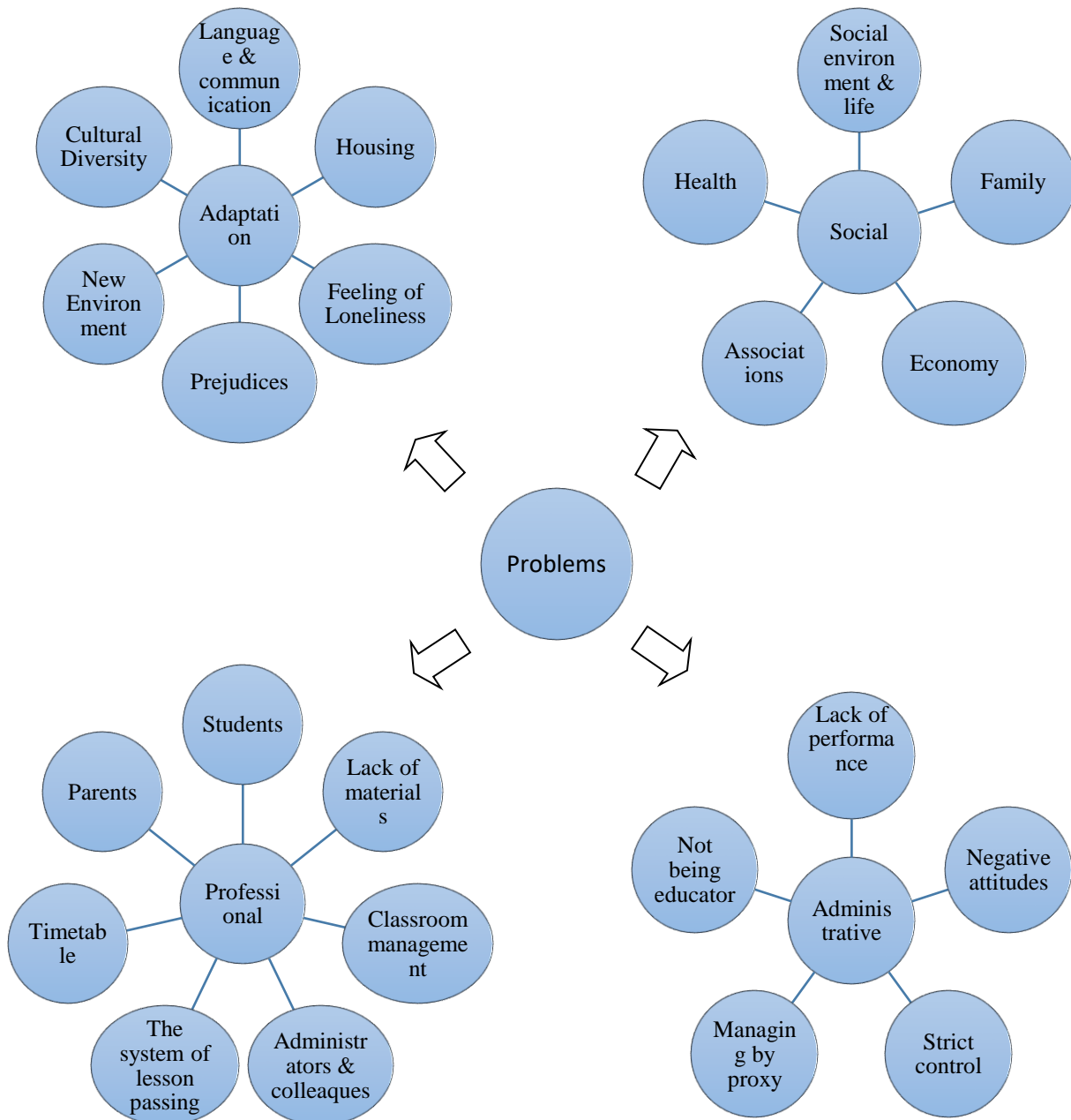
PGF6: "I have learned to be more patient and to be more powerful emotionally. I improved my German."

PSF1: "I had the opportunity to learn a second language. I improved my general knowledge and fund of knowledge by attending the courses given by the universities or institutions in the countries where I work."

PSF2: "I was able to experience how people from different cultures live together, and the educational system of Switzerland."

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

According to the findings, teachers problems related to working abroad included adaptation problems, social problems, professional problems, and administrative problems (Figure 6).



The results revealed that teachers experienced adaptation problems because of a new educational environment, language, and communication, cultural differences, housing problems, feeling of loneliness, and prejudices. These findings are in line with the results of Ekmekçi (2012) Cevahir (2013), Gündoğdu (2014), and Akman (2015). This study reveals that teachers had problems due to economic reasons such as health expenses and housing problems, and low salary. Moreover, teachers received their salary late, which led to problems in making their compulsory payments such as rent. These findings of the research are consistent with the studies of Cevahir (2013) and

Gündoğdu (2014), Akman (2017) and Arıcı and Kırkkılıç (2017).

The results revealed that the heads of the parent-teacher associations pretended to be the supervisor of these teachers which caused problems. This result is similar to the study of Arıcı and Kırkkılıç (2017). In this regard, the administrators need to take measurements to prevent these misconducts. Turkish and Turkish culture lessons were not included in the evaluation system. Therefore, teachers lived in disciplinary problems in classes. Moreover, parents ignored Turkish lesson and did not show respect to these teachers as they showed

to the other teachers at schools. Furthermore, since the levels of students were different from each other, teachers had to prepare different activities for each child. However, they had difficulties in these activities because of material inadequacy. These findings are similar to Corzo Ramirez Contreras (2011), Ekmekçi (2012) Güngör (2015); Arıcı and Kırkkılıç (2017) and Erol and Güner (2017).

The results show that, there was classroom adequacy for Turkish lessons, in general. Some principles were biased towards teachers and Turkish lessons. For this reason, they did not help teachers to reach potential students and to use school equipment. These findings are similar to Cevahir's study (2013).

This study also reveals that the teachers were left alone by the administrators abroad. Administrators were interested in the documents and did not support teachers to improve themselves or to solve their problems in schools. Besides, they did not respect teachers and sometimes acted with their emotions and according to their political views. Furthermore, they did not administer fairly, and they did not act equally to all teachers. Finally, they punished teachers frequently. Therefore, teachers felt worthless. These findings are supported by the results of Arıcı and Kırkkılıç (2017).

On the other hand, through working abroad, teachers have personal, professional, social, and financial gains. They learn a new language or improve their communication skills. They had the

opportunity to know different cultures and to travel comfortably. Moreover, they could compare the educational approach, school systems, and teachers' performance between Turkey and abroad. Furthermore, they could develop their teaching skills. These findings are similar to Cook's (2009) Frederiksen's (2014) Gündoğdu's (2014) and Shiveley and Misco's (2015) results.

It is recommended that the Ministry selects the teachers to be sent abroad from those who know the language of the country. Besides, these teachers should participate in an orientation program before going abroad. Also, the Ministry needs to select capable and educator administrators to abroad. Furthermore, teachers can often be brought together through cultural and social events. In this way, communication and cooperation among teachers can be supported. Finally, the teachers should be supported by resource and course material.

In this study, kinds of challenges and benefits of teachers were presented, but they were not examined deeply. In this context, it is recommended to other researchers to make similar studies phenomenologically. Furthermore, studies comparing different countries with this subject are recommended. Finally, the findings are supposed to guide the policymakers in other countries that have similar practices.

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TEACHER PERCEPTIONS ON DEVELOPING STUDENTS' CRITICAL THINKING SKILLS IN ACADEMIC ENGLISH MODULE

Abstract: The current study explores the perceptions of a group of Academic English (AE) lecturers on their views on critical thinking in teaching English for academic purposes and the ways they believe this can be developed, if at all. The findings suggest that the majority of teachers believe in the importance of touching upon critical thinking in their classes. They consider evaluating information, analyzing, logical reasoning, arguing, reflecting, and problem solving are among the main strategies needed for developing critical thinking skills and believe that that they can be developed in the academic English language classes. The results of the second survey (second stage) showed that AE teachers believe Academic English should be responsible for incorporating critical thinking into their teaching. The main activities perceived to be effective were debates, class discussions, evaluating presentations, listening for main ideas and details, reading for the main idea and evaluation of sources, writing argumentative essays, academic reports and reflection.

Keywords: critical thinking skills, academic English, classroom activities, teacher perceptions

Dildora Toshpulatova

Academic English Lecturer
Global English Department,
Westminster International University in
Tashkent,
Tashkent
Uzbekistan
Contact:
E-mail: dtoshpulatova3@wiut.uz
ORCID: 0000-0003-3040-5749

Aisulu Kinjemuratova

Academic English Lecturer
Global English Department,
Westminster International University in
Tashkent,
Tashkent,
Uzbekistan
Contact:
E-mail: akinjemuratova@wiut.uz
ORCID: 0000-0001-6854-3931

INTRODUCTION

Modern higher education in many parts of the world demands that the development of critical thinking skills be included in the curriculum (Paul and Elder 2000, cited in Tuzlukova et al. 2018, 191). As it is emphasized by Cohen et al. (2004, 172), Fry et al. (2008, 394) and Biggs and Tang (2011, 10), an essential aim of higher education is to help students develop their critical thinking because employers expect possession of sound critical thinking skills by their employees. Being a transferrable skill, critical thinking helps students survive in academic environments, be more active and autonomous learners, and thus be better able to comprehend and apply knowledge in a complex society (Liaw 2007, 47; Dwee et al. 2011, 632; Gunawerdana and Petraki 2014, 70 ; Gbenakpon 2017, 750). In addition and more specifically, critical thinking skills have been recognized as skills that help learners improve their language learning skills (Chapple and Curtis 2000, cited in Liaw 2007, 56). Since 1991 when the Republic of Uzbekistan became independent, the country has paid considerable attention to the fundamental reorganization and modernization of the educational system. The law adopted “On education” (1997, 45), the “National Programme of Personnel Training” (1997) and Presidential Decree “On measures to further improve foreign language learning system” (2012) targeted at implementing new approaches in the educational system, creating opportunities for learning and teaching foreign languages and upbringing knowledgeable, effectively developed and professionally skilled young generation of people who can comprehend, analyse and find solutions to modern issues. These education reforms have led to establishment of new international higher education institutions with instruction in English.

One of such institutions is Westminster International University in Tashkent (WIUT) which was established in 2002. Within 17 years the student population has grown to over 3,000 and is predicted to increase in the future. While the university offers a wide range of opportunities for students to receive solid education, students are

required to adjust to academic environment where they are expected to be active and autonomous. The learning process at the university is based on British system of education which is different from the education system at local secondary schools where still much of the focus is placed on rote learning, memorization, and orientation on exams. Most of the newly enrolled students come from the local schools, and while they might enjoy the rich social life at the university, many of them struggle to adjust academically not having the necessary critical thinking skills. Often in English – medium institutions students struggle to apply them due to their education background, culture and beliefs (Halx and Reybold 2005, 307; Gunawerdana and Petraki 2014, 67; Tuzlukova et al. 2018, 193). Consequently, prior education background, passive behavior, and lack of autonomy contribute to making the novel learning environment even more challenging. This negative backwash effect has its own impact as students enter the university with different language proficiency.

Shaheen (2016, 21) suggests students can face difficulties in adjusting to the new system which provides educational experience significantly different from their previous one. In this sense, students might be challenged by the academic requirement to use critical thinking in their studies. In this context, perceptions of lecturers about development of critical thinking skills and their teaching strategies make a difference in the lives of these students (Halx and Reybold 2005, 309; Tuzlukova et al. 2018, 198). Although not all research studies revealed that ESL teachers agree critical thinking should be an integral part of their teaching (Atkinson 1997, cited in Zhao, Pandian and Singh 2016, 14; Dwee et al. 2016, 633), AE lecturers, to the greater extent, agree that incorporating critical thinking into their teaching helps students improve their language skills and become better learners (Rezaei, Derakhshan, and Bagherkazemi 2011, 772; Tuzlukova et al. 2018, 198).

Academic English (AE) module is a core module students at WIUT take in their first year. It is a yearlong module that aims at helping students

become more proficient in using English for academic purposes. We believe AE is a pertinent

venue to help students develop critical thinking skills to facilitate their learning as different research studies have recognized AE as a suitable context for attaining critical thinking skills along with helping students enhance their language learning (Paton 2011; Thompson 1999, cited in Gunawardena and Petraki 2014, 65; Shaheen 2016, 24; Tuzlukova et al. 2018, 198). In fact, the ability to think critically is crucial for Academic English courses in higher education establishments where all subjects are taught in English to students whose first language is not English. One of the reasons is assessment tasks and the whole educational process demand having higher-order thinking skills. Yet, it is important to study the perceptions of other lecturers in the module to obtain a more objective picture.

While it is difficult to measure how critical thinking skills influence language learning, it is evident that not encouraging students to think critically in and outside the classroom could create barriers in effective language acquisition. The reason is lack of opportunities to think creatively and critically in the classroom can hinder language proficiency of a learner (Masduqi 2011, cited in Dwee et al. 2016, 633; Gbenakpon 2017, 752; Kabilan 2000, cited in Tuzlukova et al. 2018, 194) and a teacher should be accountable for helping students improve such thinking skills (Stefanova, Bobkina and Sanchez-Verdejo 2011, cited in Gbenakpon 2017, 757; Lipman 2003, cited in Tuzlukova et al. 2018, 194). Nonetheless, teachers might face different obstacles and use varying activities to help students develop such skills. It is clear that the role of an ESL teacher in developing critical thinking skills in students is significant (Rezaei, Derakhshand, and Bagherkazemi 2011, 772; Gbenakpon 2017, 757).

Consequently, studying their perceptions can reveal their attitudes to teaching critical thinking, issues they face and strategies they use in this respect. We decided to undertake a similar study at Westminster International University in Tashkent (WIUT) for several reasons. The current paper examines

language teachers' views today of teaching critical thinking since as Choy and Oo (2012, 168) enunciate, their perceptions can impact their teaching

practices. The study also contemplates problematic areas of students' use of critical thinking in the classroom and singles out the main challenges to be considered by teachers while integrating definite activities. Besides, it looks at teaching practices of lecturers and the ways they use to promote critical thinking skills in the English language classrooms. The significance of the current study is included in exploring the challenges to be addressed by teachers and the most effective means to enhance students' critical thinking.

LITERATURE REVIEW

DEFINITION OF CRITICAL THINKING

To conduct our study, we reviewed a wide array of definitions of critical thinking to see what researchers understand under this concept and be able to select the one most suitable to our context. There is no one consistent definition of critical thinking, but the one commonly accepted by experts is "purposeful, self-regulatory judgement which results in interpretation, analysis, evaluation, and inference, as well as explanation of the evidential, conceptual, methodological, criteriological, or contextual considerations upon which that judgement is based" (Facione 1990, 2, cited in Zhao, Pandian and Singh 2016, 15). Another insightful definition was provided by Dwee et al. (2016, 633) who described critical thinking as an ability of learners to grasp ideas through self-reflection upon how one learns and discovery of solutions to an issue based on viewpoints from various angles.

These definitions of critical thinking relate to our context as many ongoing and assessment tasks at WIUT require students to use critical thinking skills such as analytical reading, argumentative writing, focused discussions, comprehension, questioning and inferencing. The definitions above indicate that critical thinking has complex nature, and this

strengthens our support of the argument that critical thinking needs learning and teachers can lead students to improve their critical thinking (Rezaei, Derakhshand and Bagherkazemi 2011, 771). ESL can, thus, be one of the areas where this learning could be provided.

LINK BETWEEN CRITICAL THINKING (CT) AND SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

Studies have confirmed that critical thinking skills can be effectively taught through teaching in EFL classroom (Davidson 1994, 1995; Chapple and Curtis 2000, cited in Liaw 2007, 75). Critical thinking skills teaching in ESL was emphasized by Masduqi (2011) who believes they help students become more competent in language learning, and Shirkhani and Fahim (2011) who suggested that critical thinking reinforces autonomous learning (cited in Dwee et al. 2016, 633). According to the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority in the U.K. (2001-2002), activities that encourage reflective thinking as well as language learning should be an integral part of the contemporary second language education. Having no exposure to practicing critical thinking skills, L2 learners of English might be deprived of the chances to do well academically, be successful in today's job market, and become active participants in the global society (cited in Liaw 2007, 47).

LINK BETWEEN AE AND CRITICAL THINKING

A number of linguists and researchers in the area of English language teaching investigated the relationship between critical thinking and Academic English in different higher education institutions in the Sultanate of Oman, United Kingdom (UK), Russia and Malaysia using quantitative and qualitative approaches. The study conducted by Tuzlukova et al. (2018, 198) revealed the significance of critical thinking in Academic English language teaching and found it beneficial for students. They consider the development of critical thinking in teaching reading, writing, speaking and listening in the English language classroom to be

effective. Development of learners' critical thinking can be achieved in an "integrated context, rather than in separate skills" (Tuzlukova et al. 2018, 200). In correspondence with Tuzlukova et al. (2018, 200), Shaheen (2016, 24) emphasizes the close link between AE and critical thinking. He believes that developing students' abilities to write, read and discuss in good Academic English helps to improve

critical thinking. However, Masduqi (2011) after conducting extensive research, came to conclusion that critical thinking skills should be incorporated in the English language teaching to improve language skills (cited in Dwee et al. 2016, 633). Liaw (2007, 51) emphasized the need to assist students in improving critical thinking skills while learning English. Moreover, Vdovina (2013, 57) states that critical thinking introduction in teaching Academic English is essential, as today the use of English as the language of instruction in higher education institutions is widespread. She proposes that involving students in the interactive activities targeted at learning English and developing critical thinking can enhance their self-consciousness, dispositions and skills of analysing, problem-solving and decision making. Brown (2004) agrees that for teaching AE "the objectives of a curriculum are not limited to linguistic factors alone, but also include developing the art of critical thinking" (25). Based on the statements above, considerably close link between AE and critical thinking can be observed and their interrelation with each other can be shown to indicate that, in this context, language skills enhancement cannot be achieved without critical thinking teaching and vice versa. Since there is still inconsistency in views of researchers whether critical thinking skills should be an important part of second language teaching, it is significant to examine this issue in new contexts, and WIUT is one of them.

PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHERS' OF CRITICAL THINKING

AE TEACHER PERCEPTIONS ABOUT IMPORTANCE OF DEVELOPING CRITICAL THINKING IN THEIR CLASSROOM

Critical thinking skills are incorporated into educational programs and instruction of various Academic English programs around the globe. According to research, a large population of teachers, instructors and linguists believe that it is important to develop critical thinking in Academic English classroom and indicate that a number of activities can be implemented through reading, listening, speaking and writing (Brown 2004, 25; Fry et al. 2008, 395; Vaseghi 2012, 401; Vdovina 2013, 59; Hasni et al. 2018, 510; Tuzlukova 2018, 200). The validity of

developing critical thinking skills along with improvement in language learning in AE has been acknowledged by AE researchers and practitioners (Paton 2011; Thompson 1999, cited in Gunawardana and Petraki 2014, p65). Academic English specialists stress that students should be competent in the English language and able to differentiate cause and effect, categorization, description, comparison and contrast language patterns. Ability to scan, skim, and apply linguistic principles in academically and professionally - oriented fields of study are among other skills promoted in Academic English (Gunawardana and Petraki 2014).

Gunawardana and Petraki (2014) found that language teachers in Sri-Lanka think of critical thinking as a process with stages where learning material is comprehended and analyzed, reflected upon and argued about. The results of the study conducted by Hasni et al. (2018, 510) indicate that English instructors believe that it is crucial to teach students how to develop criticality so that they will become independent learners and possess problem-solving and decision making skills. Masduqi (2011) notes that a number of English Language Teaching experts emphasise that development of critical thinking in relation to language learning makes students competent in English language (cited in Dwee et al. 2016, p633). However, as Dwee et al. (2016, 634) claim, it depends on how teacher approaches criticality.

Nevertheless, the integration of critical thinking cannot always be an easy process. One of the reasons for having such difficulties is students' education background. For example, Dwee et al. (2016, 634) found that Malaysian lecturers believe students do not possess critical thinking skills as they are not actively involved in the classroom activities and are used to accepting ideas without questioning them. This was earlier found by Choy and Cheah (2009, cited in Dwee et al. 2016, 633). Such passive behavior is attributed by Dwee et al. (2016, 634) to factors such as teacher-centeredness of the classes,

system oriented on exam, and culture of spoon-feeding. Gunawardana and Petraki (2014, 71) identified that teachers perceived learning based on repetition and memorization and assessment tasks, targeted at performance, lead students to have no exposure to inquire, critique, or infer during the learning process. Another argument is that students can struggle to think critically due to lack of language proficiency (Kumaravadivelu 2003, cited in Gunawardana and Petraki 2014, 72). They (2014) concluded that comprehension, being crucial to critical thinking, creates the greatest obstacle for AE learners as their ability to process information depends on it. Moreover, according to Aliakbari and Sadeghdahighi (2012), teachers face challenges in embedding critical thinking because "students themselves constituted the constraints in improving their thinking skills in various ways" (2). They state that these constraints are lack of time due to curriculum overload and students' preferences of easy assignments. However, besides those issues, language teachers report on lack of time for designing and developing critical thinking activities as a barrier for teaching success. Choy and Cheah (2009), in a Malaysian context, revealed that due to teachers' lack of understanding of how to develop tools for fostering criticality, they find its integration difficult (198).

TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS ABOUT WAYS TO DEVELOP CRITICAL THINKING SKILLS

TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS ABOUT THE CHALLENGES FACED BY AE TEACHERS

Vaseghi et al. (2012, 404) and Tuzlukova et al. (2018, 198), in their work, highlight the benefits of implementing critical thinking in teaching students as it encourages active learning placing focus on how to think rather than what to think. They assert that this type of thinking should be promoted through four language skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking. The most favourable methods for embedding criticality in the English classroom, as teachers think, are workshops, practical ideas, more examples and collaborative discussions. Especially, as Lipman (2003) suggests, activities focusing on problem-solving and decision – making stimulate their critical thinking. He believes that it is a teacher's responsibility to integrate these activities to expose students to argumentation, analysis and resolution of questions and problems (cited in Tuzlukova et al. 2018, 194).

Moreover, the results obtained by Tuzlukova et al. (2018, 198) demonstrate teaching activities with focus on analyzing, making inferences and evaluating in teaching through reading can be effective to promote critical thinking. As reading is mostly used as one of teaching strategies in the English language classroom, Vaseghi et al. (2012, 408) highlight the importance of critical reading in fostering critical thinking. This corresponds to the view expressed by Elder and Paul (2004) who emphasize the significance of asking questions in the process of reading (cited in Rezaei, Derakhshan, and Bagherkazemi 2011, 72). Moreover, Zhao, Pandian and Singh (2016, 16) articulate the strategies related to reading such as identifying and summarising the main idea, underlining and evaluating key claims and reasons, and judging evidence and sources. However, critical writing, critical listening and discussions also stimulate students to go beyond the material by analyzing, assessing, synthesizing and reflecting.

Writing is another process which can assist learners in developing critical thinking (Elder and Paul 2005, cited in Rezaei, Derakhshan, and Bagherkazemi 2011, 772). Specifically, Johnston et al. (2011, 129) accentuated the value of academic writing in

developing argumentation and personal reaction. Furthermore, in their study they found that lecturers believe feedback on students' written work, analysis and discussion contribute immensely to criticality. Shaheen's (2016, 27) study findings specify incorporating activities which help students have a clear line of argument, act upon feedback effectively and reflect can promote critical thinking. On the contrary, Tuzlukova et al. (2018, 199) after conducting research among AE teachers, consider writing analytical essay to be effective. Nonetheless, Rezaei, Derakhshan, and Bagherkazemi, (2011, 775) after an in-depth study of sources on critical thinking and Dwee et al. (2016) in their study, recommended to use different forms of reflection to facilitate development of critical thinking among students. Incorporating activities to teach listening in the classroom through questioning, recognizing bias and

reflection can enable learners to develop critical thinking skills (Dwee et al. 2016, 636 and Johnston et al. 2011, 127). However, Tuzlukova et al. (2018) in their study identified the evaluation of the credibility of an argument to be the most effective (200). They continue that the skill of evaluating the information is essential in teaching listening, and agree with Dwee et al. (2016, 636) and Johnston et al. (2011, 208) in terms of incorporating the activity of reflecting to develop students' critical thinking skills. Special focus is placed on the language skill of speaking and its active use in the classroom. When students are exposed to thinking over a thought-provoking question, discussing it in groups and sharing the answers through clear explanations, the higher-order reasoning skills, such as analysis, synthesis and evaluation are activated and developed (Yuretich 2004, cited in Rezaei, Derakhshan, and Bagherkazemi 2011, 773). Besides discussions, engaging students in debates are considered to be as an essential aid to critical thinking, allowing them to think critically about strengths and weaknesses of any argument (Barnet and Bedau 2012, 463; Tuzlukova et al. 2018, 199). Shaheen (2016, 29).

emphasises the use of pair discussions can move students towards critical thinking, while Dwee et al. (2016, 635) consider brainstorming in small groups

can be integrated as one of the ways for lecturers to help students develop critical thinking skills. The acquisition and development of critical thinking among students require much work and practice. As Browne and Keeley (2007) underline, critical thinking cannot be developed simply through instructions on what to do or observations (12). Students need to practice, and certainly the practice will be both rewarding and laborious.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Our research questions were:

Stage 1:

- Should critical thinking be incorporated into Academic English module?
 - Sub-question:
- If yes, what critical thinking skills should be taught in Academic English module?

Stage 2

- How do AE teachers at WIUT perceive the development of critical thinking?
- What challenges do they face while integrating it in the classroom?
- What strategies do AE teachers employ to foster critical thinking?

METHODS

The current research involves two stages of data collection. The research tool used was online survey conducted in the first semester of the academic year 2018-2019 when 17 Academic English lecturers were asked to provide their anonymous responses. The purpose of the research at the first stage was to find out whether the lecturers believe critical thinking should be incorporated into AE module. Another question the teachers were asked was about the types of skills the lecturers think should be taught in this module to improve the students' critical

- One more question that the teachers were inquired about was if they believed the activities they used in the classroom were

Developing critical thinking requires time, practice and patience. Therefore, it is important to teach students how to develop criticality at foundation level (the first year of their study). The issue we focus on in our research is that students are unable to demonstrate sound critical thinking in completing tasks and course works due to their prior knowledge and experience. Before coming to a new education institution, they were exposed to passive learning and memorization. Certainly, at the beginning they experience difficulties in adapting to new academic environment. In addition, culture has an immense effect on students' perception of critical thinking.

thinking. The second stage of data collection was at the end of the second semester, the end of the academic year.

This time the same lecturers (but only 14 were available) were asked to provide more detailed responses to explore what challenges students in Academic English module face in using critical thinking skills and activities lecturers use in the module to help them develop the skills. This was an extension of the previous survey conducted in the fall of 2018. More specifically, the AE lecturers (their experience in teaching the module ranges from 2 to 9 years) were asked to reflect on a number of questions including:

- Their perceptions about the possibility and importance of teaching critical thinking through AE module;
- What difficulties they encounter in their teaching;
- What activities incorporating critical thinking skills they used in their classroom. The four major language skills we focused on in our survey were: speaking, listening, reading and writing;

effective in developing students' critical thinking skills.

The request to the teachers to fill in the questionnaire was sent through e-mail well in advance to ensure the lecturers were available to respond to the questions. It was vital to collect the responses at the end of the academic year when the teachers had just finished teaching the module, and thus were able to provide more authentic data for our research.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results from the first survey reflect the teachers' perceptions on whether critical thinking should be incorporated into Academic English, reasons for it and activities that should be taught in the module. All the respondents, except one who was hesitant, agreed that critical thinking should be a part of the module. Moreover, the most common response was that critical thinking should be embedded across different modules in undergraduate education. This finding is consistent with the argument by Halx and Reybold (2005, 293) that helping undergraduate students improve their ability to think critically is crucial who

also state critical thinking is frequently acknowledged and promoted by university instructors in their teaching practices. Another interesting finding was that using critical thinking in the classroom can help student improve their skills in evaluating, selecting, analysing and synthesizing information. They think activities integration of critical thinking enables students to better cope with writing and other assessment tasks and thus produce argumentative and logical ideas both in oral and written form. When asked what specific critical thinking skills students need to develop, most teachers chose evaluation of information (85,7%), analysing, logical reasoning and arguing (all 71.4%). Reflecting and problem solving (57,1% each) was another significant finding. The findings suggest that the teachers agree, to the most extent, on what critical thinking skills they should teach in their module.

The obtained results demonstrate teachers' beliefs on whether critical thinking can be incorporated into

language teaching and how it can be achieved. There were 13 participants (94%) who believe critical thinking can be taught, whereas only one teacher thinks negatively. This illustrates that the majority of teachers believe that incorporation of critical thinking is achievable. Another question on whether critical thinking should be taught was asked intentionally to find out what teachers think about it. Findings indicate all of them believe that critical thinking should be taught except one participant who considers it as probable. The majority of respondents agree that critical thinking should be taught in English language teaching and it should be done despite their language proficiency level. This corresponds to the view of Chapple and Curtis (2000, cited in Liaw 2007, 56), Rezaei, Derakhshan, and Bagherkazemi (2011, 772), and Tuzlukova et al. (2018, 198), who consider the importance of

teaching critical thinking in their studies. They accentuate teaching critical thinking is crucial and teachers should incorporate different activities to assist their students to become effective critical thinkers. Subsequently, a question was asked to determine whether the module should take responsibility to help students improve their critical thinking skills. The findings revealed that most of respondents believe critical thinking must be embedded in AE, and the module should be responsible for that. On the other hand, 3 participants consider that it should not take the full responsibility.

Critical thinking has to be taught throughout the curriculum and be the focus of other subjects. Similar viewpoint was expressed by Brown (2004), Vdovina (2013, 57), Shaheen (2016, 24) and Tuzlukova et al. (2018, 192). They state there is a close link between AE and critical thinking development and their mutual incorporation in the classroom can enable students to advance in modern competitive world. One of the important points was to identify the challenges the majority of their students usually have in using critical thinking skills in AE module. As Table 1. displays, most respondents determine the skill of "reading critically" as the most challenging

for students. Besides, 71.4% responded reflection and presentation of arguments cause difficulties among students. 64.3% of the teachers indicate evaluation of sources and learning from feedback are problematic for their students.

Table 1. Challenges in using CTS by Academic English lecturers

Challenge	Percentage
Reading critically	92.9%
Reflection	71.4%
Presenting arguments	71.4%
Evaluation of sources	64.3%
Learning from feedback	64.3%
Formulating question(s) for research (basic)	57.1%
Making inferences	50%
Expressing their opinions in writing	50%
Making a general idea more specific	35.7%
Assessing ideas	35.7%
Persuasion	35.7%
Distinguishing between opinions and facts	28.6%
None	7.1%
Other	7.1%
I do not know	0%

The list of options including activities was provided to let teachers choose which of them they assign for speaking. This enabled us to explore the activities they find as highly promoting critical thinking. 71.4% of the participants consider “question and answer” to be the most effective for developing critical thinking in AE (Table 2). Moreover, debates, oral presentation (both individual and group) and class discussions are also recommended as efficient ways for fostering criticality in teaching speaking at 64.3% respectively. Half of the respondents believe “justification of opinions” is also effective to promote critical thinking. However, interview and case studies are shown as the least effective for use in the classroom.

Table 2. Speaking activities used by the Academic English lecturer

Activity	Percentage
Question and answer	71.40%
Debates	64.30%
Presentations (both individual and group)	64.30%
Class discussions	64.30%
Justification of opinions	50%
Evaluation of opinions	43%
Reflective interactions	28.60%
Round-table discussion	21.40%
Persuasive speech	21.40%
All of them	14.30%
Interviews	7.10%
Case studies	7.10%
Other	7.10%
None	0.00%

The use of “question and answer” and its impact on developing criticality is highlighted by Elder and Paul (2003, cited in Rezaei, Derakhshan, and Bagherkazemi 2011, 773), and Tuzlukova et al. (2018, 199). They stress employing questions is an important part of teaching critical thinking and must become a necessary component of learning process. In terms of debates and class discussions, Rezaei, Derakhshan, and Bagherkazemi, (2011, 775), Barnet and Bedau (2012, 463), Shaheen (2016, 29) and Tuzlukova et al. (2018, 199) emphasise they can inspire learners to critically discuss upon versatile and controversial topics enthusiastically.

Our findings also showed how important it is to involve students in debates and discussions to create a meaningful and productive education of critical thinking. The next table (table 3.) refers to developing critical thinking among students in teaching listening in the AE classroom.

Table 3. Listening activities used by Academic English lecturer.

<i>Activity</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
All of them	38.50%
Listening for facts	23.10%
Evaluating presentations	15.40%
Listening for main idea and details	15.40%
Other: most of the options listed above	7.70%
Critical listening (listening for concepts and ideas; organizing what you hear; evaluating)	0.00%
Inferencing from listening	0.00%
Critical questioning	0.00%
Listening for opinions	0.00%
Recognizing bias	0.00%
Evaluating credibility of an argument or opinion	0.00%
Reflecting	0.00%
Summarizing	0.00%
None	0.00%

Interestingly, the most part of respondents (38.5%) chose an option “all of them” which indicates that all activities can be considered as effective to develop critical thinking. A

substantial group of people (23.10%) perceive listening for main ideas and facts as effective though it may appear to be a comprehension task or regarded as note-taking skill. Less than 8% of people chose the option “other: most of the options listed above”. The results demonstrate teachers use these activities because they believe they can help with development of critical thinking among students. This corresponds with the studies by Johnston et al. (2011, 208), Dwee et al. (2016, 636) and Tuzlukova et al. (2018, 200) that suggest that critical questioning, listening for identifying bias, evaluation and reflection can be used to foster critical thinking.

Table 4. demonstrates AE teachers’ perceptions of ways to develop critical thinking in reading. The majority of participants chose “reading for the main idea” as the most effective way to foster criticality at 85.7% respectively. This can be explained by the importance of comprehending the text through identifying the main idea. Zhao, Pandian and Singh (2016, 16) suggest that employing skills of understanding the main idea of the text also contributes to the development and use of critical thinking in the classroom. The second mostly selected option is “evaluation of sources” (73.1%) which is similar to Tuzlukova et al. (2018, 198) findings where the same quantity of respondents chose that option as helpful way for promoting critical thinking in reading. The same idea is expressed in Zhao, Pandian and Singh (2016, 16) study, who recommend to use evaluation of claims, evidence and sources. On the contrary, writing headlines and recognizing bias in reading are considered as less effective strategies (21.4%) for developing this type of thinking. This is dissimilar to Tuzlukova et al. (2018, 198) study as more than half of their participants think “recognizing bias” can be used as an activity to promote critical thinking in the classroom.

Table 4. Reading activities used by Academic English lecturers

<i>Activity</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Reading for the main idea	85.70%
Evaluation of sources	71.40%

Jigsaw reading	64%
Finding evidence from scholarly articles to support arguments	64.30%
Identifying main ideas and details	64%
Matching headings	57.10%
Reflecting on reading	57.10%
Formulating open-ended questions based on reading materials	46%
Distinguishing facts from opinions	42.90%
Making inferences from reading materials	35.70%
Analytical reading	28.60%
Writing headlines	21.40%
Recognizing bias in reading	21.40%
All of them	7.10%
Other	7.10%
None	0.00%

Another important point was to identify the most effective strategies to develop critical thinking through teaching writing. The results revealed (Table 5.) that all participants believe writing argumentative essays can contribute to the development of critical thinking skills. This is highlighted in Johnston's et al. (2011, 129) findings as well. They state that developing argumentation is valuable, and argumentative essay writing can be helpful. Another strategy mostly chosen by teachers was reflective writing at 92.9% respectively. Interestingly, 71.4% of respondents consider report and blog writing to be promoting critical thinking among students. Although academic blog writing was introduced in the first semester of the academic year, it was found as highly valuable for teaching criticality.

This is supported by Johnston et al. (2011, 129) who stressed the importance of personal reaction in writing. It is evident when students write blogs they are to include their personal reaction towards problems, events and cases. In contrast, 14.3% of participants relate descriptive writing and writing reviews to the least effective means of developing critical thinking via writing in their classrooms.

These findings are in line with Shaheen's study (2016, 29), who suggests that enabling learners to express their views and ideas linking with the secondary data and give useful implications lead to the employment and enhancement of critical

thinking skills. Rezaei, Derakhshan, and Bagherkazemi (2011, 775) also indicate use of reflection can be helpful to engage learners in critical thinking process.

Table 5. Most effective strategies to develop critical thinking

<i>Activity</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Writing argumentative essays	100.00%
Writing reflection	93%
Writing report	78.60%
Writing blogs	71.40%
Paragraph writing	64%
Summarizing	57.10%
Paraphrasing	57.10%
Evaluating evidence	50.00%
Writing peer feedback	28.60%
Integrated writing	21.40%
Descriptive writing	14.30%
Writing reviews (articles, books, etc.)	14.30%
Other	7%
Writing interactive journals	0.00%
All of them	0.00%
None	0.00%

CONCLUSION

To recapitulate, the results of this research demonstrate that AE lecturers believe it is important to develop students' critical thinking, though they faced certain challenges in incorporating activities necessary for its promotion. We help students develop their thinking through reading, listening, writing and discussion in AE teaching classroom. Therefore, we aimed in our research to explore the ways AE lecturers use to develop critical thinking in teaching reading, writing, listening and writing. The study results will be beneficial for educators and linguists working in the area of English language teaching.

Concluding, the current study has identified how teachers perceive critical thinking and whether it should be taught, the problems faced by lecturers, and what activities they use to develop critical

thinking of their students. The results and discussion demonstrate critical thinking should be taught and despite challenges teachers should try to implement critical thinking strategies in their classroom. In terms of effective activities to be incorporated, lecturers believe debates, discussions, evaluations, reflection and feedback can engage students in productive critical thinking process. Further research is clearly needed to explore teachers' views in other higher education institutions of Uzbekistan with English – medium instruction, as well as problems faced by students in using critical thinking skills.

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ARABIC ADAPTATION OF ADOLESCENTS VERSION OF THE COGNITIVE EMOTION REGULATION QUESTIONNAIRE: VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Abstract: The purpose of this study was to examine the psychometric properties of Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (Garnefski, Kraaij et al., 2002), using a sample of adolescents from Egypt, aged 13, 14 and 15 years. The results indicate that the nine-factor model was successful, obtaining adequate fit indexes: χ^2 , $df=381.3$, $\chi^2/df=5.5$, CFI=.92, TLI=.92, RMSEA=.05 and GFI=.93. Model fit indices showed acceptable goodness of fit values for nine factors structure of 36 items of the scale. Standardized factor loadings for one factor structure of Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire have values between .39 and .75 and all t values are significant for all of the items. According to Spearman correlation analyses, there were significant positive correlations between the adaptive cognitive emotion regulation strategies and all factors of Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale. However, negative correlations were noticed between the maladaptive cognitive emotion regulation strategies and all factors of Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale. The test-retest reliability was acceptable. The test-retest coefficient for the total scale score was .92.

Keywords: cognitive emotion regulation questionnaire, adolescents, validity, reliability

Mourad Ali Eissa Saad, PhD
Full Professor of Special Education
Vice President of KIE University
KIE University
Egypt
Contact:
E-mail: profmouradali@gmail.com
ORCID: 0000-0002-1520-4482

Omaima Mostafa Kamel, PhD
Full Professor of Educational Psychology
Cairo University
Egypt
Contact:
E-mail: omaima.gomma@gmail.com
ORCID: 0000-0001-7990-9628

INTRODUCTION

In our everyday life, emotion regulation is supposed to be a vital, indispensable process as it allows people to use different strategies to modify the course, intensity, duration and expression of emotional experiences depending on the situation or our goals (Orgile et al., 2018). Emotion regulation that is done depending on cognitive processes, and so is called cognitive emotion regulation can contribute to emotional control, and refers to the conscious way of dealing with information that elicits emotions (Schäfer et al., 2018). It is made up of a wide variety of processes of a biological, social, behavioural, and cognitive nature, whose empirical study requires individualized analysis (Francisco et al., 2011).

Although there are several instruments that evaluate emotion regulation processes, such as the Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale (DERS), Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ), Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS), and the Negative Mood Regulation Scale (NMR), Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (CERQ) is the only questionnaire that focuses on evaluating purely cognitive strategies of emotion regulation, without encompassing the broad repertoire of intrinsic and extrinsic strategies for control, evaluation and modification of emotions (See Orgile et al., 2018).

The Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire was originally developed by Garnefski and colleagues (2001) using a sample of high school students in the Netherlands. The scale divides cognitive coping into nine conceptually distinct strategies: (1) self-blame; (2) acceptance; (3) rumination; (4) putting into perspective; (5) positive refocus; (6) refocus on planning; (7) positive reappraisal; (8) catastrophizing; and (9) blaming others. It is important to note that cognitive coping and cognitive emotion regulation are interchangeable terms (Zhu et al., 2007).

The maladaptive strategies measured by the Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire are: 1) self-blame (thoughts about being the one to blame for the negative experience); 2) other-

blame (thoughts about the others being the ones to blame for the negative experience); 3) rumination (excessive focus on thoughts associated to the negative aspects of the experience); and 4) catastrophizing (thoughts emphasizing the terror of the negative experience). On the contrary, the adaptive strategies measured by the instrument are: 1) putting into perspective (thoughts relativizing the experience and putting aside its seriousness when comparing it to other experiences); 2) positive refocusing (more pleasant and joyful thoughts instead of thoughts about the negative experience); 3) positive reappraisal (thoughts about giving a new positive meaning to the experience in terms of personal goals); 4) acceptance (thoughts about accepting the experience); and 5) refocus on planning (thoughts about which steps are necessary to be taken to deal with the negative experience) (Schäfer et al., 2018).

PROBLEM STATEMENT

Cognitive strategies of children and adolescents have positive impact on their psychological outcomes as they learn to regulate their emotions by means of cognition, thoughts about themselves, and their feelings toward others (Liu, Chen & Blue, 2016). Thus, it is necessary to find a valid measure for cognitive emotion regulation. However, this area is limited in Egypt. In order for filling in this gap, the present study seeks to adapt an Arabic version of adolescents version of the cognitive emotion regulation questionnaire. To achieve this aim, the factor structure was analysed using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), test-retest reliability of each dimension of the Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire was examined, and convergent validity was evaluated.

METHODS

PARTICIPANTS

The sample consisted of 840 adolescents from six middle schools in Baltim Educational Edara, Kafr EL Sheikh, Egypt, of which 450 (53.57%) were females and 390 (46.42%) were males. They aged

between 13, 14 and 15 years (M age = 14.2; SD = 6.2).

INSTRUMENTS

Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (Garnefski, Kraaij et al., 2002). This questionnaire comprises 36 items that evaluate nine cognitive strategies: rumination; catastrophizing; self-blame; other-blame; putting into perspective; acceptance; positive refocusing; positive reappraisal; and refocus on planning. Answers are evaluated on a five-point Likert scale from 1 (*Almost never*) to 5 (*Almost always*).

Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS) (Law, Wong, & Song, 2004), is a 16-item self-report trait EI measure using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = totally disagree to 5 = totally agree). This questionnaire is composed of four factors: self-emotion appraisal (SEA), other emotion appraisal (OEA), use of emotion (UOE) and regulation of emotion (ROE). Each has 4 items.

DATA ANALYSIS

The original scale has 9 subscales which were confirmed in this study using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Spearman correlations to examine the relationships between the Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire Subscales and Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale Subscales were used to evaluate convergent validity. Intra-class correlation was used to explore test-retest reliability.

RESULTS

CFA was conducted for testing item-factor structure of the scale. Maximum likelihood estimation through AMOS 24 program was conducted with 840 adolescents. Model fit indices showed acceptable goodness of fit values for nine factors structure of 36 items of the scale. The indices found for the scale and acceptable ranges are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Model fit indices from measurement models of Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire

Goodness of Fit Indexes	Measurement Model of Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire
χ^2 , df	381.3
χ^2 /df	5.5
CFI	.92
TLI	.92
RMSEA	.05
GFI	.93

In the second part of Confirmatory Factor Analysis results, unstandardized and standardized

parameter estimates were examined as presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Unstandardized and standardized parameter estimates for Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire

Scale	Item	Unstandardized Factor Loadings	Standardized Factor Loadings	SE	T	R ²
SACQ	1	.91	.55	.15	12.46	.31
	2	.77	.56	.10	12.44	.32
	3	.88	.62	.11	12.11	.37
	4	1.17	.65	.08	17.81	.42
	5	.89	.52	.11	17.88	.27
	6	.63	.54	.10	18.48	.29
	7	1.22	.70	.07	16.54	.49
	8	.85	.53	.11	17.64	.28

	9	1.22	.69	.10	17.42	.46
	10	.98	.57	.18	18.88	.33
	11	.96	.58	.12	18.19	.34
	12	1.07	.58	.11	18.20	.34
	13	1.18	.66	.09	16.58	.46
	14	.63	.54	.10	18.48	.29
	15	.97	.56	.18	18.44	.32
	16	.82	.51	.09	18.37	.26
	17	.66	.52	.11	18.12	.18
	18	.90	.56	.11	18.42	.28
	19	.75	.39	.11	18.22	.36
	20	.95	.58	.12	18.22	.35
	21	.87	.57	.12	17.55	.28
	22	.84	.63	.11	17.69	.40
	23	.94	.58	.12	18.27	.34
	24	.92	.60	.12	17.59	.35
	25	.90	.53	.11	18.44	.26
	26	1.22	.75	.10	17.22	.55
	27	.98	.57	.17	12.48	.31
	28	.88	.61	.11	11.90	.38
	29	.52	.36	.14	13.37	.13
	30	.76	.56	.07	17.04	.32
	31	.74	.64	.05	16.89	.40
	32	.70	.59	.05	17.45	.34
	33	.98	.71	.07	14.69	.50
	34	.78	.56	.08	17.42	.31
	35	.57	.46	.07	18.36	.21
	36	1.12	.62	.11	18.01	.39

Note. All t values were significant, $p < .001$

As seen in Table2, standardized factor loadings for one factor structure of Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire have values between .39 and .75 and all t values are significant for all of the items.

TEST-RETEST RELIABILITY

Test-retest coefficients were: .76 for Self-Blame, .75 for Acceptance, .80 for Rumination, for Positive Refocusing, .79 for Planning, .78 for Positive Reappraisal, .77 for Putting into Perspective, .80 for Catastrophizing, and .81 for Other-Blame, which indicated that the test-retest

reliability was acceptable. The test-retest coefficient for the total scale score was .92

CONVERGENT VALIDITY

According to Spearman correlation analyses, there were significant positive correlations between the adaptive cognitive emotion regulation strategies and all factors of Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale. However, negative correlations were noticed between the maladaptive cognitive emotion regulation strategies and all factors of Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale, as shown in table 3

Table 3. Spearman correlations among Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire subscales and all factors of Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale.

	self-emotion appraisal	other emotion appraisal	use of emotion	regulation of emotion
1.Self-blame	.38 ⁻	.32 ⁻	.35-	.40 ⁻
2. Acceptance	.37 ⁻	.40 ⁻	.36-	.34 ⁻

3. Rumination	.33 ⁻	.31 ⁻	.34 ⁻	.36 ⁻
4. Positive refocusing	.48	.42	.45	.43
5. Planning	.44	.45	.52	.51
6. Positive reappraisal	.39	.40	.43	.46
7. Putting into perspective	.42	.47	.41	.38
8. Catastrophizing	.32 ⁻	.31 ⁻	.33 ⁻	.36 ⁻
9. Other-blame	.38 ⁻	.33 ⁻	.30 ⁻	.32 ⁻

Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine the psychometric properties of Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (Garnefski, Kraaij et al., 2002), using a sample of adolescents from Egypt, aged 13, 14 and 15 years. The results indicates that the nine-factor model was successful, obtaining adequate fit indexes: χ^2 , $df=381.3$, $\chi^2/df=5.5$, $CFI=.92$, $TLI=.92$, $RMSEA=.05$ and $GFI=.93$. Model fit indices showed acceptable goodness of fit values for nine factors structure of 36 items of the scale. Standardized factor loadings for one factor structure of Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire have values between .39 and .75 and all t values are significant for all of the items.

According to Spearman correlation analyses, there were significant positive correlations between the adaptive cognitive emotion regulation strategies and all factors of Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale. However, negative correlations were noticed between the maladaptive cognitive emotion regulation strategies and all factors of Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale.

The test-retest reliability was acceptable. The test-retest coefficient for the total scale score was .92

This study showed that the Egyptian version of the Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire had good psychometric properties. However, there are some limitations. First, the sample consists of preparatory stage students, who may not represent the general Egyptian population, limiting the generalization of results. Second, all the measures used in the current study were self-reported questionnaires. Therefore, researchers

should establish discriminant validity in future studies. Nevertheless, this tool allows future studies to analyse Cognitive Emotion Regulation within the Egyptian culture.

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AUTHORSHIP OF OWN LIVES IN PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES MODEL IN THEORETICAL AND EMPIRICAL CONTEXT

Abstract: The concept of the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities* belongs to the trend which creates a positive, capable image of a person with disability in the society. The aim of this article is to relate contemporary theories which conceptualise disability in the categories of a universal human condition, natural human variation and positive aspects of human functioning to AOL–PwD. In particular, the analyses in this work aim to locate AOL–PwD in the perspective of the theories of coherence, well-being, self-determination, quality of life and social belonging. The analysis has allowed to formulate the following theses: (1) the classical theory of needs by Abraham Maslow provides a significant foundation and the leading context for the general explication of the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities* idea; (2) the connections between identity and various dimensions of human functioning make it possible to predict the relations of these dimensions with AOL–PwD; (3) specific aspects of the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities* can be presented in the light of relevant theories; (4) the AOL–PwD construct is a complex composition of diverse relations and dependencies; (5) the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities* concept refers to the holistic model of a person with disability and illustrates comprehensively the specific composition of his or her mental and social condition.

Keywords: authorship of own lives, people with disabilities, self-actualisation, coherence, well-being, self-determination, quality of life, social belonging, conceptualisation of disability

Joanna Głodkowska, PhD

Full Professor at The Maria Grzegorzewska University (APS)
Director of Institute of Special Education
Head of Chair of Interdisciplinary Disability Studies
40 Szczęśliwicka Street
02-353 Warszawa
Poland
Contact:
E-mail: jglodkowska@aps.edu.pl
ORCID: 0000-0001-5579-060X

Marta Pągowska, PhD

Assistant Professor at The Maria Grzegorzewska University (APS)
Head of Institute of Special Education
Chair of Interdisciplinary Disability Studies
40 Szczęśliwicka Street
02-353 Warszawa
Poland
Contact:
E-mail: mpagowska@aps.edu.pl
ORCID: 0000-0002-2290-9886

INTRODUCTION

The ideas of normalisation from the 1960s established the perception of disability from the perspective of such personal traits as: self-determination, quality of life, sense of identity or autonomy. The concept of *authorship of own life* penetrates these areas, which, by creating mental resources of person with disability, constitute a significant condition for normalisation, because normalisation can be seen as a process which aims at allowing a person with disability to become the author of his or her own life (Głodkowska, 2014a).

The concept of *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities* (AOL-PwD) fits in normalisation-oriented, humanist and affirmative perception of disability, which investigates areas of human subjectivity, well-being, optimum functioning, satisfactory fulfilment of developmental tasks and ability to efficient use of social support (Głodkowska 2014a, 2014d, 2015). The presented construct of the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities* results from the combination of various concepts of humans, formulated by researchers in the fields of psychology, pedagogy, sociology, family studies, as well as philosophy. AOL-PwD is characterised by five aspects – personalistic, eudaimonistic, functional, temporal, and help-related. So far, each of them has been interpreted in relation to a relevant theory: theory of personalism, theory of well-being, theory of optimum functioning, theory of developmental tasks, theory of social support (Głodkowska, 2015).

The term *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities* was defined in the categories of a multidimensional construct, which identified (1) subjective experiences, (2) well-being, (3) independence, (4) satisfactory completion of developmental tasks, and (5) successful use of social support (Głodkowska, Gosk, 2018).

The previous analyses undertook the conceptualisation of the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities*, establishing a theoretical concept, determining contexts of meanings, defining it, designing research procedures and developing assumptions for the

diagnostic strategy (Głodkowska, 2015; Głodkowska, Gosk, 2018; Głodkowska, Gosk, Pağowska, 2018). The AOL-PwD concept was presented in specific semantic connections, which all share the common foundation of the sense of the person's identity (Głodkowska, Pağowska, 2018).

This article continues to develop the concept of the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities*. The authors followed important directions for analyses found in the basic strategic assumptions for AOL-PwD research defined previously (Głodkowska, Gosk, Pağowska, 2018). Referring in particular to strategic assumptions about interdisciplinarity, systematicity and the role of context, in this article the authors aim to offer an in-depth overview. In the strategy of interdisciplinarity of AOL-PwD research, the authors have assumed the need for cooperation between representatives of numerous scientific disciplines, including psychology, sociology, pedagogy, philosophy, family studies, health sciences. They have assumed that limiting research to just one perspective would lead to reductionism and yield fragmentary knowledge about AOL-PwD. In respect of the assumption about the role of context, the authors have stressed that in the conceptualisation of the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities*, diagnostic and classificatory procedures should consider interrelated contextual factors which integrate personal traits of an individual and his or her living environment.

The role of the context in the strategic research assumptions is important both for scientific knowledge and for design of individual diagnostic-rehabilitation actions, or it can help formulate recommendations for the social policy. In respect of the strategic assumption about the systematicity, the authors have stressed that aspects and specific categories in AOL-PwD constitute a specific system with its own, individual and unique organisation and a collection of mutual relationships and specific connections.

The aim of this article is to relate the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities* to those theories which conceptualise disability in the categories of an universal human condition, natural variation of humans, and positive dimensions of their functioning. In particular, the analyses offer an investigation of theoretical-empirical areas from the perspective of the contexts of meanings formulated for AOL-PwD: (1) “to have a sense of subjectivity”, (2) “to have a sense of own personal resources”, (3) “to be independent, to make decisions regarding one’s own life”, (4) “to perform developmental tasks satisfactorily”, (5) “to be able to use social support” (Głodkowska, Gosk, 2018). On the basis of the adopted contexts of meanings, the authors have indicated theories which correspond to them, highlighting significant values and indicators of *own life authorship*.

IDENTIFICATION OF SELECTED THEORIES EXPLAINING THE AUTHORSHIP OF THEIR OWN LIVES IN PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES

Taking into consideration the sources of the presented concept and analyses conducted so far (Głodkowska, 2015, Głodkowska, Gosk, 2018), in this part of the article, the authors will focus on the specific ‘coalition’ of meanings related to the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities*.

The authors would like to begin this investigation by embedding the AOL-PwD concept theoretically in the classical theory of needs by Maslow (1971). We believe that this theory offers a comprehensive ‘canvas’, a specific structure which brings elements of the *own life authorship* concept together. Here it is very important to quote Maslow’s claim (1971, p. 15) that “needs cover a very diverse area of life conditions and becoming oneself”. Becoming oneself means, among others, the acquisition of authorship features of one’s life by an individual.

In his pyramid, Maslow mentioned physiological, safety, belonging, esteem and self-actualization needs. The proposed hypothesis about the hierarchic character of the needs lays the foundation for predicting the dynamics of human

development, including the assumption that satisfying basic needs allows higher order needs — to become oneself — to activate. Importantly, as far as higher order needs are concerned, reinforcement law applies. It assumes that satisfying these needs does not cause them to disappear, but evokes pleasant experience in an individual, which leads to the urge to reinforce them, i.e. to activity, repeating actions. The top-most stage of the pyramid, according to Maslow’s concept, is the self-actualization need, which manifests itself, among others, in the pursuit of the development of one’s talents, in having goals and a sense of meaning of life, self-acceptance, acceptance of the surrounding world and other people, personal autonomy, maturity of interpersonal relationships. Even this preliminary characteristic of self-actualization need justifies seeing the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities* in the light of this theory, as far as the general conceptual dimension is concerned. It is also important to relate the AOL-PwD model theoretically in more detail; this will be addressed later in the article in relation to previously conducted analyses and identifications.

The AOL-PwD model constructed so far took into consideration three elements: (1) authorship aspects, (2) identity components and (3) process links (Głodkowska, Pałowska, 2018). Its interpretation has made it possible to decide that an individual’s identity (identity components and identity process links) is the central, basic category for the interpretation of individual aspects of the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities* in respect of the formulation of their characteristics and explanation of changes occurring over time and under the influence of various circumstances. Here we refer to Fritz Schütze (1997), who stated that suffering “penetrates the zone of individual identity” (Riemann, Schütze, 1992, p. 93).

Undoubtedly, suffering is an inherent experience in disability. Suffering one goes through causes changes to the identity which affect various dimensions of the functioning of an individual, including the authorship dimensions of the individual’s life (Głodkowska, Pałowska, 2018). Michael Wehmeyer (2013) reflects on the identity

of person with disability in the light of the general statement — “our life shapes our identity” (Wehmeyer, 2013, p. 125) — as well as in the categories of the sense of identity, constructed in social situations of acceptance, understanding, support, but also under circumstances of stigmatisation, rejection or isolation. The researcher, however, insists that the shaping of identity of person disability is not a straightforward reflection of social attitudes, but results from diverse experiences of such persons, and also from their own involvement and taking up challenges to create their own life.

Referring to the aforementioned statements, it is good to cite results of studies which show that indeed there are connections between identity and various aspects of human functioning. It turns out that such connections apply also to the essence of the aspects included in the AOL–PwD model. Among others, researchers have identified relationships between sense of identity and attainment of eudaimonic well-being (Karaś, Kłym, Ciecuch, 2013; Waters, Fivush, 2015; Ferrari, Rosnati, Manzi, Benet-Martínez, 2015; Sumner, Burrow, Hill, 2015), self-determination (Zhou, Zhou, 2018), sense of coherence (Calandri, Graziano, Borghi, Bonino, 2018), social belonging (Jenkins, 2014) or sense of one’s value (Stets, Burke, 2014).

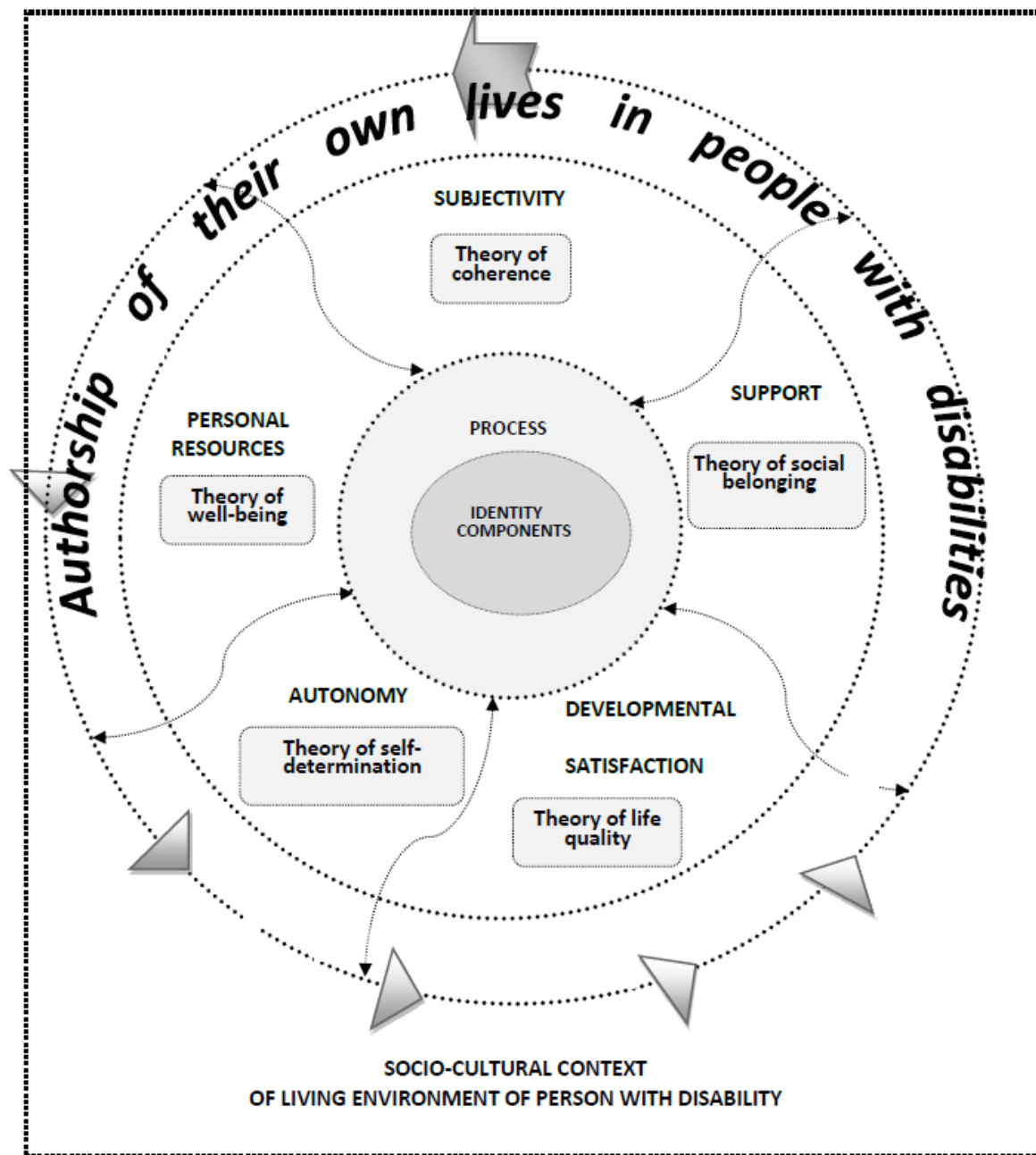
Noting the relationships signalled above, one can also expect the existence of relationships between well-being, self-determination, sense of coherence or social belonging and the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities*. In this article, we shall investigate the aspects of AOL–PwD: subjectivity, personal resources, autonomy, developmental satisfaction and support. Taking into consideration the theoretical-empirical evidence for identity study, we assume that each of these aspects can be explained in the light of leading ideas brought in by specific concepts. Our analyses focus on showing the

aspect of subjectivity in AOL–PwD in the context of the theory of coherence, the aspect of personal resource in relation to the theory of well-being, the aspect of autonomy in relation to self-determination, the aspect of developmental satisfaction in relation to the concept of the quality of life and the support aspect is seen in the light of the theory of social belonging (Figure 1).

The choice of these theories is not accidental, because the authors believe that they form the canvas of the contemporary approach to disability. These concepts were cited, among others, by Joanna Głodkowska (2018), when she defined the axiological pillars for special needs education, including: self-determination, well-being, normalisation, subjectivity. In this systematic characterisation and in these circles of topics, she found the values which shape the contemporary image of a person with disability and his or her place in the society. These generalisations stress various theoretical and empirical categories, including: subjectivity, identity, celebrating differences, autonomy, self-regulation, social reinforcement, self-esteem, social competencies, efficiency, decision taking and making choices, life satisfaction, as well as well-being, personal flourishing, sense of meaning of life, self-actualization, optimum functioning, happy life, optimism, vitality, welfare, life success.

In line with Thomas Kuhn’s postulate (2001), science does not accumulate knowledge; it does not approach the truth in philosophical sense. Scientists do not get to know the absolute truth, but rather perfect their means of solving unknowns and create a structure which guides the explanation of some defined facts of reality. Inspired by Kuhn’s view, the authors have decided that they want to create such a structure to explain the authorship dimensions of a person with disability in his/her life.

Figure 1. The authorship of own lives in people with disabilities model and its theoretical links



The theoretical-empirical foundation included in the AOL–PwD model will be subject to further analyses in this article. We inscribe the aspects of the model structure of the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities* with the following theories: the theory of coherence, the theory of well-being, the theory of self-determination, the theory of quality of life, the theory social belonging.

THE AUTHORSHIP OF OWN LIVES IN PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES IN THE LIGHT OF COHERENCE, WELL-BEING, SELF-DETERMINATION, QUALITY OF LIFE AND SOCIAL BELONGING

In the following part of the article, the authors will signal the main assumptions of the adopted theories so that, in effect, their significance for explicating aspects of the the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities* and creating

a comprehensive AOL–PwD construct is exposed.

Sense of coherence theory (global orientation to life) is included in the the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities* model in relation to the subjectivity aspect. In the light of this theory, an individual can answer the basic question: *Who am I?* The humanistic-subjective model of disability offers many options for interpretation. Therefore, it is useful to refer to Aaron Antonovsky's (1995) sense of coherence theory in the explanation of the subjective aspect of AOL–PwD.

This author assumed that sense of coherence (SOC) is a significant subjective factor which determines individual differences in the functioning of people. This concept defines global orientation to life as a generalised emotional-cognitive way of looking at the world and as a significant factor regulating an individual's behaviour. Thanks to it, the individual can be certain that: (1) stimuli which come throughout life from the internal and external environments are structured, predictable and comprehensible (comprehensibility); (2) there are resources available which will allow him or her to meet the requirements imposed by these stimuli (manageability); (3) the requirements are seen by him or her as a challenge which is worthy of the effort and involvement (meaningfulness) (Antonovsky, 1995, p. 19).

The coherence describes the functioning of a person as coherent (repeatable, predictable, ordered), corresponding to his or her abilities and offering him or her opportunities to co-decide. In the light of the afore cited description, an individual appears as a subject who is capable of understanding events, has a sense of his or her own manageability and a sense of meaningfulness of events and situations he or she encounters. The level of general orientation to life is responsible for the regulation of the individual's behaviour. This is manifested, in particular, in difficult situations, where some people recognize the meaning of the situation and take the challenge up, while others see only meaningless, overloading chaos that better be avoided.

According to Antonovsky (1995), the reason why people faced with difficulties and stress take different decisions is the different level of their sense of coherence. A strong coherence is connected with the skill of ordering, predicting and explaining incoming information and realising the ways to meet the expectations. People characterised by a high sense of coherence are, therefore, more successful in overcoming troubles they encounter. Persons with a weak sense of coherence faced with a difficult, stressful situation are — according to Antonovsky (1995, pp. 132–133) — confused, lack motivation to fight and often give up straight away.

In the light of the afore cited description, it appears justified to interpret the subjective factor of coherence in relation to the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities*. Disability creates numerous situations in which an individual has to face everyday problems, difficult situations which can cause stress. It can, therefore, be assumed that the level of general orientation to life is a significant component which determines the functioning of the individual in the situation where he or she experiences disability. Thus, the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities* can be successfully interpreted in the light of sense of coherence as the subjective factor which determines individual differences between people in respect of comprehensibility, manageability and sense of meaningfulness of situations they experience. A high level of coherence offers opportunities to reinforce sense of safety of a person with disability, who, thanks to the activation of his or her own resources and support from the environment, can take up life challenges and meet their requirements, believing that engagement and creation of one's own life are worthy of the effort.

Theories of human well-being and thriving are considered in the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities* concept in relation to the personal resources aspect (Figure 1). Eudaimonic well-being refers to human values/merits which are derived from the main ideas of positive psychology, both formulated theoretically and verified in empirical research (Ryff, 2013). It

refers to important asset of man which is his or her personal thriving, evoking positive emotions, a sense of self-esteem, meaningfulness, life goal, self-determination, and promoting intense hobbies and passions (Seligmann, 2011, pp. 47–48).

Following a thorough analysis of the literature, researchers usually distinguish three types of human well-being: mental, social and emotional (Keyes, Waterman, 2003). In respect of mental well-being, Carol D. Ryff and Corey Lee M. Keyes (1995) presented a multidimensional model which covers six different components of human positive functioning. In combination, these dimensions determine the well-being of an individual; among others, they testify to positive evaluation of oneself and one's previous life (self-acceptance), a sense of continuous growth and development (personal development), the ability to successfully manage one's life and the surrounding world (control over the surroundings), a sense of self-determination (autonomy) and the belief that life has a purpose (life purpose) and good relationships with others are important (positive relationships with others). For social well-being, Keyes (1998) proposed 5 dimensions which describe positive functioning of man when faced with social tasks and challenges. These include: social integration, social cooperation, social coherence, social acceptance and real contribution to social life. Emotional well-being, according to Keyes and Waterman (2003), refers to the sense of satisfaction and happiness in relation to one's life and balance in experiencing positive and negative feelings.

Selected types and dimensions of well-being are presented by authors in more detail. For example, self-acceptance, according to Carol D. Ryff and Burton H. Singer (2008), is defined as the central feature of mental health and also as a feature of self-actualisation, optimum functioning and human maturity. Self-acceptance goes beyond standard views concerning self-esteem; it is rather a kind of long-term self-assessment which is long-term and covers awareness and acceptance of one's strengths and weaknesses (Ryff, Singer, 2008, pp. 21–22). Individuals who accept

themselves, show positive attitudes towards themselves, recognise and accept their good and bad traits, have positive convictions about their future life. On the other hand, individuals who do not accept themselves and are not satisfied with themselves are disappointed with what has happened in their previous life, do not accept some of their traits, would like to be someone else (Ryff, Keyes, 1995). One important component of well-being are also positive relationships with others, which are characterised by warmth, satisfaction and trust. Individual who positively evaluate their relationships with others care about the good of others, enter empathetic, emotional and intimate relationships and understand the need to “give and take” in human relationships. On the contrary, individuals with negative relationships with others have few close, trusted relationships and believe that it is difficult to be a kind, open person and to care about others. Such people are often isolated and frustrated when it comes to human relationships and are unable to find compromise (Ryff, Keyes, 1995). Another dimension of well-being — autonomy — according to Ryff and Keyes (1995) is characteristic of persons who show self-determination, who are able to reject social pressure to think and act in a specific way. Individuals characterised by high level of well-being believe that they control the environment and, therefore, have a sense of possessing the competencies to manage the environment, control events, use opportunities effectively, are able to choose and create conditions adjusted to their own needs and values. Individuals who score low on this scale have problems dealing with everyday matters, feel that they cannot influence their environment. A person with a high level of well-being has life goals and a sense that there is a purpose to his or her present and future life. The well-being dimension — personal development — points to the positive functioning, engagement in a continuous process of developing one's own potential (Ryff, Singer, 2008). A person who pursues self-actualisation is focused on activating and developing his or her own potential, is open to new experiences, takes up confrontation with new challenges in various periods of his or her life. A person who scores low on this scale has a sense of stagnation, feels bored and not interested

in life, cannot activate new attitudes and behaviours (Ryff, Keyes, 1995).

In the light of the afore cited general and specific characteristics of well-being, we can state that they clearly foreground the personal resources which are an aspect of the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities*; we should note that the context of meaning of the AOL-PwD construct 'to have a sense of possessing one's own personal resources' is directly connected with, among others, having a sense of individual autonomy, the ability to control the environment, self-acceptance, positive relationships with others, having life goals and a sense of personal development.

Self-determination theory is included in the AOL-PwD model in relation to the autonomy aspect of the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities* (Figure 1). According to Michael L. Wehmeyer, Kathy Kelchner and Sandy Richards (1996), self-determination refers to activities which are identified through four major features, depending on the function / purpose of the behaviour: (a) an individual has behavioural autonomy, (b) the behaviour is self-regulated, (c) an individual has initiated / reacted to an event/situation employing psychological empowerment, and (d) an individual acts pursuing self-realization.

Autonomous behaviour results from the process of individuation and, basically, encompasses actions in which people act in accordance with their preferences, interests and/or skills and independently, without unnecessary external influence or interference (Wehmeyer, 1999, p. 57). Inclusion of self-regulation and psychological empowerment in the definition of self-determination points to the cognitive and behavioural dimensions of this category. In this respect, Wehmeyer (1999, p. 58) notes that "just as there are people who do not pursue self-determination because they lack certain skills, there are people who have such skills and opportunity to use them, but still do not pursue self-determination, usually because they do not believe that it is possible to behave appropriately or because they believe that it would be fruitless."

Self-regulatory behaviour encompasses self-management strategies (including self-control, self-education, self-assessment and self-development), establishment of the goals and effects of a behaviour, resolution of problems, decision-related behaviours and learning through observation. Now, psychological empowerment refers to aspects of perception of control, including the sense of one's own efficiency, the placement of control, an individual's motivation. Individuals who determine themselves also pursue self-realization. They use comprehensive and sufficiently accurate knowledge about themselves and their strengths and the limited ways to act in such a way as to use their potential to the fullest. This awareness and understanding of oneself result from experience and interpretation of the environment and are subject to the influence of evaluation of other, often prominent people. The age, capabilities and talents of an individual as well as the life circumstances can have an impact on the level to which the aforementioned self-determination traits are manifested.

Apart from the functional model of self-determination presented by Wehmeyer (1999), Bryan Aberly (1994) presented an ecological self-determination model. In this context, self-determination is seen as a product of interaction between an individual and the environment in which he or she lives and develops (family, school, peer group, society). The environmental context of self-determination is defined as an individual's ecosystem and can be seen taking into consideration many levels, from micro- to macrosystem. Aberly (1994) shows that on the individual level, the factors which impact self-regulation are: (1) skills (establishing goals, making choices, self-regulation, interpersonal competencies concerning resolution of problems and self-advocacy), (2) knowledge (about the system of resources and services available in the environment, rights/privileges/duties, awareness of the world/society), (3) motivation (sense of one's own efficiency, attribution of success and failure, sense of the placement of control, sense of self-esteem, self-assessment). Individual variation in respect of the afore listed motivational components of self-determination

can help explain why some individuals in spite of having sufficient knowledge and skills do not determine themselves. Among the environmental elements which are important for the shaping of self-determination, Abery (1994) lists also: participation/inclusion, respect/acceptance, individualised programme, individualised scope of support, satisfaction of basic needs, positive reinforcement, social role models, opportunities to make choice and take control of one's own life.

In the presented AOL-PwD concept, the autonomy aspect highlights the fact that such people, to the best of their abilities, are self-reliant and act independently, regulate their own behaviour, have motivations to undertake and pursue life goals and tasks they find important, have the skills and opportunities to use them, have a sense of their own efficiency and motivation to act. This description makes it possible to see the theory of self-determination as a significant element of the AOL-PwD model, which contributes particularly to explain the autonomy aspect of the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities*.

The concept of quality of life is included in the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities* in relation to the aspect of developmental satisfaction of AOL-PwD (Figure 1). The authors indicate various sources of the quality of human life. One of them is recognition of the fact that personal, family and social well-being results from complex conditions of scientific, medical and technological progress, values preferred by the person, and the environmental conditions of his or her life. A significant role is also played by social human rights movements, which stress the ideas of subjectivity and the need to focus on the person and his or her self-reliance, life independence (Schalock et al. 2002, among others).

Basic rules for the conceptualisation of quality of life have been developed: (1) it contains the same factors and relationships for both person with and without disability, (2) it is experienced when the basic needs of an individual have been met, (3) it is reinforced by integration and allowing individuals to participate in decisions which

impact their lives; (4) it has both subjective and objective elements, but first and foremost it is the individual's perception which reflects his or her quality of life; (5) it is based on individual needs, choices and control; (6) it is a multi-dimensional construct affected by personal and environmental factors, such as: intimate relationships, family life, friendships, job, neighbourhood, place of residence, accommodation, education, health, life standard and the state of one's nation (Schalock et al., 2002).

Robert A. Cummins (2005, p. 700) has defined quality of life as a construct and analyses its basic features. He notes that quality of life contains both an objective component and a subjective component, which exists only in each individual's consciousness. One consequence of this dichotomy is the fact that all comprehensive quality of life assessments must cover both the subjective and the objective traits. At the same time, quality of life should not be defined primarily for its consideration of the objective or the subjective component, because both are significant indices of quality of life. Furthermore, there is an identifiable set of basic elements which make up quality of life and which are shared by all people, therefore it is possible to create universal tools to measure quality of life; such tools can be successfully used by any group of people, regardless of cultural and socio-economic conditions as well as their condition of (dis-)ability. Moreover, quality of life should not be defined in the categories of needs, because it is not necessarily the case that a low level of their fulfilment will be related to the sense of quality of life. The author also claims that quality of life should not be defined in terms of abilities, because it is also possible that their objective improvement (e.g. improvement of work conditions) will not be seen positively by the given individual. In addition, experiencing a chance to improve one's quality of life is more likely to appear as the causal variable and not as the ultimate state or result.

On the basis of the analysis of 897 articles, Schalock, Verdugo and Braddock (2002) have identified the key indices which refer to the eight main dimensions of quality of life:

Emotional well-being:

- contentment (satisfaction, moods, pleasure), knowledge of oneself (identity, sense of self-esteem, self-assessment), lack of stress (predictability, control);

Interpersonal relations:

- interactions (social networks, social contacts), relationships (family, friends, peers), support (emotional, physical, financial, feedback);

Material well-being:

- financial standing (income, benefits), employment (professional position, work environment), accommodation (type of accommodation, ownership);

Personal development:

- education (achievements, status), personal competencies (cognitive, social, practical), accomplishments (success, achievements, productivity);

Physical well-being:

- health (functioning, symptoms, fitness, eating habits), everyday activities (self-reliant care skills, mobility), leisure time (recreation, hobby);

Self-determination:

- autonomy / personal control (independence), personal goals and values (desires, expectations), choices (opportunities, options, preferences);

Social inclusion:

- inclusion and participation in social life, social roles (author, volunteer), social support (support network, services);

Rights:

human (respect, dignity, equality), legal (citizenship, access, due process).

The dimensions of quality of life listed by the authors can offer a crucial source for undertaking further theoretical and empirical analyses, also concerning the investigation of the quality of life of persons with disabilities. Actions aimed at improvement of the quality of life of persons with disabilities, according to Schalock et al. (2002), should help establish their well-being and reinforce personal control as well as individual abilities to take up actions taking into consideration the interference of their life environment. Such programmes should indicate changes which occur in individual's personal life

as well as those which are connected to his or her social, economic and cultural life. The authors argue that the concept of quality of life is an effective tool to plan successful actions taken up in the social system to improve the quality of life of persons with disabilities. It should play the leading role in the collection of data to identify significant predictors of quality of life of such persons.

On the basis of the afore cited discussion about quality of life, we can accept that this is a relevant conceptual category, directly related to the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities*. By stressing developmental satisfaction, competencies, reinforcement, independence, social participation, it offers many opportunities for adoption in relation to the AOL-PwD concept. Referring to the basic principles of measurement of quality of life formulated by Schalock et al. (2002, pp. 461–463) can also be rewarding. These statements can also provide useful indications for the design of the measurement of the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities*, because we can similarly assume that the measurement of the AOL-PwD: (1) refers to the extent to which people have experiences which they consider valuable; (2) determines the extent to which specific aspects/dimensions of an individual's quality of life contribute to his or her ability to fully experience valuable and significant situations; (4) it takes into consideration the environmental aspect of life, which is important to persons with disabilities; (5) it is based both on common human experiences and on unique, individual life experiences.

The concept of social belonging is included in the the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities* model in relations to the support aspect of AOL-PwD, which stresses an individual's relationships with the social environment and the ability to use support (Figure 1).

The sociological term 'social belonging' is defined as an individual's internal affective (or evaluative) perception of his or her place in the social environment and constitutes his or her personal sense of adjustment to the external

environment as well as the experience of acknowledgement and importance (Hagerty, Patusky, 1995). In the conception of Edward L. Deci and Richard M. Ryan (2000), the need for belongingness means the desire to have social bonds and relationships with others. The authors stress that this need serves a key function in the explanation of eudaimonic sense of an individual's well-being. The need for belongingness or the need for relatedness mean the drive to compare oneself with others in respect of adjustment as well as satisfactory and coherent involvement in the environment in addition to caring for others and being subject of their care. The authors define sense of belonging as a unique concept, which enters a specific dichotomy in relation to such phenomena as loneliness, alienation or social exclusion (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Hagerty & Patusky, 1995; Napoli, Marsiglia & Kulis, 2003; Hagerty, Lynch-Sauer, Patusky, Bouwsema & Collier, 1992; Hagerty, Williams, Coyne & Ealy, 1996).

In controlled laboratory conditions, researchers carry out observations of how the threat of social exclusion (threat to the need for social belongingness) affects psychophysiological (Herman & Panskepp, 1978; Eisenberg, Lieberman & Williams, 2003), behavioural-cognitive (Twenge, Baumeister, Tice & Stucke, 2001; Twenge, Baumeister, DeWall, Ciarocco & Bartels, 2007) and emotional changes in human functioning (DeWall & Baumeister, 2006; Twenge, Catanese & Baumaister, 2003). The studies also document the fact that the less effort and engagement an individual puts into seeking ways to be included, appreciated and adjusted, the smaller sense of belongingness he or she can show (Hagerty & Williams, 1999). By experiencing personal involvement in the given system or environment, an individual gets a sense of being its integral part (Hagerty & Patusky, 1995, p. 173). In the studies reported above, the sense of belonging is treated as the psychological equivalent of the sense of being 'socially included'.

At the beginning of the 20th c., Georg Simmel (1964, 2008) developed the concept of 'web of group affiliations' (*Die Kreuzung sozialer*

Kreise). The author has decided that social structure is composed of relationships and connections between individuals and every individual belongs to specific groups which constitute his or her specific reference system. The more such systems, the smaller the likelihood that another individual will exhibit the same pattern of social affiliations (Simmel, 1964, p. 140). This process confirms the uniqueness of every individual, i.e. his or her personal identity and is related to the individuation process (Simmel, 2007, pp. 163–176). An individual's personality is shaped at the point where countless social influences cross — as a product of diverse group affiliations of this individual. The life of any human being is founded on the plurality of group affiliations, which are largely responsible for its complications, bringing in ambiguity, uncertainty and various tensions. Nevertheless, according to Simmel, the process tempers the individual and reinforces the integration of his or her personality (Simmel, 1964, p. 142). In this way, an individual gains a sense of internal cohesion, a bigger awareness in the face of the need to reconcile diverse, sometimes discordant interests of the affiliated groups. Conflicts force the individual to undertake certain internal and external adjustment activities.

It should also be noted that the concept of social belonging fits clearly in the very lively academic trend of *Disability Studies*. The representatives of this academic discipline believe that all barriers (physical and mental alike) are part of human life in its diversity. At the same time, they stress that disability is not an immanent trait of the individual, but rather a product of his or her interactions with the environment and experience of social belonging in various dimensions of life. *Disability Studies* define disability as a social, cultural and political phenomenon (Taylor, Shoults, Walker, 2003). One important goal of activities in this discipline is to reinforce the social position, to improve the quality of life of persons with disabilities and their families as well as to offer them opportunities to participate in all manifestations of social life (Barnes, Oliver, Barton, 2002).

Defining disability in social and cultural contexts, also in the concept of social belonging, is beneficial to the development of the research perspective. It inspires research to identify the significance of persons with disabilities in the society and to explore their potential and personal experience of happiness, hope, good life.

The conducted analyses suggest that it is justified to define the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities* in relation to the theory of social belonging. It both outlines one of the aspects of AOL-PwD and allows to analyse the model more broadly in socio-cultural contexts of the living environment of persons with disabilities.

THE AUTHORSHIP OF OWN LIVES IN PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES EMBEDDED IN THEORY

An overview of the analyses performed so far makes it possible to formulate theses which follow from the construction of the AOL-PwD model and play an important role for further work devoted to the issue of the *authorship of own lives in people with disabilities*.

1. The classical theory of needs by Abraham Maslow provides significant foundation and the leading context for the general explication of the idea of the *authorship of own lives in people with disabilities*.

Maslow's statement quoted in this article validates the assumption that fulfilment of needs of an individual is determined both by diverse determinants of the individual's life room and the course and effects of 'becoming oneself', or acquisition of authorial life features by the person. Therefore, in general, the AOL-PwD concept refers to the development of human needs, stressing the need for self-actualization, which is located, according to Maslow's hierarchical concept, at the top of the needs pyramid.

2. Connections between identity and various dimensions of human functioning make it possible to predict the relationships between these dimensions and the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities*.

The results of empirical analyses point to the existence of relationships between identity and sense of coherence, eudaimonic well-being, self-determination, social belonging as well as self-esteem. The constructed model has made it possible to accept that an individual's identity (identity components and identity process links) is the central, general category for the interpretation of individual aspects of the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities* in respect of the formulation of its characteristics and explication of the course of identity changes which take place over time and under the influence of various circumstances. Referring to this statement, we can assume that the AOL-PwD model can be interpreted in a broader theoretical context, including also the theories of coherence, well-being, self-determination, quality of life and social belonging.

3. Specific aspects of The *authorship of town lives in people with disabilities* can be explained in the light of relevant theories, at the same time noting the flexibility of their interpretation and susceptibility of these aspects to new definitions.

Thus, the aspect of subjectivity of the AOL-PwD model can be interpreted in the context of the sense of coherence theory, the aspect of personal resources — in relation to the theory of well-being, the aspect of autonomy — in relation to the concept of self-determination, the aspect of developmental satisfaction — in relation to the concept of quality of life and the aspect of support — in the light of the theory of social belonging. At the same time, it should be noted that ascribing specific aspects of AOL-PwD arbitrarily to the selected theories does not restrict the possibility of introducing other concepts or showing other connections. The analyses of this article only play a model and systemic role. One can, however, expect that, for example, the theory of well-being (including autonomy, controlling the environment, self-acceptance, positive relationships with others, life goal, personal development), which explains the aspect of personal resources of AOL-PwD, penetrates also other aspects of the *authorship of own lives in people with disabilities*. Thus, it can also explicate the aspect of autonomy, which is interpreted from

the perspective of the theory of self-determination (autonomous behaviour, psychological reinforcement, self-regulation, self-actualization), or the aspect of subjectivity, which is characterised from the perspective of coherence (sense of comprehensibility, resourcefulness, meaningfulness). One should note that just as there are connections between the specific aspects of the *authorship of own lives in people with disabilities*, there are mutual connections between the main ideas, premises and sometimes also components of the main theories which explain the aspects of the AOL–PwD.

4. The *authorship of own lives in people with disabilities* is a comprehensive composition of diverse relationships and dependencies.

There is empirical evidence which points out to the relations between various categories which explain the specific aspects of AOL–PwD. For example, research shows that there are positive relationships between self-determination and self-reliance in life (Martorell, Gutierrez-Rechacha, Pereda, Ayuso-Mateos, 2008; Shogren, Wehmeyer, Palmer, Rifenbark, Little, 2015; Wehmeyer, Palmer, 2003; Wehmeyer, Schwartz, 1997), quality of life and satisfaction (Wehmeyer, Schwartz, 1998; Lachapelle et al., 2005; Nota, Ferrari, Soresi, Wehmeyer, 2007; Shogren, Lopez, Wehmeyer, Little, Pressgrove, 2006; Wehmeyer, Garner, 2003). Furthermore, study results reveal that quality of life level correlates with numerous aspects of functioning of persons with disabilities, including the ability to make choices (Stancliffe, 2001), life status (Wehmeyer, Garner, 2003), sense of well-being (Ruddick, Oliver, 2005), social integration and life satisfaction (Miller, Chan, 2008).

5. The OLA concept refers to the holistic model of defining a person with disability and illustrates comprehensively the specific composition of his or her mental and social condition.

The selected aspects and formulated meaning contexts of the OLA construct outline specific horizons of comprehensive, holistic and systemic definition of the functioning of a person with disability. At the same time, they stress those

dimensions which highlight the affirmative, positive manifestations of his or her life (Głodkowska, 2015; Głodkowska, Pągowska, 2018). In this article, the authors have undertaken a search for connections between OLA and contemporary conceptualisations of disability in terms of a universal human condition, natural variation of humans, personal development and complex contexts which determine individual experience of one's own life authorship. We believe that concept of the *authorship of own lives in people with disabilities* fits well in the space delimited by the theories of coherence, well-being, self-determination, quality of life and social belonging. It should be stressed that in this complex psychological-social space, there are some significant systems of factors which can reinforce but also decrease this sense of authorship of one's own life. In this respect, one can postulate a significant role of the sense of comprehensibility, meaningfulness, sense of well-being and personal thriving, as well as the sense of quality of life, independence, autonomy and beneficial social relationships, including the sense of belonging and participation in complex socio-cultural contexts.

The outlined circular model of AOL–PwD visualises the holistic character of the concept and illustrates a certain comprehensive construction of both the mental and social condition of an individual. It makes it possible to venture analyses on at least three levels: (1) general (personal categories, categories of socio-cultural contexts), (2) category (authorial aspects, identity components, process links), (3) specific (any category included in the detailed description). Such a model structure can inspire researchers to design studies in which AOL–PwD will appear as a humanist concept for diagnosis and rehabilitation within the trend which creates a positive, capable image of a person with disability in the society.

CLOSING REMARKS

The *authorship of own lives in people with disabilities* (AOL–PwD) is a concept related to the humanist, affirmative trend of recognising the disability phenomenon. The concept has been presented for its conceptualisation and strategic

research assumptions. The authors are continuously inspired by the hope that the idea to see disability from the perspective of the *authorship of own lives in people with disabilities* will allow persons with disabilities to see themselves and their life in a different light; not only through the prism of barriers, disorders and shortages, but also — of subjectivity, capability, personal resources, independence, satisfaction after completion of tasks — all of which are important aspects of authorial creation of oneself and one's life. In this article, the authors have undertaken an analysis which is extremely important for the conceptualisation of AOL-PwD — showing the issue in a specific exposition of relationships with the theories of coherence, well-being, self-determination, quality of life, social belonging. The analyses and interpretations performed in this article shall define the future complex research into the identification of AOL-PwD and its determinants.

The concept of *authorship of own lives in people with disabilities* fits in the trend of normalisation of lives of people with disabilities, which began a new perception of such people and their place in the social world. We believe that the concept of *authorship of own lives in people with disabilities* (AOL-PwD), consistently implemented and developed, will create an inspiring theoretical-empirical space for multi-dimensional exploration of the disability phenomenon in the normalisation-oriented, humanist and affirmative perspectives.

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COOPERATIVE LEARNING IN DEVELOPING POSITIVE ATTITUDES AND REFLECTIVE THINKING SKILLS OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS' IN ENGLISH COURSE

Abstract: The purpose of the study is to reveal the effect of cooperative learning on the attitudes and reflective thinking skills of the students' in English course. The study was carried out for 5 weeks with 66 students studying at the 10th grade at an Anatolian high school in the district of Karadeniz Ereğli in Zonguldak during the fall term of the 2015-2016 academic year. The design of the study was 'nonequivalent control groups pre-test post-test' which is one of quasi-experimental designs. The scale of attitude towards English course and the scale of reflective thinking were used as instruments of the study which were applied as a pre-test and as a post-test. According to the results, it was concluded that cooperative learning is significantly and positively more effective on students' attitudes and reflective thinking skills than traditional method. This study was produced from master thesis of written by first author under the supervision of second author.

Keywords: cooperative learning, attitude, reflective thinking, English course, high school

Özlem Kuuk, MA

Bulent Ecevit University
Zonguldak
Turkey

Contact:

E-mail: yavuzkuukozlem@gmail.com
ORCID: 0000-0002-2149-5474

Ali Arslan, PhD

Associate Professor
Bulent Ecevit University,
Zonguldak,
Turkey

Contact:

E-mail: aliarslan.beun@gmail.com
ORCID: 0000-0002-3707-0892

INTRODUCTION

In present age, individuals who internalize, adapt and keep up with technological and scientific developments are more required than the ones who adopt and consume ready-made information as it is presented to them. Independent, creative, self-confident individuals who are able to choose the resources they need in an appropriate way and solve the problem with scientific methods play an active role in contemporary society. Raising individuals with these kind of qualities is made possible by the constant development of teaching methods. For this reason, the changes made in the educational systems show a progress from traditional teaching methods to contemporary approaches.

Learning is realized through active participation in the learning process, such as defending, hypothesizing, interrogating and sharing ideas. According to Crystal (1988), interaction requires collaboration and interaction with each other is very important (Perkins, 1999). Wilson (1997) indicated that strategies used in constructivist learning are the ones in which learners are active and learn by living such as; drama, projects, learning by designing, learning by teaching and learning by collaboration. An individual becomes more successful by being active in the learning process and by learning how to learn and how to solve the problems by the help of the previous knowledge (Steinert, 2004). In such a constructivist environment, students learn from each other, draw conclusions, make inferences and convey messages in a collaborative learning environment (Prawal, 1999). The studies carried out recently reveal that curriculum, which is based on the constructivist approach and cooperative learning model, is more effective in learning in all fields. In cooperative learning models, students work in small groups and help each other learn, which encourages students to get more motivated and improve their social skills as well. In other words, the work carried out with small groups increases academic achievement as well as social relations (Hancock, 2004).

Working in groups makes it easier to reach the goals and it has a greater power on the learners as well. The actions taken together reveals more

effective products than the ones performed by the individual himself. Thus, educational scientists have long been focused on the influence of collaboration in the educational process and have emphasized cooperation in group work in order to strengthen the individual's learning process and increase his /her success (Johnson & Johnson, 1999: 13).

Cooperative learning is a way of teaching in which small groups work to help each other so that they can gain academic knowledge (Slavin, 1995: 2). Johnson and Johnson (1995: 5) define cooperative learning as a teaching method in which students work collaboratively to maximize the learning of both their own and the other members of the group. According to Artzt and Newman (1990) cooperative learning is defined as an activity consisting of small learning groups that come together to solve the problem, to complete the task and to achieve a common goal. In such an activity, the teacher sets learning goals, gives directions about the work to be done and guides when necessary. The main goal of cooperative learning is to make the students active and encourage them to learn from each other. Since individuals can learn more easily while interacting with someone who knows the subject better than them (Hines, 2008).

In cooperative learning process, the members of the group organize their own learning processes by specifying their ideas, discussing about the problems and suggesting new solutions. They also develop social skills, such as taking responsibility, taking on different roles, accepting differences in heterogeneous groups, and sharing rewards throughout all the activities they perform in the group. Hence, not only their self-esteem develops but they learn to benefit from the differences of other individuals as well. In addition to enhancing the motivation of individuals to learn, the activities contribute to the development of a positive attitude towards the course and the school (Ekinçi, 2011).

Cooperative learning differs from traditional group work in that achievement of each member of the group determines the group achievement as a whole (Johnson & Johnson, 1999). In other words, each member acts as information source and support and help each other to reach the

common goal. This kind of cooperation provides positive interdependence and individual accountability for learners, since all individual members strive for the mutual goal and effort of the each member is crucial for the total achievement (Crandall, 1999). During the task, group assignments are divided into individual responsibilities and each member is assigned a different role, but to have more effective performance and for effective acquisition of knowledge, individuals should have face-to-face group interaction (Felder and Brent, 1994). To perform effectively in a group, each member should recognize, adapt and support each other. The communication between them must be clear and they must solve the problems in a constructive way. As stated by Slavin (1990), in order to reach the goal of the activities based on cooperative learning, students should be given small group skills and taught how interpersonal relations should be. By this way, individuals can learn to be a part of a group. Besides, studying in a group in a harmonious way can help individuals who are weak in terms of social skills work in a more productive and outgoing manner.

The success of a group is determined by how effectively the group works. In order to improve the functions of the members in group activities, learners need to evaluate their performance and experience, which behaviour is beneficial or not, whose contribution needs appraising, whether the communication level is adequate or not to reach the goal. This kind of group process contributes to the learning of social skills of students and assists the development of cooperative learning skills (Johnson and Johnson, 1999). As Kern et al. (2007) asserts group process also allows students to think on cognitive level as well as on metacognitive level.

COOPERATIVE LEARNING IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Although there have been considerable changes in the field of language teaching all over the world during the past fifty years, traditional methods in which students just memorize the rules and internalize the morphology and syntax of the target language are still being used in most parts

of the world (Zhang, 2010). Instead of using communicative ability in groups, discourse is generally realized between teacher and the student or rather than being an active participant, students are accepted as passive recipients drawing information just from the books or the teacher (Prawal, 1999).

Generally, students feel high level of anxiety during the foreign language acquisition which can debilitate both learning and achievement as well (Gardner, Smythe, & Lalonde, 1984, Young, 1991, Aida, 1994). As the students do not use their native language which is a tool to convey ideas, ask for help and express themselves better, they feel (precluded) handicapped in foreign learning process. So, anxiety has a crucial impact on inhibiting students' achievement. That is why cooperative learning can be applied as a means of changing the attitudes of the students during the activities. Since, the method helps the individuals alleviate the anxiety and learn from each other in a less threatening environment (Slavin, 1991). Learning in small and cooperative groups may enhance motivation to learn and change the beliefs and attitudes of the students about language acquisition if they feel secure to express themselves in their peer groups (Johnson, Johnson & Holubec, 1990).

In order to provide effective language learning, students should be given more opportunities to construct social interaction in the target language. In terms of its nature, cooperative learning has communicative function which provides authentic context where students listen to each other, ask and answer questions, comprehend language from various sources and get feedback from their peers (Ellis, 1999). Moreover, it helps the teacher to create student-centered atmosphere in which he/ she can observe the learners' weaknesses and strengths, their learning styles and the difficulties they have to overcome in the learning process (Sharan, 1994).

While dealing with the cooperative activities, each member of the group has the opportunity to interact in the target language. As Richards & Rodgers (2001, p. 193) states that "cooperative learning gives the learners opportunity of the naturalistic second language acquisition, internalizing the lexical items and daily speech

structures by means of interactive tasks and enhancing motivation by reducing stress in an positive learning environment.

ATTITUDE IN LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Language acquisition is realized by the development of communicative competence, comprehending and conveying the messages and taking the rules of the grammar and the “cultural references” into account (Savignon, 1997). The willingness, interests, the level of anxiety of the individual in the interaction process determines how effectively the language is internalized. So, motivation, desire to learn, of an individual plays a crucial role in language acquisition. As Gardner and Lambert (1972) indicated that motivation to learn a second language creates positive attitude toward the target language and its culture and attitudes then become the milestone of motivation itself. Motivation can be affected by many factors. The task, the learning environment, group dynamics, as well as partner's effort can determine and affect the learners' motivation and attitude towards learning (Dörnyei, 2002). Thus, it is vital for the teachers to create a learning environment in which the students defend ideas, construct hypothesis, ask question, share ideas and encourage group cohesion as interaction between learners is quite essential in language learning (Kauchak & Eggen, 2003). When the interaction proceeds, rate of the language acquisition increases as well (Mackey, 1999).

As Kessler (1992) suggests, cooperative learning particularly in language learning context means that grouping the students of different levels of second language competence and encourage them to work together and benefit from each other by sharing their interactive experience. So, the method helps the good student tutor the weaker ones. Some students may feel isolated because of their low ability to learn the language while implementing individual tasks in the traditional instruction of the course. So, being in teams may stimulate them to speak out and feel more comfortable in small groups, which gives them the sense of self-confidence. On the other hand, while supporting the weaker students, the ones more competent can feel proud of themselves,

which leads them to develop positive attitude towards the course (Wichadee, 2005).

REFLECTIVE THINKING

Reflective thinking is the part of the critical thinking process of analyzing and evaluating decisions and it focuses on the judging process. Students know how to learn in the learning process, and they can combine reflection with thought. Students are aware of what they know and what they need to know. Reflective thinking, however, is crucial to encourage learning in solving the complex problems. This is because reflective thinking makes it possible for students to make a retrospective criticality, to involve in problem solving processes and to determine their attainment strategies (Koszalka, 1999).

Reflective thinking is defined in different ways. Boud, Keogh, and Walker (1985) describe reflective thinking as "reflection in the context of learning is a general term for intellectual and emotional activities that individuals engage in discovering new understanding and experience". Boud (1999) defines reflective thinking as an act of thinking about the learning process, rather than insisting on the necessity of learning of the students. Reflective learning is concerned with the students' understanding of their actions, their learning processes and experiences (Mann et al., 2009). Reflective thinking means that any belief or form of knowledge should be considered in an effective, persistent and careful manner and the teachers should organize the learning process on the basis of research and constructivism. In order to achieve this, the primary goal of the teachers should be to focus on teaching learning with the limited opportunities available within the classroom (Dervent, 2015).

Reflective thinking learning approach provides the learners with raising awareness about how to learn and how to improve their own abilities. Thus, the method creates an environment in which the students can take personal responsibilities of their own learning (Tilley et al., 2017). Reflective thinking is seen as an important component of education in practice, and many studies in literature have argued that reflective processes are necessary for the quality of learning (Barab and

Duffy, 1999, Lin, et al., 1999, Shon, 1987.) Since, in order to be able to perform a high-quality learning experience, the learners must be effectively aware of their own learning process. Reflective thinking is an ongoing critique systematic, and planned actions. In this context, by including self-evaluation and personal development items, it supports lifelong learning (Dervent, 2015).

The guiding role of teachers is very important in the application of reflective method in classroom environment. In this method, as the teachers use their own lives and experiences in their classes, they are accepted as the valuable sources of information. Likewise, it is very important for their students to reflect their knowledge, thoughts and experiences in the process of learning. Reflective thinking helps students become more aware of their own learning when they are faced with an astonishing problem. The steps to be followed include choosing the appropriate strategies to explore the question, identifying ways to create the information needed to solve the problem, and presenting an offer for the solution. Teachers should pay attention to the following steps in the lesson plan: asking the questions to the students clearly, contributing to ideas and activities to support the students' evaluations, asking sub questions to help the students think, encouraging the students to watch and re-evaluate the learning outcomes, preparing reflective worksheet encourage to the students to think over their progress (Koszalka, 1999).

In conclusion, it is necessary to expose the students to reflective learning experiences for the development of the reflective capacities of the students. Besides, the activities to be carried out should be organized in a way by means of which the students can make their own assessments of their learning and performances (Schon, 1987). Students are responsible for the completion of the activities carried out with both the individual and the group, when a cooperative learning model is applied. During this stage, the individual is responsible both for his or her own learning responsibilities, as well as for the success of the group.

Cooperative learning methods such as Jigsaw, Student Teams-Achievement Divisions Learning

Together, Cooperative Integrated Reading & Composition and Group Investigation can be applied in language classes to teach all skills (Shaaban & Ghaith, 2005). Studies conducted to determine the effect of cooperative learning on language learning shows that the method has positive effect on teaching language skills. Morley (2001) and Pinkeaw (1993) revealed that interaction facilitated both listening and speaking skills of the students. (Klinger & Vaughn, 2000; Readence, Moore & Rickelman, 2000; Hadyan, 2013; Khan and Ahmad, 2014) found that cooperative learning methods had positive effect on teaching reading skills. Murray (1992) suggested that the method supported the writing skills of the students. Meteetum (2001) investigated the effect of jigsaw technique on grammar competence and revealed that the technique developed the social skills and personal qualities of the students as well. In addition, during interaction, students' use of linguistic features and grammar competence enhanced. As is seen, cooperative learning method is an effective way of enhancing language skills as a whole but it helps the learners criticize his/ her learning process, change their attitudes towards language learning and enhance their motivation as well. Cooperative learning provide the learners with the chance of peer- tutoring and peer-monitoring, which allows them to evaluate their own learning and manage the learning process (Hertz-Lazarowitz, 1992).

Although there has been some research about students' towards cooperative learning on different subjects, there are limited studies on students' critical thinking skills and attitudes cooperative learning in a foreign language. That is why studying on the attitudes of students to cooperative learning and to what extent the method contributes to the students' critical skills can shed light on the effectiveness of the method in foreign language instruction. Although conducted on various subjects, cooperative learning in language teaching is an area of inquiry which should be developed. So, in order to realise the benefits and the drawbacks of the method, further studies should be exploited on foreign language teaching and learning in many aspects. Besides evaluating the effect of the cooperative learning on achievement, it is crucial to assess the

effect of cooperative learning on attitude and critical thinking skills of the students towards language learning. Since, achievement, anxiety, self-confidence, and motivation may be directly related to attitudes.

METHODS

DESIGN

The study employed “non-equivalent control group pre-test and post-test design” which is one of the quasi-experimental designs to identify the effect of cooperative learning on the attitudes and reflective thinking skills of the students’ in English courses. In this model, two groups of the existing groups are matched according to pre-tests and randomly assigned (Büyüköztürk et.al., 2014). One group was designated as the experimental, and the other one was utilized as the control group. During the courses, while a cooperative learning is applied in the experimental group; a traditional method was performed in the control group. The scale of attitude towards English course and the scale of reflective thinking were applied as pre-test and post-test in both groups.

PARTICIPANTS

This study was conducted on 66 students attending two different classes of the 10th grade of an Anatolian High School in the 2015-2016 spring term in Zonguldak Province. While the courses were instructed by using the traditional teaching method with the control group (N=33), “the Present Perfect Tense” grammar subject was taught to the experimental group (N=33) by means of Cooperative Learning-Learning Together technique. In order to determine whether both groups were equal or not, the scale of attitude towards English courses and the scale of reflective thinking were applied as pre-test. The scale of attitude towards English lessons pre-test indicated that there was no significant differences ($t_{(52)}:1,591$; $p>0,05$) between the experimental group students’ pre-test scores ($M = 3,98$; $SD=0,47$) and the control group students’ pre-test scores ($M = 3,77$; $SD=0,49$). According to the scale of reflective thinking pre-test results, there

was no significant differences ($t_{(64)}:1,325$; $p>0,05$) between the experimental group students’ pre-test scores ($M = 3,42$; $SD=0,54$) and the control group students’ pre-test scores ($M = 3,25$; $SD=0,50$) as well.

INSTRUMENTS

THE SCALE OF ATTITUDE TOWARDS ENGLISH LESSONS

The scale was developed by Anbarlı Kırkız (2010). It is composed of 20 items and 3 sub-dimensions. The first factor representing the beliefs about “general characteristics” consists of 11 items, the second factor “interest in the subject of the English course” contains 5 items and the third factor “the teaching style of the teacher” is composed of 4 items. The participants were asked to rate each statement on a 5-point scale from “Absolutely Disagree (1) to Absolutely Agree (5).” The scale consists of three factors explaining the total variance of 50,33%, and the factor load varied between 0,34 and 0,71. The first factor accounts for 25,70% of total variance, the second factor; 13,90% and the third factor; 10,73%. Cronbach’s alpha was found to be 0,93. In this study, internal consistency of the sub-dimensions of the scale were found as 0,89; 0,87; 0,78. The internal consistency coefficient for the whole scale was found to be 0,91.

REFLECTIVE THINKING SCALE

The scale was used as an other instrument to evaluate the reflective thinking skills of the students towards English courses. The scale which was developed by Başol and Evin Gencil (2013) is a 5-point likert type consisting of (I strongly agree - I absolutely disagree) including 4 sub-dimensions (habit, comprehension, reflection and critical reflection) and 16 items. The internal consistency coefficient for the whole scale is 0,77. In this study, reliability values for (n= 66) of subdimensions of the scale were 0,65; 0,72; 0,54; 0,41 and the internal consistency coefficient for the scale was 0,78. Comprehension and habit sub-dimensions were not included in the assessment because of their low reliability.

PROCESS

The aim of this study was to reveal the effect of cooperative learning on the attitudes and reflective thinking skills of the students' in English course. Learning together technique was applied in the experimental group while the control group was taught in the traditional method as suggested in the curriculum. The scale of attitude towards English lessons and the scale of reflective thinking were conducted as a pre-test on both groups.

Before the experiment, cooperative learning and learning together method were explained to the students in the experimental group. The students were divided into 6 groups. The groups were formed heterogeneously. In order to be able to create team spirit and provide positive interdependence, each group is required to identify a name, logo and a slogan that represents them.

At the end of each course, the groups completed the group assessment and individual assessment forms throughout the implementation process. At the same time, each student wrote their own diary and made assessments for both individual and group.

The diaries are written in such a way that the diaries are aimed at assessing the performances of the students in all the activities and the points in which they need progress or doing well. For this reason, student diaries are an important resource for assessing students' own learning processes. At the end of the study, the same "The scale of attitude towards English lessons and the scale of reflective thinking" were conducted as a post test on both groups.

ANALYSIS

Analyses were conducted with SPSS 20.0 software. In order to determine whether the data were normally distributed or not, Kolmogorov Smirnov test was applied.

A normal distribution of achievement scores was identified both for the experimental and the control group. Thus, the analyses were conducted via parametric t-test. Test and control group measurements were analyzed using a paired samples t- test and ANCOVA statistics. The statistics used to compare the means of the groups reveal whether there is a significant difference or not. Yet, they do not put forward the exact effect size. Moreover, test results do not provide information on how much of the total variance observed in the scores of the dependent variable results from the independent variable. For this, the size of the statistical significance must be known (Buyukozturk et.al., 2014). That is why in this study, as a measure of effect size eta square (η^2) was utilized to be able to comment on how much of the variance in the test scores is dependent on the independent variable or group variable.

Considering the eta square (η^2) indexes, 0,01 is considered to have a small, 0,06 a moderate and 0,14 a large effect (Green & Salkind, 2005; Buyukozturk et.al., 2014).

FINDINGS

In order to calculate whether there is a significant difference or not of cooperative learning on the attitudes of the students' paired sample t-test for the pre-test and post-test scores of the students in the experimental and control groups was employed. Moreover, covariance analysis method was performed for comparison of experimental and control groups. In order to determine the effect size of difference the eta square (η^2) was calculated.

Table 1. Paired Samples t test of Attitude

	Experimental						Control				
	Test	M	SD	t	p	η^2	M	SD	t	p	η^2
General characteristics	Pre-test	3,80	0,66	2,86*	0,00	0,23	3,53	0,68	0,00	1,00	-
	Post-test	4,24	0,28				3,53	0,76			
Interest in English course	Pre-test	3,51	0,29	6,17*	0,00	0,59	3,68	0,79	0,821	0,49	-
	Post-test	4,56	0,34				3,53	0,91			
Teaching style of the teacher	Pre-test	4,12	0,34	4,76*	0,00	0,47	4,10	0,48	0,564	0,57	-
	Post-test	3,70	0,31				4,02	0,67			
General	Pre-test	3,98	0,47	1,74	0,09	-	3,77	0,49	0,61	0,54	-
	Post-test	4,17	0,25				3,69	0,69			

*p<0,05

Table 2. ANCOVA Results of Attitude

	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	Partial η^2
General Characteristics	Pre-test	2,064	1	2,064	6,81	0,12	0,11
	Group	5,188	1	17,137	6	0,000*	0,25
	Error	15,439	51	0,303			
	Total	24,381	53				
Interest in English course	Pre-test	1,585	1	1,585	3,61	0,06	0,06
	Group	15,178	1	15,178	34,65	0,000*	0,40
	Error	22,338	51	0,438			
	Total	38,235	53				
Teaching style of the teacher	Pre-test	0,985	1	0,985	0,05	0,06	-
	Group	1,471	1	1,471	0,02	0,09	-
	Error	13,311	51	0,261			
	Total	15,714	53				
General	Pre-test	1,277	1	1,277	4,98	0,03	0,08
	Group	2,147	1	1,247	8,37	0,00*	0,14
	Error	13,071	51	0,256			
	Total	17,410	53				

*p<0,05

GENERAL CHARACTERISTIC

The scale of attitude towards English lessons applied before the experiment was given to both groups of students after the experiment to see whether the intervention caused changes in using learning together technique. When “general characteristics” factor of the attitude test results were analyzed, it was found that there was a significant difference between pre-tests and post-tests in favor of post-test of experimental group ($t_{(27)}=2,86$; $p<0,05$; $\eta^2=0,23$). On the contrary, there was not significant difference between pre-test and post-test means of control group ($t_{(27)}=0,00$; $p>0,05$). These values suggest that cooperative learning method had a large effect on

the attitudes of the high school students towards the general characteristics of the course. At the same time, the results indicated that cooperative learning increased the attitudes of the high school students towards the general characteristics of the course at the ratio of 22% while traditional instruction did not have a positive effect on the attitudes of the high school students towards the general characteristics of the course. ANCOVA analysis method was conducted for comparing post-tests of the two groups. When the attitude pre-test points related with the “general characteristics” were controlled, attitude post-test means of experimental group students was significantly higher than attitude post-test means of control group students ($F_{(1,51)}=17,137$ $p<0,05$; $\eta^2=0,25$). Eta square values indicate cooperative

learning has a large effect on increasing the attitudes of the students related with the the “general characteristics” of the course compared to traditional instruction. At the same time, this eta square value implies that cooperative learning predicts 25% of general characteristics means.

INTEREST IN ENGLISH COURSE

The attitudes of the students related with “Interest in English course” pre-test and post-test scores of experimental and control group students were compared with paired samples t test. Analysis showed that there was a significant difference between “Interest in English Course” pre-tests and post-tests in favor of post-test of experimental group ($t_{(27)}=6,17$; $p<0,05$; $\eta^2=0,59$). On the contrary, there was not significant difference between pre-test and post test means of control group ($t_{(27)}=0,821$; $p>0,05$). These values suggest that cooperative learning method had a large effect on the attitudes of the high school students in terms of their interest in English Course.

Besides, it can be said that cooperative learning increased the attitudes of the high school students towards their interest in English Course at the ratio of 59% while traditional instruction did not have a positive effect on the interest of the high school students towards English Course. ANCOVA analysis method was conducted for comparing post-tests of the two groups. When the attitude pre-test points related with the “Interest in English Course” were controlled, attitude post-test means of experimental group students was significantly higher than attitude post-test means of control group students ($F_{(1,51)}= 15,178$ $p<0,05$; $\eta^2=0,40$). Eta square values indicate cooperative learning has a large effect on increasing the attitudes of the students related with the interest of the high school students towards English course compared to traditional instruction. At the same time, this eta square value implies that cooperative learning predicts 40% of interest in English Course means compared to traditional instruction

TEACHING STYLE OF THE TEACHER

The third sub-dimension of the attitude test was “Teaching Style of the Teacher” of which pre-test and post-test scores of experimental and control group students were compared with paired samples t test. According to the analysis results, there was a significant difference between pre-tests and post-tests in favor of pre-test of experimental group ($t_{(27)}=4,76$; $p<0,05$; $\eta^2=0,47$). On the contrary, there was not significant difference between pre-test and post-test means of control group ($t_{(27)}=5,61$; $p>0,05$). These findings indicate that cooperative learning method had a large negative effect on the attitudes of the high school students towards the teaching style of the teacher. Eta square value of this sub-dimension was found as ($\eta^2=0,47$) which means cooperative learning has 47% negative effect on the attitudes of the students about teaching style of the teacher when pre-test score results of the experimental group controlled. ANCOVA analysis method was conducted for comparing post-tests of the two groups. When the “Teaching Style of the Teacher” pre-test points were controlled, the results indicate that there is no significant difference between the post-test means of both groups ($F_{(1,51)}= 0,02$; $p>0,05$). Thus, it indicates that cooperative learning does not have a positive effect on the attitudes of the course of the students related with the teaching style compared to traditional education.

GENERAL

When total points of the attitude scale are taken into account, the results indicate that there is a significant difference in favor of the experimental group between the post-test means of both groups when the pre-test means were controlled ($F_{(1,51)}= 8,3$ $p<0,05$). Eta square value ($\eta^2=0,14$) shows that cooperative learning increased the attitudes of the students at the ratio of 14% when compared with the control group which means the technique had a large effect on attitudes of the students towards English Course.

In this study, the effect of cooperative learning on the reflective skills of the students was examined as well. The findings were presented on the table 3 and 4.

Table 3. Paired Samples t-test for Reflective Thinking Skills

	Experimental						Control				
	Test	M	SD	t	p	η^2	M	SD	t	p	η^2
Reflection	Pre-test	3,77	0,70	1,03	0,30	-	3,62	0,64	1,22	0,22	-
	Post-test	3,94	0,48				3,43	0,81			
Critical Reflection	Pre-test	3,07	0,64	3,66	0,00*	0,30	2,88	0,63	1,31	0,19	-
	Post-test	3,65	0,61				2,65	0,87			
General	Pre-test	3,42	0,54	2,64	0,01*	0,18	3,25	0,50	1,49	1,44	-
	Post-test	3,79	0,45				3,04	0,79			

*p<0,05

Table 4. ANCOVA Results for Reflective Thinking Skills

	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P	Partial η^2
Reflection	Pre-test	0,071	1	0,71	0,156	0,69	0,00
	Group	4,198	1	4,198	9,22	0,00*	0,12
	Error	28,683	63	0,455			
	Total	33,133	65				
Critical Reflection	Pre-test	0,101	1	0,101	0,174	0,67	0,00
	Group	15,758	1	15,758	27,19	0,00*	0,30
	Error	36,509	63	0,580			
	Total	53,11	65				
General of Reflection Skills Scale	Pre-test	0,050	1	0,050	0,117	0,218	0,02
	Group	8,998	1	8,998	21,240	0,00*	0,25
	Error	26,688	63	0,424			
	Total	36,207	65				

*p<0,05

The scale of reflective thinking skills towards English lessons applied before the experiment was given to both groups of students after the experiment to see whether the intervention caused changes in using learning together technique.

REFLECTION

The “reflection” pre-test and post-test scores of experimental and control group students were compared with paired samples t test. The results in the table 4 showed that there was not a significant difference between pre-tests and post-tests of experimental group ($t_{(32)}=1,03$; $p>0,05$) and of control group ($t_{(32)}=1,22$; $p>0,05$) in terms of “reflection” sub-dimension. These findings indicate that cooperative learning method does not have a positive effect on the reflection skills of the students. However, according to ANCOVA analysis results, when the reflection pre-test points of both groups were controlled, “reflection” post-test means of experimental group students was significantly higher than reflection post-test means of control group students ($F_{(1,63)}= 9,22$; $p<0,05$; $\eta^2=0,12$). Eta

square values indicate cooperative learning has large effect on the reflection skills of the students compared to traditional instruction. In addition, this eta square value implies that cooperative learning has contributed to the reflection skills of the students at ratio of 12% more than that of the traditional instruction.

CRITICAL REFLECTION

“Critical reflection”, the second sub-dimension of the “Reflective Thinking Scale” indicate that there existed significant difference between pre-tests and post-tests in favor of post-test of experimental group ($t_{(32)}=3,66$; $p<0,05$; $\eta^2=0,30$) On the contrary, there was not significant difference between pre-test and post-test means of control group ($t_{(32)}=1,31$; $p>0,05$). These values suggest that cooperative learning method had a large effect on the reflection skills of the high school students. ANCOVA analysis method was conducted to compare post-tests of two groups. When the “critical reflection” pre-test points were controlled, the results indicate that there is a significant difference between the post-test means

of both groups in favor of the post-test means of the experimental group ($F_{(1,63)}=27,19$ $p<0,05$; $\eta^2=0,30$). This eta square value implies that cooperative learning has contributed to critical reflection skills of the students at a ratio of 30% more than that of the traditional instruction.

GENERAL

When total points of the “Reflective Thinking Scale”, the results indicate that there is a significant difference in favor of the experimental group between the post-test means of both groups when the pre-test means were controlled ($F_{(1,63)}=21,24$ $p<0,05$). Eta square value ($\eta^2=0,25$) shows that cooperative learning increased the reflective thinking skills of the students at the ratio of 25% when compared with the control group which means the technique had a large effect on the reflective skills of the students towards English Course.

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

Considering the progressive language teaching methods, cooperative learning possesses noteworthy advantages in terms of attitudes and reflective thinking skills of the students towards language learning. The aim of this study was to investigate the effects of cooperative learning activities on the attitudes and reflective thinking skills of the students’ in English course.

It was concluded that cooperative learning has a large effect on the attitudes towards English course in terms of “general characteristics and interest” sub-dimension when compared with traditional instruction. An effective language acquisition is realized through cooperatively organized interactive activities. By this way, it is possible to break down the stereotype instruction techniques and let the students act in a democratic and independent way (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Hence, it is crucial that cooperative learning should be integrated in language classrooms as it provides students various authentic language learning environment and encourage students to use target language more often than the traditional activities. Hossain and Tarmizi (2013) found that cooperative learning

had significant effects on attitudes towards mathematics. Bilgin (2009) aimed to investigate the effects of guided inquiry instruction incorporating with cooperative learning environment on University students’ achievement of acid and bases concepts and attitude toward guided inquiry instruction. He revealed that both the achievement and attitude levels of the students were promoted through the cooperative tasks which shows that positive attitude can also decrease anxiety and enhance achievement.

Similarly, in his study Wichadee (2005) found that cooperative learning had a significant impact on the students’ attitudes towards English. Sittilert (1994) investigated the effects of Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC) on English reading comprehension and the opinions towards classroom atmosphere. According to the results, the method helped the low achievement students enhance their ability and they developed positive attitude towards classroom atmosphere. Meteetum (2001) who conducted a case study research on cooperative learning by using the jigsaw technique with nine second-year English major students at Naresuan University aimed to study on the use of linguistic features in interaction and the attitudes of the students. The results showed that in addition to the improvement in achievement of the students, they demonstrated positive attitude towards cooperative learning. The same kind of results towards cooperative learning in language acquisition were obtained by those of (Somapee, 2002; Seetape, 2003; Farzaneh & Nejadansari, 2014) as the positive perception of the learning environment affects the learners’ attitude. Otherwise; Nam (2008) investigated the effectiveness of positive interdependence and group processing on student achievement, interaction, and attitude in online cooperative learning. The results of this study suggested that neither of the techniques did not have influence on students’ attitude in online cooperative learning environments.

The second finding of the study indicated that reflective thinking based on cooperative learning had a medium effect on reflection skills and large effect on critical reflection skills when compared

with traditional teaching. In order to help students gain reflective thinking skills strategies, a curriculum designed to promote students' ability to reflect, teachers having reflective thinking skills, course contents supporting students and a democratic and collaborative classroom environment encouraging scientific thinking of the students are vitally required (Sünbül, 2010). New instructional methods focus on the cooperative learning and development of critical thinking of the students. So, many studies have been conducted to investigate the reflective thinking skills of the students, pre-service teachers and teachers (Şanal, 2006; Kozan, 2007; Ersözlü, 2008; Meral, 2009; Şahin, 2009; Demiralp, 2010; Karadağ, 2010; Durdukoca & Demir, 2012). However, there has been lack of research to determine influence of reflective thinking skills incorporated with cooperative learning especially in language acquisition.

Baloche (1998) revealed that utilizing cooperative learning activities enhanced the management skills of the students. Since, they arranged their tasks regarding the planned schedule and time and they dealt with the problems they faced in a respective manner. Baş and Beyhan (2012) investigated the effect of reflective thinking skills of the students in English course and they revealed that reflective thinking skills promoted the achievement of the students. Evan's (2009) research demonstrates a parallel result that reflective thinking enhances achievement and retention. McCrindle and Christensen (1995) studied the effect of learning diaries on cognition, meta-cognition and learning performance. They found that the students keeping diaries showed greater performance as writing diaries help students to think over their performances and learning strategies. In this study, the students kept reflective diaries and they demonstrated the researchers that these learning diaries give the students the chance of self- evaluation, analyze and synthesize the performance of their own and the group.

As this study suggests, cooperative learning can be an effective way to promote positive attitude towards second language acquisition and it can support the reflective skills of the students as well.

Further studies can be conducted to evaluate the attitudes of the teachers' towards cooperative learning. If the study is applied by using qualitative techniques, it can be possible to get more information about how to arrange effective cooperative environment and how to tackle with the problems during the implementation process according to which teachers can offer more student-centered atmosphere. Besides, evaluating attitude and reflective thinking skills requires longer implementation and observation period. This study was conducted for 5 weeks. So, in order to assess the retention of the knowledge, the experiment should extend over a longer period of time.

On the whole, the findings of this study have shown a large effect on the attitudes and the reflective thinking skills of the students towards English. Therefore, cooperative learning can be successfully used to improve the students' attitudes towards English Course in a positive way and help them raise their awareness about how to learn and how to improve their own abilities in different disciplines. That is why, future studies should focus on the longitudinal study of cooperative learning on motivation, attitude and reflective thinking skills in English courses.

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THE EFFECT OF SELF-REGULATED LEARNING STRATEGIES ON DEVELOPING CREATIVE PROBLEM SOLVING AND ACADEMIC SELF-EFFICACY AMONG INTELLECTUALLY SUPERIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

Abstract: This study aims to investigate the effect of a self-regulated learning strategies on developing creative problem solving and academic self-efficacy among intellectually superior high school students. The sample was selected from students in the high school in the Sultanate of Oman. The participants in this study were 80 students. Experimental group (EG) consisted of 40 students while the control group (CG) consisted of 40 students. An experimental pretest and posttest control-group design was used in this study. The self-regulated learning strategies was conducted to the whole class by their actual teacher during the actual lesson period for 12 weeks with 50-minute sessions conducted three times a week. The program was designed based on the three basic fundamentals of self-regulated learning strategies, namely 'cognitive, metacognitive and resource management strategies. The results of this study indicated great gains for students in the experimental group in creative problem solving and academic self-efficacy. The study shows that students in the experimental group, compared to those in the control group, develop robust creative problem solving and academic self-efficacy. Recommendation: As self-regulated learning strategies exhibit a substantial effect on students' creative problem solving and academic self-efficacy, it is recommended that teachers should learn how to implement these strategies in their lessons to increase their students' performance.

Keywords: self-regulated learning strategies, creative problem solving, academic self-efficacy

Adel M. ElAdl, PhD

Full Professor

Zagazeg University

Sultane Qaboos Universities

Egypt, Oman

Contact:

E-mail: eladladel5@gmail.com

ORCID: 0000-0002-9246-3744

Yousra S. Polpol

Zagazeg University

Egypt

Contact:

E-mail: yousra_shaban@yahoo.com

ORCID: 0000-0002-8597-8600

INTRODUCTION

Novel and adaptive thinking requires creativity, as it involves proficiency at thinking and coming up with solutions and responses beyond that which is rote or rule-based (Davies, Fidler and Gorbis, 2011:9). As such creativity is a crucial graduate attribute relevant for problem-solving, generating novel solutions, innovation (Baker and Baker, 2012) and leading teams. Well-known creativity scholar Amabile (1996) views creativity is a multi-dimensional concept and an innate ability that everyone is born with, yet can be enhanced through educational interventions. While individual creativity provides the basis for team and enterprise innovation (Hirst et al., 2009); developing creativity in teams can be challenging (Walton, 2003). Too often business education tends to overemphasise individual linear, rational skills embedded in the scientific paradigm (Hoover et al., 2010) at the expense of intuition and team creative skills. It was found that students with high academic performance are usually self-regulated learners (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1995), since findings show that compared to students with low academic performance, they set more specific learning goals, use more learning strategies, self-monitor their own learning and assess their progress toward a goal in a more systematic manner (Pint rich & Sushi, 2002).

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Educators face the problem of creating a cognitive add metacognitive classroom where all students are engaged and active. Though overwhelming amount of considerations have emerged from current cognitive add metacognitive research, not all educators all over the world in general, and in our Arab world in particular, are aware of the findings of these studies. In such a case, an unbalanced prospect for teachers to provide maximal learning opportunities for all students prevails and is created. Accordingly, there will be an urgent need to create positive emotional connections to learning so that long-term learning can be transferred easily and successfully to the real-world. If students feel unsafe, stressed, or are experiencing a low-cycle of activity learning becomes impossible and they may hate the

learning process as a whole and drop out. Conventional methods might be problematic and no longer is beneficial to students. Students, as Schunk & Zimmerman (1995). claims, on average, retain only five percent of information delivered through lecture twenty-four hours later. Teachers try to do the teaching without considering whether the learners are motivated or not. Hence, employing methods that are more cognitive add metacognitive may be a way to increase the effectiveness of teaching and learning.

Further research is necessary to build on the vast amount of research into cognitive add metacognitive based learning specially with Omanis students. This will allow researchers to determine how cognitive add metacognitive based learning can be best used as an intervention with those students as there is a dearth of research with this population. Thus the present study addresses the following questions.

- 1- Are there differences in post-test scores mean between control and experimental groups on Creative problem solving scale?
- 2- Are there differences in post-test scores mean between control and experimental groups on Academic self-efficacy scale?
- 3- Are there differences in pre- post-test scores mean of the experimental group on Creative problem solving scale?
- 4- Are there differences in pre- post-test scores mean of the experimental group on Academic self-efficacy scale?

Academic self-efficacy scale

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study aims to investigate the effect of a self-regulated learning strategies program on creative problem solving and academic self-efficacy among eleventh grade Omanis students. By gaining a better understanding of this process, teachers can apply the findings to create safe, stress-free classrooms that will engage the minds of students, improving their creative problem solving, and that will help to ameliorate their academic self-efficacy.

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Zimmerman and Schunk (1997), the following characteristics should be considered so that learning can be considered as self-regulated: The use of different learning strategies, to be self-efficient when applying the strategies and to be committed to achieving goals. The primary goal of a self-regulation culture is to ensure that the entity involved in it is capable of improving and seeking its inherent quality and that such culture is born from the willing of individuals who are part of it. For that reason, self-regulated learning concept has been increasing the students actively participate in their learning process, monitoring and controlling the basic processes to achieve academic goals (Schunk, 2012).

Thus, learning is increasingly considered an activity accomplished by the students themselves and not a reactive response to teaching, for that reason, the students self-regulating their learning are proactive in their efforts to learn, since they are aware of their strengths and limitations.

The self-regulated learning construct is related to the ways of independent and effective academic learning including metacognition process, intrinsic motivation and strategic performance (Perry, 2002). It is also stated that the self-regulated learning influences the motivational and emotional aspect of individuals in a direct way. If a student has the necessary tools and methods to learn and study, their academic performance will be improved and consequently, their efforts will be reflected in their grades. According to the above-mentioned points, the student will be not only more motivated but also intrinsically motivated and will have positive emotions that will help to strength motivation. Lassen, Krawchuk and Rajani (2008) found that although self-variables are related to average scores per grade, self-efficacy for self-regulation is the best predictor of procrastination tendencies. Based on the findings from the two studies, the authors suggest that self-efficacy is a stronger predictor of the tendency to procrastinate than other motivation variables, such as self-regulation, academic self-efficacy and self-esteem. The costs of academic procrastination are evident: compared to neutral procrastinators, negative

procrastinators reported low GPAs per grade, they expected and received a lower class grade, spent more hours procrastinating each day, took longer to begin assignments and expressed less confidence that they were capable of regulating their own learning. Self-efficacy is proposed as the key to understanding procrastination in adult students who have knowledge of cognitive and metacognitive abilities and strategies but with low confidence to use them to organize their learning. Metacognitive strategy training will help students to know what to do and how to do it, but in order to increase self-efficacy for self-regulation, students will need repeated success experiences, encouragement and demonstrations of the benefits of using successful strategies.

Creative Problem Solving Scholars and researchers discussed the issue of creative problem solving of problems in general and especially in the field of gifted students. The creative problem solving can be defined within its three components as the solution, this means finding a way to solve the problem. The problem refers to obstacles that present a challenge to the individual to reach the goal. This challenge needs a solution or making a decision. Thus, creative solving is a frame or system including productive thinking tools that can be used to understand problems or generating different ideas that are not traditional then evaluating them to reach new solutions (Kaplan, 1996)). Doyle, C. (2016) mentioned many definitions for creative problem solving. Stated that it is taking a creative decision through thinking and reflecting and predicting ideas and solutions through deep awareness, argued that it is the natural and dynamic system and a way to handle a certain challenge. It is noted that through the steps of creative problem solving model brainstorming strategy has its own importance since the aim is to generate many idea that may be the solution of a problem (Abu Jado and Nawfl, 2007). The creative problem solving approach is the effort by the individual or the group's creative thinking to solve a problem, and can be used in many areas, and provide a framework regulating the use of tools and specific strategies to help generate and develop products that are characterized by novelty and utility, it is a framework of processes with a regulatory

function, a system used by the product of the thinking tools in order to understand the problems and opportunities and the generation of many diverse ideas is familiar as well as evaluating, developing and implementing the proposed solutions (Al-asar, 2000). (Renzulli, Gentry, & Reis, 2014).

Academic Self-Efficacy, Self-efficacy is a personal belief in one's capability to organize and execute a course of action required to attain mastery and succeed in specific tasks and it has been a key component in theories of motivation and learning in varied contexts.

This concept emerged from the seminal work of Bandura (1997), who posited that self-efficacy affects an individual's choice of activities, effort, and persistence. People who have low self-efficacy for accomplishing a specific task may avoid it, while those who believe they are capable are more likely to participate.

Artino (2012) claims that self-efficacy emerges from four primary sources: (a) enactive mastery experiences (actual performances); (b) observation of others (vicarious experiences); (c) forms of persuasion, both verbal and otherwise; and (d) physiological and affective states from which people partly judge their capableness, strength, and vulnerability to dysfunction. In this work, we focus in academic self-efficacy as the portion of the self-concept construct related specifically to learning. Academic self-efficacy corresponds with pupils' explanations of their accomplishments and it is viewed as instrumental to academic achievement (Dickhäuser & Steinmeier-Pelster, 2002). Theoretically, high achieving students would be expected to have higher feelings of self-efficacy, but empirical evidence of this has been difficult to find, in spite that in the last 4 decades several educational researchers had used this concept to predict and explain a wide range educational phenomena from athletic skill to academic achievement.

Hardy (2014) claims that the study of self-efficacy may help teachers understand its underlying structure and the process through which academic self-concepts can be raised or lowered.

Marsh (1990) provided a theoretical perspective to explain how students develop self-efficacy

feelings by using two different frames of reference to evaluate their abilities and achievements in different domains (mathematical subjects vs. verbal subjects). Marsh argued that students differ on their feelings of academic self-efficacy by subject, and they are mainly based on the feedback they receive about their achievements (Kesner, 2005).

Marsh (1990) also posited that Math and Verbal self-concepts are unrelated and independently developed with relation external and internal comparisons. Students compare their own math and verbal abilities with the perceived abilities of other students in their frame of reference.

METHOD

Quasi-experimental research method are used, quasi-experimental research is research that resembles experimental research but is not true experimental research. Although the independent variable is manipulated, participants are not randomly assigned to conditions or orders of conditions because the independent variable is manipulated before the dependent variable is measured, quasi-experimental research eliminates the directionality problem.

PARTICIPANTS

The sample was selected from students in the eleventh grade in basic education in the Sultanate of Oman. The participants in this study were 80 secondary school students. Experimental group (EG) consisted of 40 students while the control group (CG) consisted of 40 students. In both groups, students' social, economic statuses, intelligence and previous scholastic achievement were nearly the same. The students' ages in both groups ranged from 16 to 17 years. The participants were selected by convenience random sampling.

The sample was randomly divided into two groups; experimental (n= 40 boys only) and control (n= 40 boys only). The two groups were matched on age, IQ, achievement, creative problem solving and academic self-efficacy.

Table 1. pretest mean scores, standard deviations, T- value, and significance level for experimental and control groups on age (by month), IQ, achievement, creative problem solving, and academic self-efficacy

Variable	Group	N	M	SD	T	P.
Age	Ex.	40	181.53	3.85	0.452	0.517
	Con.	40	180.71	3.81		
IQ	Ex.	40	118.71	6.23	0.596	0.483
	Con.	40	118.59	6.41		
Achievement	Ex.	40	42.17	2.97	0.643	0.393
	Con.	40	42.59	2.15		
Creative Problem Solving	Ex.	40	47.12	3.53	0.723	0.215
	Con.	40	46.78	3.12		
Academic Self-Efficacy	Ex.	40	68.45	3.27	0.551	0.451
	Con.	40	68.89	3.65		

DATA COLLECTION TOOLS

1- *The Raven's Colored Progressive Matrices Test*. The Raven's CPM is internationally recognized as a culture -fair or culture reduced test of non- verbal intelligence. This easily administered, multiple - choice pencil and paper test has no time limit, and comprises three sets of twelve matrix designs arranged to "assess mental development up to a stage when a person is sufficiently able to reason by analogy to adopt this way of thinking as a consistent method of inference" (Raven et al., 1993). The testee is shown a series of patterns with parts missing. The parts removed are of simple shape and have been placed below the matrix. he testee can either point to the pattern piece s/he has selected or write its corresponding number on the record form (Lezak, 1995). The total score is the total number of matrices completed correctly, and the test is thus scored out of 36. The retest reliability of the Raven's CPM was revealed to be .90. The degree of correlation between the Raven's CPM and the WISC revealed correlations of 0.91.

2- The "Self-Regulated Learning Strategies Scale" consists of 30 items and eight dimensions (motivation regulation, effort regulation, planning, attention focusing, using additional resources, summarizing strategy, emphasis strategy, and selfdirection). In this scale, prepared in accordance with a six-point Likert-type scale, the items were graded as "always = 6," "mostly = 5," "frequently = 4," "sometimes = 3," "rarely = 2" and "never = 1." The reliability coefficients of the sub-dimensions of the scale were 0.79 for

motivation regulation, .69 for effort regulation, 0.81 for planning, 0.78 for attention focusing, 0.77 for using additional resources, 0.76 for summarizing strategy, 0.78 for emphasis strategies, and 0.76 for self-direction. The results of the fit statistic obtained with CFA were as follows: AGFI = 0.81, RMSEA = 0.065, NNFI= 0.88, RMR = 0.063, and SRMR =0.064. In addition, when the internal consistency coefficient of the sample group of the "Self-Regulated Learning Strategies Scale" in the present study was re-calculated it was found to be 0.91. Since the total points would be summed for the sample group, a two-level CFA was conducted. The fit indices obtained by CFA were as follows: $\chi^2 = 1314.13$ (sd = 327, $p < .001$), (χ^2/sd) = 4.02, RMSEA = 0.065, GFI = 0.87, NFI = 0.91, CFI = 0.93, and AGFI = 0.94, showing that the scale has good fit values.

3- Academic Achievement Test: The end-of- year examination results of the participants in math standardized and marked by the teachers, and provided the summative evaluation scores for the analysis. Hence, scores in the math served as the measures of students' achievement.

4- Scale of creative problem solving Prepared by the researcher including two tasks, first; self-report questionnaire (22 items) including background information and Likert-scale items was administered to the, second (11 situations), The Cronbach alpha reliability check was (0.81), and experimental validity with achievement was (0.74).

5- Academic self-efficacy, Artino (2012), self-efficacy scale was used. The questionnaire includes 30 items and three subscales: talent, effort, and context. The items have been designed by Likert scale with four-choice answers (from one to four). The designer of this instrument reported reliability and reliability coefficient of subscales of talent, effort, and context as follows respectively: 0.82, 0.78, 0.66, and 0.70. Karimzadeh and Nikchehreh (2009) evaluated the reliability of 0.76 for total scale and 0.66, 0.65 and 0.60 for talent, effort, and context respectively. The validity of the questionnaire was calculated by numerical sigma (0.86) based on opinion of ten professors.

EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

An experimental Pretest-Posttest Control-Group design was used in this study. In this design, two groups are formed by assigning (40) of the students to the experimental group and (40) to the control group. Students in the experimental and control groups were pretested and post tested in the same manner and at the same time in the study. The bivalent independent variable was the self-regulated learning strategies program and it assumed two values: presence of the self-regulated learning strategies program (for the experimental group) versus absence of the self-regulated learning strategies program (for the control group). The dependent variables were the gains in scores on creative problem solving and academic self-efficacy scales from the pretest and posttest.

PROCEDURES

Pre-intervention testing: All the eighty students in grade ten completed The Raven's Colored Progressive Matrices Test, which assesses students' intelligence; academic self-efficacy Scale, which assesses students' academic self-efficacy, creative problem solving scale, which assesses creative problem solving. Additionally, the end-of-year examination results of the participants in social studies standardized and marked by the teachers, and provided the summative evaluation scores for the analysis. Hence, scores in the social studies served as the measures of students' achievement. Thus data

was reported for the students who completed the study.

General Instructional Procedures: The self-regulated learning strategies program was conducted to the whole class by their actual teacher during the actual lesson period for 12 weeks with 50 minute sessions conducted three times a week. The program was designed based on the three basic fundamentals of self-regulated learning, namely dimensions (motivation regulation, effort regulation, planning, attention focusing, using additional resources, summarizing strategy, emphasis strategy, and self-direction. In the 'orchestrated immersion' phase, the students, with the help of their teacher, used various pictures, power-point presentations, cartoons and comic strips.

These helped them the concepts presented and the subject matter as a whole as well. As for 'relaxed alertness,' phase, cooperative learning was present. Students collaborated with one another. Students were asked to write down, share and discuss with their classmates. The aim was to eliminate fear in the learners while maintaining highly challenging environments. During the 'active processing' phase, the learner was allowed to consolidate and internalize information by actively processing it. simulations, group discussions, role plays and dramatization techniques were used in order to ensure the retaining of the obtained knowledge and to ease the structuring of this knowledge as well as applying it into new situations.

Fidelity of Treatment: To ensure that the self-regulated learning strategies program was delivered as intended by the researcher, the following four safeguards were implemented. The first safeguard was that the teacher received training to criterion in how to apply the self-regulated learning strategies program instructional procedures. The second safeguard was that teacher met with the researcher day after day and communicated daily with the researcher (as needed) to discuss any noteworthy occurrences that took place when implementing the self-regulated learning strategies program instructional procedures. Reported difficulties occurred rarely and usually involved the need to

individualize further for a particular student to deal with a behavioral issue. Responses to issues such as these were discussed and implemented.

DATA ANALYSIS

A two-groups pre-post design was used to compare creative problem solving and academic self-efficacy before and after the intervention. T-test was conducted. At each time point (pre/post), the mean and standard deviation were used to summarize group responses. Probability levels of 0.05 or smaller indicated significant differences between the experimental and control groups means. The data collected through the pre-test and

post-test were entered into Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22.

RESULTS

It was hypothesized that there were differences in post-test scores mean between control and experimental groups on creative problem solving Test. Table 2. shows T. Test results for the differences in post- test mean scores between experimental and control groups in creative problem solving. According to table 2., there has been found a significant difference the differences in post- test mean scores between experimental and control groups in creative problem solving ($t=7.31$, $p= 0.00$; $p<0.01$) in favor of the experimental group.

Table 2. T. test results for the differences in post- test mean scores between experimental and control groups in creative problem solving

Test				
Creative problem solving	Exp.	Con.	T	P.
	58.61	46.93	7.31**	0.000

Note: ** $P < 0.01$

The second hypothesis was that there were differences in post-test scores mean between control and experimental groups on academic self-efficacy Test. Table 3. shows T. Test results for the differences in post- test mean scores between experimental and control groups in academic self-

efficacy. According to table 3., there has been found a significant difference the differences in post- test mean scores between experimental and control groups in academic self-efficacy ($t=9.38$, $p= 0.00$; $p<0.01$) in favor of the experimental group.

Table 3. T. test results for the differences in post- test mean scores between experimental and control groups in academic self-efficacy.

Test				
Academic self-efficacy	Exp.	Con.	T	P.
	85.39	69.81	9.38**	0.000

Note: ** $P < 0.01$

The third hypothesis was that there were there differences in pre- post-test scores mean of the experimental group on creative problem solving Test. Table 4. shows T. Test results for the differences in pre- post-test scores mean of the experimental group on creative problem solving

Test. According to table 4., there has been found a significant difference the differences in pre- post-test scores mean of the experimental group on creative problem solving ($t=8.57$, $p= 0.00$; $p<0.01$) in favor of post-test scores mean.

Table 4. T. test results for the differences in pre- post-test scores mean of the experimental group on creative problem solving Test

Test				
Creative problem solving	Exp.	Con.	T	P.

	58.61	47.12	8.57**	0.000
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Note: **P < 0.01

The fourth hypothesis was that there were differences in pre- post-test scores mean of the experimental group on academic self-efficacy Test. Table 5. shows T. Test results for the differences in pre- post-test scores mean of the experimental group on academic self-efficacy Test. According to

table 5., there has been found a significant difference the differences in pre- post-test scores mean of the experimental group on academic self-efficacy ($t=8.85$, $p=0.00$; $p<0.01$) in favor of post-test scores mean.

Table5. T. test results for the differences in pre- post-test scores mean of the experimental group on academic self-efficacy Test

Test	Exp.	Con.	T	P.
Academic self-efficacy	85.39	68.45	8.85**	0.000

Note: **P < 0.01

DISCUSSION

The Purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of a self-regulated learning strategies program on creative problem solving and academic self-efficacy among eleventh grade Omani students. The results of this study indicated great gains for students in the experimental group in both creative problem solving and academic self-efficacy. This goes in the same line with the results of many studies. For example, Hardy, G. (2014), analysis of post-test and retention level tests revealed a significant difference between the groups favoring self-regulated learning strategies. Perry, N (2002), found that self-regulated learning strategies "...more significantly increased the students' academic achievement when compared to traditional teaching methods". The experimental group showed a 48.38% increase from the pre-test to post-test, whereas the control group showed an increase of 20.35%.

The performance of the experimental group in posttest in creative problem solving and academic self-efficacy can be explained by the gain achieved by the experimental group due to the application of the self-regulated learning strategies program which was built in the light of the integrated approach. This goes in the same

line with Schunk, D. (1996), claim that "Learning cannot be achieved by accident, but must be sought to by using techniques that stimulate the mind in certain ways in various fields, including art, crafts, music, body building tools, scientific stories, novels, trips, etc. , It is not too late to plant a tree for self-enrichment and mental development.

The mean scores of the control group scores on the creative problem solving and academic self-efficacy were low, while those of the experimental group were high, although there are no differences between the mean scores of the two groups in pre-test. This indicates that the program built for self-regulated learning strategies has taken into account the needs of multiple learners and their desire to learn, unlike the control group that has been learning in the traditional way in most of our schools.

This is consistent with the perspective that " the traditional methods used in our schools do not guide students as individuals towards materials, tasks, and do not provide the appropriate challenge for their potential and abilities to appear, which may make students hate the school as a whole, and the materials taught to them in general" (Baker& Baker, 2012).. This may be different if there is an amendment to the conditions of providing experiences based on

compensatory programs that help students to live with the educational situation and benefit from it. This is consistent with what Renzulli, Gentry & Reis (2014) that "students who attend school and lack fertile educational experience, can compensate for the land they lost if they find fertile experience in their classrooms.

CONCLUSIONS

This study goes some way to understanding creative problem solving and academic self-efficacy in Omanis eleventh grade primary students. The study shows that students in the experimental group, compared to those in the control group, develop robust creative problem solving and academic self-efficacy due to training in self-regulated learning strategies. The study shows that those young students have great chance of developing their creative problem solving and academic self-efficacy.

FUTURE RESEARCH AND RECOMMENDATIONS

As a result, teaching with program based on self-regulated learning strategies theory is effective in improving students' creative problem solving and academic self-efficacy, the study of the students and it improves and academic achievement. In this context, it is proposed that in the classroom teaching teachers should give utmost importance to the self-regulated learning strategies theory. As for research that can be done in the future, the impact of the self-regulated learning strategies theory teaching on students for effect of another variable. The results of this study have supported the claim of effectiveness of the cognitive and metacognitive strategies-based instructional model in enhancing creative problem solving, and academic self-efficacy. As a result of the robust evidence provided in this study, it is hoped that the cognitive and metacognitive strategies -based instructional model will be applied in improving learner outcomes in the future. The pedagogical knowledge needs to be evidence-based. The research and practice communities need to continue to work together to support learning for all students to be ready for their futures.

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ADAPTATION OF THE EMOTION REGULATION QUESTIONNAIRE IN EGYPTIAN ADOLESCENTS

Abstract: The aim of this study was to assess the reliability and validity of ERQ in a group of Egyptian adolescents. 648 adolescents from middle schools in Nasr city, Egypt were recruited. These adolescents aged 14-15 years old ($M=14.4$, $SD=2.22$). Of which, 400 were females (61.72%) while 248 were males (38.27%). Exploratory Factor Analysis, with CFA and Structural Equation Models (SEM) used to assess the fitness of two-factor structure of the original (ERQ) questionnaire among those adolescents. Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the two subscales of the questionnaire were .84 and .82, respectively. Confirmatory Factor Analysis was conducted for testing item-factor structure of the scale. Maximum likelihood estimation through AMOS 24 program was conducted with 648 adolescents. Model fit indices showed acceptable goodness of fit values for 2-factor structure of 10 items of the scale.

Keywords: emotion regulation questionnaire, egyptian, adolescents

Mohammed Mohammed Fathalla
PhD

Associate Professor of Psychological
Testing and Measurement
National Center for Examination and
Evaluation

Egypt

Contact:

E-mail: drfeteeh@yahoo.com

ORCID: 0000-0002-8290-207X

Fatima Midhat Ibrahim

Educational Guidance

Egypt

Contact:

E-mail: Fatimamidhat.74@gmail.com

ORCID: 0000-0001-5678-7322

INTRODUCTION

Emotion regulation(ER) is regarded as extrinsic and intrinsic processes. These processes are responsible for monitoring, evaluating, and modifying some if not all the components of the emotional experience in order for accomplishing one's goals(Jose et al.,2018). Emotional regulatory processes can be automatic or controlled, conscious or unconscious, and it is increasingly recognized that it integrates management of both positive and negative emotions. Regulatory mechanisms also include skills and strategies that modulate the specific emotion experienced and its emotional dynamics (e.g., intensity, duration, lability)(Ana et al.,2015). The process model of emotion regulation proposed by Gross (1999) posits that emotion regulation can occur either before or after the generation of emotion; such emotion regulation is referred to as antecedent-focused and response-focused, respectively(Rosario et al.,2012).

The process model of Emotion regulation (Gross, 1998) emphasizes that an emotion can be uncovered over time. This will happen in a series of different steps, that is, this model distinguishes between two types of strategies: antecedent-focused and response-focused Emotion regulation strategies. That depends totally on whether these occur before or after the full activation of the emotion. The most representative antecedent-focused strategy is cognitive reappraisal (CR), which is regarded as a form of cognitive change that allows reducing the emotional impact of a potentially emotion-eliciting situation . However, if the antecedent-focused ER strategies are not properly implemented and the emotion is fully activated, the person can still inhibit ongoing emotion-expressive behavior. This is called expressive suppression (SU), the most representative response-focused strategy within this model(Jose et al.,2018).

Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ) was developed by Gross and John(2003).It is a self-report questionnaire which assesses two dimensions: Cognitive Reappraisal and Expressive Suppression. The scale showed acceptable internal consistency (Cronbach's α values of 7.82 (mean 0.79) for Cognitive Reappraisal and 0.76 (mean 0.73) for Expressive Suppression. Test-retest reliability across three months was 0.69 for both CR and ES. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) showed good support for this underlying two-scale structure (Gross and John,2003).

Researchers from Finland (Minja&Pekka,2018), Kingdom of Saudi Arabia(Mogeda ,2018),Spain(Jose et al,2018), Trinidad (Sideeka& Nicole,2018),demonstrated that the scale had a good psychometric properties. Nevertheless, in Egypt, there is no study handled this issue and reported satisfactory internal consistencies for both subscales. Therefore, it can be said that more extensive studies are needed to conduct with the aim of examining validity and reliability of the ERQ in Egypt.

METHODS

PARTICIPANTS

648 adolescents from middle schools in Nasr city, Egypt were recruited. These adolescents aged 14-15 years old($M=14.4$, $SD=2.22$).Of which,400 were females(61.72%) while 248 were males(38.27%).

RELIABILITY

Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the two subscales of the questionnaire were .84 and .82, respectively. As shown in Table 1, the item-total correlations were between .59 and .69 for the reappraisal subscale, and between .56 and .63 for the suppression subscale. The test-retest reliability was .83 for the reappraisal and .86 for the suppression subscales.

Table 1. Corrected item-total correlations of all items

Items	Corrected item-total correlations
Reappraisal Items	
1. When I want to feel more positive emotions (such as joy or amusement), I change what I'm thinking about.	.66
3. When I want to feel less negative emotion (such as sadness or anger), I change what I'm thinking about.	.62
5. When I'm faced with a stressful situation, I make myself think about it in a way that helps me stay calm.	.59
7. When I want to feel more positive emotion, I change the way I'm thinking about the situation.	.64
8. I control my emotions by changing the way I think about the situation I'm in.	.68
10. When I want to feel less negative emotion, I change the way I'm thinking about the situation	.69
Suppression items	
2. I keep my emotions to myself	.61
4. When I am feeling positive emotions, I am careful not to express them.	.63
6. I control my emotions by not expressing them.	.58
9. When I am feeling negative emotions, I make sure not to express them.	.56

CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

Confirmatory Factor Analysis was conducted for testing item-factor structure of the scale. Maximum likelihood estimation through AMOS 24 program was conducted with 648 adolescents.

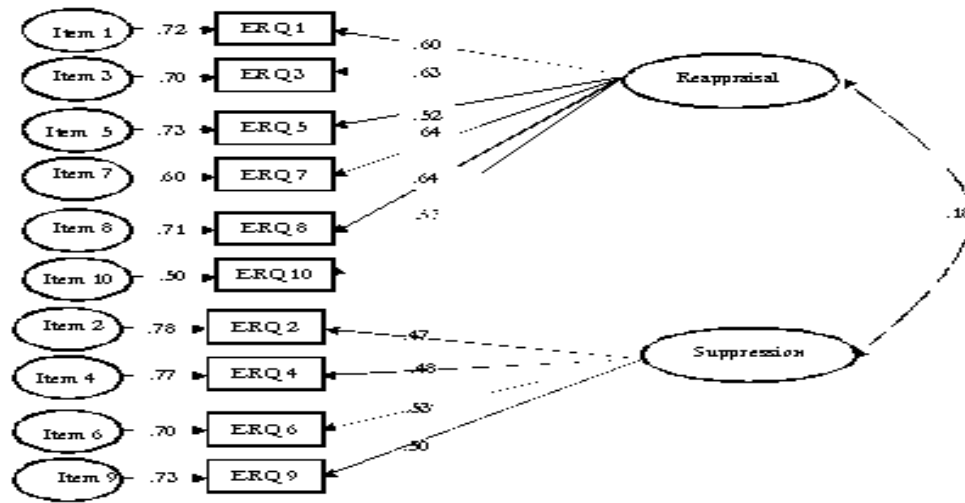
Model fit indices showed acceptable goodness of fit values for 2-factor structure of 10 items of the scale. The indices found for the scale and acceptable ranges are presented in Table 2

Table 2. Model fit indices from measurement models of Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ)

Goodness of Fit Indexes	Measurement Model of Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ)
χ^2 , df	314.2
χ^2/df	4.4
CFI	.91
TLI	.92
RMSEA	.07
GFI	.93

The factor loadings of all 10 items on the two subscales of the questionnaire are presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1. A Factor Loadings Diagram of the Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ)



DISCUSSION

The aim of this study was to assess the reliability and validity of ERQ in a group of Egyptian adolescents. Exploratory Factor Analysis, with CFA¹ and Structural Equation Models (SEM) used to assess the fitness of two-factor structure of the original (ERQ) questionnaire among those adolescents. Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the two subscales of the questionnaire were .84 and .82, respectively. As shown in Table 1, the item-total correlations were between .59 and .69 for the reappraisal subscale, and between .56 and .63 for the suppression subscale. The test-retest reliability was .83 for the reappraisal and .86 for the suppression subscales.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis was conducted for testing item-factor structure of the scale. Maximum likelihood estimation through AMOS 24 program was conducted with 648 adolescents. Model fit indices showed acceptable goodness of fit values for 2-factor structure of 10 items of the scale.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the ERQ is a reliable measure of emotion regulation in Egypt, as it has been in many other countries (e.g. Finland: Minja & Pekka, 2018, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: Mogeda, 2018, Spain: Jose et al, 2018 and Trinidad: Sideeka & Nicole, 2018). This scale has two distinct emotion regulation strategies: cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression. The ERQ is also a valid measure. We suggest that further research needs to be conducted on different samples.

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SELF-EFFICACY AS A PREDICTOR OF ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT AMONG MIDDLE SCHOOL STUDENTS

Abstract: The purpose of this study was to investigate the correlation between self-efficacy and academic achievement, and the ability of self-efficacy to serve as a predictor of academic achievement. Convenient sampling method was employed to recruit the participants. The sample of the study consisted of 210 students (110 females, 51.61%, 100 males, 48.39%), representing students from grades one, two, three middle school, aged 13-15 years, with an average of 14.5 years, with a standard deviation of 4.63. The data were analyzed with Pearson correlation and Liner regression. Liner regression was used to explore the relative contributions of self-efficacy to the prediction of academic achievement. Findings showed that there are significant correlations between all the three subscales of Morgan-Jinks Student Efficacy Scale (MJSES): talent, context, and effort, and all the school subjects (Arabic, English, Mathematics, Science, and Social Studies). All these correlations were significant ($P < .01$). the IV (Self-efficacy) yielded a coefficient of multiple regression (R) of 0.574 and a multiple correlation square of 0.571. This shows that 57.1% of the total variance in academic achievement of those who participated in the study is accounted for by Self-efficacy.

Keywords: self-efficacy, academic achievement, middle school students

Fadlon Saad Al Demerdash, PhD
Assistant Professor
College of Education
Jazan University
Jazan
Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
Contact:
E-mail: drfadlonsaad@yahoo.com
ORCID: 0000-0001-7409-4693

INTRODUCTION

Self-efficacy is regarded as students' beliefs in their ability to master new skills and tasks, often in a specific academic domain (Eissa, 2012). In other words, perceived self-efficacy refers to individuals' beliefs in their capabilities to achieve specific attainments (Bandura, 2006). It is a "can do"-or "I can do"-cognition (Amaal, 2014). Bandura explained self-efficacy in the theoretical framework of social cognitive theory by Bandura (Semra & Mehmet, 2013). Human achievement, according to this framework, depends on interactions between and among three domains, namely one's behaviours, personal factors and environmental conditions (Hüseyin, 2013).

Through obtained information, students are able to appraise their self-efficacy from their performances, their indirect experiences, being persuaded by others, and their cues from their body, that is, their physiological reactions. Self-efficacy beliefs may have the ability of influencing students when they perform various tasks, exert efforts, persist, being resilient, and gain achievement (Bandura, 2006). It is believed that students feel efficacious for learning, compared with students who doubt their learning capabilities, exert their best effort to participate more readily in the development of their academic self-efficacy, work harder, persist longer when encountering difficulties, and hence they are able to achieve their goals at a higher level (Durmuş, Yavuz & Şükrü, 2013).

It can be noted that students with high self-efficacy are better eligible and equipped to successfully complete their educational careers (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 2001; Lane & Lane, 2001). On the contrary, those with low self-efficacy are likely to face failure in their academics and may tend to perceive learning tasks as more difficult and daunting than they actually are.

Therefore, it is unsurprising that self-efficacy, as indicated by previous research, influences students' academic achievement, motivation, learning and academic achievement (Ahmad & Abdullah, 2019). In line with these findings, Jahanian and Mahjoubi (2013) found in their study, which aimed to investigate the influences of self-efficacy on academic accomplishments at

university levels and higher education centers, a strong relationship between self-efficacy and academic accomplishments. Moreover, Schunk and Zimmerman (1994) reported a positive relationship between self-efficacy and academic achievement and explained that if students are trained to have higher self-efficacy beliefs, their academic performance also improves. Additionally, Asgharnezhad (2004) found that there was a significant relationship between students' self-efficacy and students' academic achievements.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to investigate the correlation between self-efficacy and academic achievement, and the ability of self-efficacy to serve as a predictor of academic achievement.

HYPOTHESES

- Hypothesis 1: There is a positive correlation between self-efficacy and academic achievement.
- Hypothesis 2: Students with high self-efficacy will probably report a higher GPA.
- Hypothesis 3: Self-efficacy contributes to academic achievement.

METHOD

PARTICIPANTS

Convenient sampling method was employed to recruit the participants. The sample of the study consisted of 210 students (110 females, 51.61%, 100 males, 48.39%), representing students from grades one, two, three middle school, aged 13-15 years, with an average of 14.5 years, with a standard deviation of 4.63.

DESIGN

For the purpose of this study, quantitative survey research was employed. The IV is self-efficacy, while the DV is academic achievement.

INSTRUMENTS

Morgan-Jinks Student Efficacy Scale (MJSES) was used to measure students' self-efficacy. It is a 4-Likert, 30 items scale, ranging from really agrees to really disagree (it consists of three subscales: talent, context, and effort). The aim of the instrument was to determine information about the student efficacy beliefs that might relate to school success (Jinks & Morgan, 1999). The reliability of an overall scale in this research was Cronbach's $\alpha = .786$.

Academic achievement was measured by GPA in 5 study subjects (Arabic, English, Mathematics, Science, and Social Studies) by subject grades in the first term of the school year 2019/2020.

Procedures

Prior to administering the scales, students were informed about purpose of the study and voluntarily indicated that they agreed to participate. To ensure that the respondents responded to the items honestly, they were told not to identify themselves in any way on the scale paper. They were also informed that they should

not be concerned with anything regarding their participation in the study and their responses are for research purposes only and would be kept confidential. All data were entered in an SPSS file.

DATA ANALYSIS

The data were analyzed with Pearson correlation and Linear regression. Linear regression was used to explore the relative contributions of self-efficacy to the prediction of academic achievement.

RESULTS

DESCRIPTIVE DATA AND INTER-CORRELATIONS

Table 1. shows the means, descriptive statistics and inter-correlations of self-efficacy and academic achievement. Table 1 shows that there are significant correlations between all the three subscales of Morgan-Jinks Student Efficacy Scale (MJSES): talent, context, and effort, and all the school subjects (Arabic, English, Mathematics, Science, and Social Studies). All these correlations were significant ($P < .01$).

Table 1 . Descriptive statistics and inter-correlations of self-efficacy and academic achievement

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
talent				0.688**	0.612**	0.524**	0.511**	0.503**
context				0.633**	0.642**	0.508**	0.502**	0.516**
effort				0.605**	0.661**	0.520**	0.531**	0.544**
Arabic								
English								
Mathematics								
Social Studies								
Science								
** $P < .01$								

SELF-EFFICACY AS A PREDICTOR OF ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Results presented in table 2 show that the IV (Self-efficacy) yielded a coefficient of multiple regression (R) of 0.574 and a multiple correlation square of 0.571. This shows that 57.1% of the

total variance in academic achievement of those who participated in the study is accounted for by Self-efficacy.

As for results displayed in table 3, Self-efficacy made significant contribution to the prediction of academic achievement ($b = 0.370$, $t = 18.619$; $P < 0.01$).

Table 3. Relative Contribution of the IV to the Prediction of DV (Coefficients)a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1					
(Constant)	33.111	1.015		32.622	.000
SE	.370	.020	.717	18.619	.000

a. Dependent Variable: AA

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATION AND CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the correlation between self-efficacy and academic achievement, and the ability of self-efficacy to serve as a predictor of academic achievement.

Findings from table 1. there are significant correlations between all the three subscales of Morgan-Jinks Student Efficacy Scale (MJSES): talent, context, and effort ,and all the school subjects (Arabic, English, Mathematics, Science, and Social Studies). All these correlations were significant($P < .01$) . This goes in the same line with Miller & Brickman (2004) who report that strong academic performance may be associated with increased confidence in one's powers and this stimulates students to take greater responsibility for successful completion of tasks and projects. Students who possess higher self-efficacy take greater responsibility for successful completion of tasks and projects (Frey & Determan, 2004).

One critical finding is that students who are more confident and self-assured are more likely to attain higher levels of academic performance, which implies that the beliefs of self-efficacy seem to play an important role in predicting academic achievement.

Providing students with clear examples of passing work, clarifying expectations, and giving ample feedback are all likely to provide scaffolding for students' attempts and help them develop self-efficacy (Judge, Jackson, Shaw, Scott, & Rich, 2007). Self-efficacy had a direct relationship to academic achievement. This is consistent with Yazici, Seyisa and Altuna (2011) who indicated that there had been strong relationships among the academic achievement

and self-efficacy positively among students. Thus students who have higher self-efficacy is predicted to have a higher GPA.

In conclusion, the results of this study make an important contribution to the field by investigating the relationship between a predicting variable, Self-efficacy, ascertaining the central role of self-efficacy in predicting academic achievement.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

This study has some limitations. First, convenient sampling method was used to recruit the participants. Therefore, the findings of the study have limited generalizability in other regions and age groups. Second, as cross-sectional study, there has to be caution in making any generalization of the results. future researchers should get more respondents from wider geographical location, that is from different bans, private and public. Furthermore, self-report questionnaires were used to collect data from respondents. It is recommended that future researchers use different method such as personal interview to collect data. This may help get a reliable data after clarifying and removing what may be ambiguous.

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