ENGLISH LANGUAGE PREPARATORY SCHOOL INSTRUCTORS' SENSE OF RESPONSIBILITY FOR STUDENTS' SUCCESS AND FAILURE

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ABSTRACT

ENGLISH LANGUAGE PREPARATORY SCHOOL INSTRUCTORS' SENSE OF RESPONSIBILITY FOR STUDENTS' SUCCESS AND FAILURE

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This present study aimed to investigate English language preparatory school instructors' sense of responsibility for their students' success and failure, and the relationship between instructors' self-efficacy beliefs and their sense of responsibility and examine to what extent years of teaching experience, English proficiency scores, teacher self-efficacy and teacher motivation predict instructors' sense of responsibility for their students' success and failure. The participants were 207 English instructors working in preparatory schools. Data were collected from foundation and public universities in Ankara. Data collection instruments were Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale, Responsibility for Student Achievement Scale and Teacher Motivation Scale. To analyze the data, descriptive, correlation and hierarchical regression analyses were conducted. The results showed instructors had a moderate level of responsibility for their students' success and failure.

Besides, they showed more responsibility for their students' success than failure. The results of correlation analysis showed there was a significant and positive relationship between instructors' self-efficacy beliefs and their sense of responsibility for students' success while there is no relationship between instructors' self-efficacy beliefs and their sense of responsibility for students' failure. Findings of hierarchical regression analysis indicated instructors' overall sense of responsibility for their students' success and failure was uniquely predicted by teacher motivation variable. In terms of sense of responsibility for students' success, the results of the study indicated only teacher self-efficacy variable uniquely had a significant contribution to prediction equation. As for the sense of responsibility for students' failure, the findings showed that none of the variables significantly predicted it.

Keywords: Teacher responsibility, Teacher self-efficacy, Teacher motivation, English language preparatory school instructors, English proficiency.

ÖZ

İNGİLİZCE HAZIRLIK OKULU OKUTMANLARININ ÖĞRENCİ BAŞARI VE BAŞARISIZLIĞINDAN SORUMLULUK ALGISI

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Bu çalışmada, İngilizce hazırlık okulu okutmanlarının öğrencilerinin başarı ve başarısızlığından sorumluluk algısının, okutmanların özyeterlik inançları ve sorumluluk algısı arasındaki ilişkinin ve öğretmenlik tecrübesi, İngilizce yeterlilik puanları, öğretmen öz yeterliği ve motivasyonun, okutmanların öğrencilerinin başarı ve başarısızlığından sorumluluk algısını ne derece yordadığının incelenmesi amaçlanmaktadır. Katılımcılar, hazırlık okullarında çalışan 207 İngilizce okutmanıdır. Veri, Ankara'daki vakıf ve devlet üniversitelerinden toplanmıştır. Veri toplama araçları, Öğretmen Özyeterlik Ölçeği, Öğrenci Başarısından Sorumluluk Ölçeği, ve Öğretmen Motivasyonu Ölçeği' dir. Veri analizi için, betimsel, korelasyon ve hiyerarşik çoklu regresyon analiz yöntemleri kullanılmıştır. Sonuçlar, okutmanların öğrencilerinin başarı ve başarısızlığı için orta seviyede genel sorumluluk algısına sahip olduğunu göstermiştir. Ayrıca, okutmanlar

öğrencilerinin başarısı için, başarısızlığa göre daha yüksek sorumluluk algısına sahiptirler. Korelasyon analizi, öğretmenlerin özyeterlilik inaçları ile öğrenci başarısından sorumluluk alma algısı arasında olumlu ve anlamlı bir ilişki olduğunu diğer yandan öğretmenlerin özyeterlilik inaçları ile öğrenci başarısızlığından sorumluluk alma algısı arasında bir ilişki olmadığını göstermiştir. Hiyerarşik çoklu regresyon analizi, okutmanların öğrencilerinin başarı ve başarısızlığı için genel sorumluluk algısının sadece öğretmen motivasyonu tarafından yordandığını göstermektedir. Okutmanların öğrenci başarısından sorumluluk algısı açısından, çalışmanın sonuçları, sadece öğretmen özyeterlik değişkeninin yordama denklemine önemli bir katkısı olduğunu göstermektedir. Öğrenci başarısızlığından sorumluluk algısına gelince ise, sonuçlar, hiçbir değişkenin bu algıyı yordamadığını göstermiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Öğretmen sorumluluğu, Öğretmen özyeterliği, Öğretmen motivasyonu, İngilizce hazırlık okulu okutmanları, İngilizce yeterliği

To Sezgin Bozu,

and

Leman & Hasan Vural

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

MEB	Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı (Ministry of National Education)
TOEFL IBT	Test of English as a Foreign Language Internet Based Test
YDS	Yabancı Dil Sınavı (Language Proficiency Test)
IELTS	International English Language Testing System
SDT	Self Determination Theory
TEFL	Teaching English as a Foreign Language
RSA	Responsibility for Student Achievement Scale
ÖSYM	Ölçme, Seçme ve Yerleştirme Merkezi (Measuring, Selection and Placement Center)
METU	Middle East Technical University
AERC	Applied Ethics Research Center
PREP.	Preparatory
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

In today's world, English is the chief communication language in social and business environment (Yang, Chuang, Li, & Tseng, 2013) and the most popular language in the internet (Internet World Statistics, 2013). Also, Kuppens (2013) states that the internationalization of culture and media has brought the global spread of English inevitably and Crystal (2000) suggests that almost 25% of the world population use English. Therefore, many people from all over the world spend lots of time, effort and money to learn English as a vital need to survive in today's global life. Therefore, teaching of such a valid language has become an important item in scholars' agenda. Besides, English language teachers and instructors with good qualifications are required to provide students an optimum environment for instruction, to promote education and to meet the needs of the students.

Turkey has been affected by the global prevalence of English, too. With the current transition to new 4+4+4 model, the English language teaching program was redesigned. Within this new structure, English language teaching begins from 2nd grade instead of 4th grade of elementary school, which will make students receive English language instruction at the age of almost 8 or 8.5. As a result, the new program has provided an earlier start for learning a foreign language. The most important aim of the language policy in Turkey is to develop learner's communicative competency to enable them to use the target language effectively (MEB Talim ve Terbiye Kurulu Başkanlığı, 2013). Both state and private institutions provide English language education from elementary school level to post graduate levels, even it begins at nursery level in some private schools. In

addition to language preparatory school programs, many universities offer English courses for different purposes and different skills to ensure their graduates' English language competency after graduation. Especially as of 1982, there has been an important increase in the number of universities and students in Turkey (Çetinsaya, 2014). Considering the profile shortly mentioned above, this great increase in student number and the importance of English in both academic and business life, much more burden has fallen on English instructors, which results in high expectancy and more responsibility for teaching English than it was assumed before.

However, despite the early exposure to English and ongoing revisions and efforts, a huge number of students cannot use English effectively in an English-language medium environment after they graduate from high school (MEB Talim ve Terbiye Kurulu Başkanlığı, 2013). Consequently, when students come to university levels, either they have difficulties with succeeding in must English courses or they cannot pass the exemption exams applied by university preparatory schools and have to study one year English preparatory program. In addition to that, in spite of the continuity of English language education at university level, the lack of communication skills and low proficiency level seem to continue. For example, in English First English Proficiency Index (2014), Turkey has a very low proficiency level with a rank of 47 among 63 countries in terms of adult learners' English proficiency levels. Additionally, in 2013, the average total Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) score of Turkish people was 76 out of 120, which is the least score in Europe (Test and Score Data, 2013). These numbers show that in our country, there seems to be a problem with the success of teaching foreign language.

It is accepted that schools exist to educate students and to prepare positive learning environments, but the reality might be a bit different as stated above. Then, "What affects the students' achievement?". It is one of the most prominent but complex research topics since there may be various reasons behind the failure and success. Communication, learning facilities, proper guidance, family and stress are some of the factors that have an effect on the students' achievement levels (Mushtaq & Khan, 2012). Additionally, age, parental social economic status, daily

study hours have a profound impact on the success of graduate students (Ali, Haider, Munir, Khan, & Ahmed, 2013). Besides, factors related to education system also influence the students' success (Kurt, 2013a).

More specifically, various factors might influence the foreign language achievement level in Turkish context. Memory, oral skills and task utility are some of the significant variables affecting the success in learning a foreign language (Deniz, Gülden, & Apaydın Şen, 2013). Anxiety is another variable; Öner and Gediklioğlu (2007) and Doğan (2012) reached the conclusion that the concern felt while learning a foreign language influenced the success of the students in secondary schools. Vatanartiran, Dalgiç and Karadeniz (2014) found that gender, parents' education level, the socioeconomic status of the family, the income level, attitude towards learning a language and activities outside the school are some of the predictors of foreign language achievement level in Turkey. Additionally, the lack of contemporary teaching methods, materials, equipment are other elements that influence students' success (Gökdemir, 2010; Günday, 2007).

On the other hand, there are different groups who have great power in education setting: Ministry of Education, politicians, administrators, teachers, students, parents are some of them and each party naturally has responsibility for students' success and failure to some extent; however, there is little or no consensus on who or what has the most responsibility for students' achievement. James and Pollard (2006) stated that:

> Promoting the learning and achievement of pupils is a main aim of school education. Teaching is the main way of achieving this. Teaching and learning are what ultimately make a difference in the mind of the learner, and thus affect knowledge, skills, attitudes and the capacity of young people to contribute to contemporary societies (p. 4).

In the same way, Coleman (1968) suggested that in the last decades, responsibility for students' success passed from students and parents to instructors and success was educational institutions' responsibility, not the students'. Besides, Ekici (2013) proposes that since teachers have the responsibility for instruction within the classroom, their role in students' success and failure cannot be denied. Schalock (1998) also suggests that responsibility mostly depends on teachers since they are directly responsible for learning in the classroom. However, Broadfoot,

Osborn, Gilly and Paillet (1987) suggested that English teachers usually consider that a student's progress in school is not basically the responsibility of the teacher.

Teachers' behaviors, expectations, perceptions influence their behaviors and their interaction with the students (Georgiou, Christou, Stavrinides, & Panaoura, 2002) and responsibility perception is one of these constructs that affect teacher behavior. Lauermann (2013) suggests that responsibility can be seen as both a personality feature and situation-dependent construct and teachers' responsibility perceptions possibly affect their teaching practices, psychological situation and their students' achievement levels. The construct of teacher responsibility has also been associated with positive thoughts about teaching (Guskey, 1984) and teachers' eagerness to use new instructional techniques (Guskey, 1988). Instead of using external awards and sanctions, explaining teachers' internal responsibility perception can help to reach the desired results and developments (Lauermann, 2013). Teachers' eagerness to take responsibility for students' outcomes also affects their interaction with the students on the expression of the value and expectations. This teacher act affects students' perceptions, which in turn influences students' performance, classroom behaviors and their welfare in a way (LoGerfo, 2004). Teacher responsibility can be linked to pursuing ethical norms and educational rules, having a sense of necessity to supply the students with the optimum instruction, assessing the preferred teaching methods and its educational results and caring for students' needs (Lauermann, 2013).

According to Guskey (1981), teacher's self-efficacy beliefs and responsibility perceptions for students' achievement are closely related. Studies have shown that teachers who are good at promoting their students learning generally have some common characteristics one of which is having a high level of teacher self-efficacy (Guskey, 1988). Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy and Hoy (1998) also state that teacher self-efficacy has impact on teachers' attempts for teaching, determining goals and their motivation to teach and student achievement. Besides, teachers with high self efficacy are self regulated teachers who reflect on their behaviors and do necessary changes in their instructional choices when the learning results are not good (White & DiBenedetto, 2015). Teachers self regulate their behaviours through three steps: "forethought, performance control and self-

reflection" (Çapa-Aydın, Sungur, Uzuntiryaki, 2009, p.g. 346). Self-regulation enables students to feel responsible for their own learning (Çapa-Aydın et al., 2009). In the same way, it may help teachers take responsibility for their instruction. Similarly, having high self-regulatory skills has been found to be positively linked to locus of control and intrinsic motivation in the job. English teachers with high self-regulatory skills were found to have an inclination to attribute failing of their students to internal elements and have genuine interest in teaching (Toussi & Ghanizadeh, 2012). Self regulation was also found to be an important sign of teacher success and teachers having self-regulatory abilities were found to be more effective in terms of using metacognitive skills to reach the instructional aims (Toussi, Ghanizadeh, & Boori, 2011).

Guskey (1981) stated that whatever the origin of the responsibility is, responsibility for students' success is among the important teacher characteristics influencing the student learning. Results showed that students perform better when teachers take collective responsibility for students' achievement rather than putting the blame on students (Lee & Smith, 1996). Additionally, Smith (1994) stated that teachers should show commitment to advocating the efforts of students to enable students succeed; however, commitment is not enough on its own, the teachers should also believe in themselves for helping students be successful and take responsibility for students' achievement.

Teacher attribution of student failure has great concern since it also affects a teacher's behavior against the unsuccessful student. To illustrate, teachers feel less angry when they think the reason behind the failure is the students' ability. However, teachers become angry when they think the students fail because they do not make enough effort. Besides, when teachers accept responsibility for students' failure, they tend to continue to try helping their students succeed (Georgiou et al., 2002).

Considering the university teachers, the situation is not so different. University teachers are generally expected to have professional competence including field knowledge and good research skills. However, the expectancies are not limited to only theoretical and empirical specialization. Additionally, it is required that teachers have some characteristic features, motivation and ambition to

continue their self development. Besides, they are also expected to have responsibility for the things they can affect through their efforts considering their students and society's needs (Sembradov & Hubackova, 2014).

Regarding the points mentioned above, teachers' responsibility perceptions require attention in education context since this kind of perception is influential in shaping the teacher and student behaviors, classroom energy and the instruction. Besides, there is a growing emphasis on educational responsibility especially in Europe, so more insight into when teachers tend to have more responsibility for their students and instruction is necessary. Moreover, the results of personal responsibility for teacher motivation, senses, psychological wellbeing and instructional activities should be focused further (Lauermann & Karabenick, 2014). However, there has been not enough attention to the assessment of teacher responsibility and there is limited proof that how teachers sense their responsibilities and in what conditions they accept or reject responsibility (Lauermann & Karabenick, 2013). Moreover, though there are varied studies related to self-efficacy beliefs of teachers, studies on responsibility for students' achievement are very limited in English language teaching contexts, in addition to that, whether the English teachers take responsibility for their students' achievement in learning English is a significant question that has not had an answer yet in Turkish context.

Considering all of these points, the current study aimed to satisfy the need asserted above and specifically focused on the responsibility level of English language preparatory school instructors for their students' success and failure. The research about the variables influencing the responsibility construct and predicting it has much importance for increasing the quality of language teaching at university preparatory schools.

1.2 Purpose and Problem Statement

The main purpose of this study was to investigate English language preparatory school instructors' sense of responsibility for their students' success and failure, and the factors that influence it. The study also aimed to investigate relationship between instructors' sense of responsibility for students' success and

failure and self-efficacy beliefs. Lastly, it aimed to find out to what extent instructors' years of teaching experience, instructors' English proficiency scores, instructors' self-efficacy beliefs and instructors' motivation level predict instructors' sense of responsibility for students' success and failure. For this study, research questions are formulated as following:

1. What is instructors' overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure?

   1.1 What is instructors' sense of responsibility for students' success?

   1.2 What is instructors' sense of responsibility for students' failure?

2. What is the relationship between instructors' self-efficacy beliefs and overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure?

   2.1 What is the relationship between instructors' self-efficacy beliefs and sense of responsibility for students' success?

   2.2 What is the relationship between instructors' self-efficacy beliefs and sense of responsibility for students' failure?

3. To what extent years of teaching experience, English proficiency scores, self-efficacy beliefs and motivation of instructors predict instructors' overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure?

   3.1 To what extent years of teaching experience, English proficiency scores, self-efficacy beliefs and motivation of instructors predict instructors' sense of responsibility for students' success?

   3.2 To what extent years of teaching experience, English proficiency scores, self-efficacy beliefs and motivation of instructors predict instructors' sense of responsibility for students' failure?

1.3 Significance of the Study

Since English is a global language, to be able to speak English may have a favorable impact on developing both economical and individual relations with other countries and the innovation capacity of Turkey. In addition to being an international trade language, English is also the main language for world communication, tourism sector and labour market (British Council & Tepav, 2014). Besides, in Turkey, more than 30 percent of job vacancies require the knowledge of English (British Council & Tepav, 2014). According to the report on the state of English in higher education in Turkey by British Council (2015), "the lack of English" is an important element that impacts the quality of education in higher education because it results in reaching limited international academic sources and less exchange opportunities for academic staff and students. By taking these possible contributions of using English effectively, teaching that language has become an indispensable part of Turkey's education system beginning from elementary level to higher education level.

British Council report (2015) revealed that students come to English language preparatory schools with lack of motivation and an A1 or A1+ (Basic user) English proficiency level according to Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) scale. Considering the education system in Turkey, higher education is the last step in formal education system, so it can be said that it is the last chance for any student at this education level to acquire necessary English skills before they get a start in business or academic life. Therefore, as a higher education institution, universities are expected to have an effective role in providing a qualified language instruction. At this point, the responsibility also falls on the English instructors working in universities since they provide the language education in classes.

In concern with the English instructors working in universities, the British Council report (2015) reveals that considering European and international standards, English instructors working at English language preparatory schools in Turkey generally have a good level of English proficiency, and almost two-thirds of them have an MA or Msc degree. Besides, in the same report, most of English language preparatory school classrooms are found to have enough equipment in

terms of teaching materials, technology and resources. Additionally, the English language preparatory schools in both foundation and state universities have the privilidge to choose their own teaching materials and prepare their own exams. Considering the potential and the sources the language preparatory schools have, it is reasonable to expect that the English instructors can help their students achieve great things when they feel more responsible at this point.

Having a high level of teaching efficacy perception and taking responsibility for students' achievement can be seen among the important characteristics of a qualified teacher. In this sense, first of all, it is expected that to study these two important teacher characteristics together will provide insights into in-service training programs and may contribute to further development of pre-service teacher education since it is an important time period in which student teachers develop a professional identity.

Secondly, as mentioned before, though there have been some studies on responsibility for students' achievement, they were done among student teachers or teachers at elementary or secondary school levels and there are not many studies which examine English teachers' sense of responsibility for students' success and failure. Therefore, research on English instructors will contribute to the research literature related to teacher responsibility issue. Moreover, considering the importance and prevalence of the instruction of English in Turkey, this study will indirectly contribute to the students' success in English by increasing the instructors' awareness about their perceptions regarding their motivation and self-efficacy levels and meeting professional teaching standards such as having responsibility for their students' success and failure. In addition to that, teacher responsibility is a significant research field since it has implications for teacher motivation and it has an important place in the formation of education policies that emphasize the responsibility of teachers for students' success and failure (Lauermann, 2013).

Thirdly, teachers' responsibility can be affected by different factors. In this study, four possible predictors are studied to investigate to what extent they predict the responsibility sense of instructors for students' success and failure. Teacher self-efficacy is one of these predictors because self-efficacy beliefs of teachers

have a significant impact on teachers' beliefs, perceptions, instructional choices and teaching practices (Chacón, 2005). Teaching experience is another variable investigated in this study because it is among significant elements affecting teacher standards (Hinz, 2010). The experience of teachers is in a close relationship with efficacy and their tendency to take responsibility for students' performance (LoGerfo, 2004).

Teachers are important cornerstones of the education system and they have the key role in providing quality education to the students. However, this is possible if the teachers are motivated enough to do that (Rasheed, Aslam, & Sarwar, 2010). Since teacher motivation is an important component of instructional effectiveness, it still requires much attention. Additionally, though teacher responsibility is studied in relation to different issues, teachers' personal features such as their motivation levels have not been focused so much. Considering those, the motivation level of instructors was studied as the third predictor in this study.

English proficiency score has been studied generally with teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in the past studies. However, examining to what extent it predicts teachers' responsibility perceptions will bring novel contributions to the teacher responsibility literature. Besides, together with the other variables, the study will be a good descriptive source of English instructors working at English language preparatory schools in Ankara.

Last but not the least, as Lauermann and Karabenick (2011) asserted, the study of teacher responsibility has a clarifying role in the educational policy discussion and provides implications for instruction, teacher motivation, and students' learning results.

1.4 Definition of Terms

Definitions of the variables and some key words in this study are presented below:

English (Language) Proficiency: In the present study, English proficiency refers to instructors' language scores taken from official exams such as YDS, TOEFL and IELTS.

English Language Preparatory School Instructors: English language preparatory school instructors are the instructors who are currently working at schools of foreign languages at universities to teach English as a foreign language. In this study, the terms teacher and instructor are used interchangeably.

Teacher Responsibility: Responsibility is an attribution reference that is reflective and directed toward the past. It is a teacher's belief that "I made this happen."(Guskey, 1987).

Teacher Self-Efficacy: "The teacher's belief in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context" (Tschannen-Moran et al.,1998, p.223).

Motivation: "The dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritized, operationalized, and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out" (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998, p.64).

Teacher Motivation: Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) defined teacher motivation as teachers' eagerness and devotion to teaching a language.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In this chapter, the relevant literature regarding the purpose of this study is summarized. Firstly, teacher responsibility is discussed. Secondly, teacher responsibility is dealt with considering the factors that affect it. Among these factors, instructors' self-efficacy beliefs and instructors' motivation level are explained. Lastly, relevant studies from Turkey and abroad are summarized.

2.1. Teachers' Sense of Responsibility

Responsibility subject has been investigated in different fields including psychology, philosophy and sociology through various viewpoints which yield distinctive conceptualizations and meanings of it. According to Lauermann and Karabenick (2013), the concept of responsibility can be understood from two perspectives: either it is a construct that some people are expected to have more than others, or it is a construct that shows differences considering the result of an action. Lauermann and Karabenick (2011) also suggested that responsibility is goal oriented, which is either to reach an outcome or to hinder an undesired outcome. Additionally, Lauermann (2013) added that perceptions of internal control on external results and beliefs in the ability to reach pre-determined results tend to increase the readiness to take responsibility. This kind of acceptance is possible because first of all, one thinks that s/he is able to discharge the responsibility and secondly since there is less worry over failure, this decreases the tendency to withdraw or deny the responsibility to deter away from blaming oneself.

It is undoubted that sense of responsibility is essential for both social and professional contexts including both formal and informal relationships. Teaching is a profession that has some professional standards and teachers are naturally

responsible for satisfying these professional standards as well. To whom and to what does a teacher have responsibility? This is a debated topic. However, it cannot be denied that teachers are foremost responsible to their learners. They must satisfy their students' different needs, support their students' professional and psychological development, and ensure the quality of instruction. Secondly, teachers are responsible to their students' parents and they need to work in collaboration with them (Maphosa, Mutekwe, Machingambi, Wadesango, & Ndofirepi, 2012). Thirdly, teachers are responsible to the government through Ministry of Education as an employer in Turkey (MEB Mevzuat, 1973).

Likewise, in education field, there is no common ground considering the definition and judgement of teacher responsibility. In past studies, responsibility has been operationally defined considering five orientations, which are "internal versus external attributions of causality and control, single-item measures of responsibility, responsibility for specific outcomes such as education about multiculturalism and diversity, generic measures of responsibility used with teachers, and measures of collective teacher responsibility" (Lauermann & Karabenick, 2013, p. 14). However, each approach has its own weaknesses and strengths in itself.

The first approach "Responsibility as a locus of control" can be seen in Guskey's (1981) and Rose and Medway's assessment of teacher responsibility (Lauermann & Karabenick, 2013). In this perspective, teacher responsibility is to what degree teachers see themselves as the reason of positive or negative classroom results against external elements which they cannot control. Therefore, responsibility is defined by attributing to internal and controllable causes like teacher's behavior and positively related to teacher self-efficacy (Lauermann & Karabenick, 2013). Rose and Medway (1981b) grouped teachers' sense of reason for student performance into two: group one includes internal factors which are related to the teacher such as teaching ability and effort while group two consists of external factors such as student ability and student enthusiasm. Rose and Medway (1981a) also stated that teachers' locus of control affects their behaviors against their students and suggested that teachers with higher internal locus of control tend to assume more responsibility.

In the second perspective, single items are used to measure responsibility and teachers are asked to assess their responsibility perceptions for a student's success. However, single items are not enough to measure responsibility which is a multi-dimensional construct on the grounds that either the focus is on a single event or a single situation. In the third approach, teacher responsibility is measured for specific educational situations such as responsibility to provide education about cultural issues and diversity, or responsibility for the training of students with special needs. In this approach, teachers' responsibility is assessed as the eagerness to acknowledge students' unpleasant acts and deal with them with or without technical assistance. However, in these studies, the culture construct may not be effectively defined. Therefore, its relationship with responsibility is still unclear. In the fourth perspective, which is generic measure of responsibility, responsibility refers to overall sense of responsibility which is not connected to any result and the overall degree of responsibility is assessed with no reference to specific outcomes. Lastly, in collective teacher responsibility (responsibility shared among teachers), instead of personal responsibility, responsibility is evaluated considering teachers' sense of how many of their colleagues take responsibility for various instructional results (Lauermann and Karabenick, 2013). Lee and Smith (1996) proposed that students' success levels significantly differ when teachers show collective responsibility for their students' achievement levels and do not accuse them of their failures.

In addition to these five perspectives towards teacher responsibility, based on their own framework, the definifiton of responsibility for Lauermann and Karabenick (2011) is "A sense of internal obligation and commitment to produce or prevent designated outcomes or that these outcomes should have been produced or prevented" (p. 135). That means the meaning of responsibility differs from person to person. It can be either approach vs. avoidance oriented or future oriented vs. retrospective (Lauermann & Karabenick, 2011). They also grouped the elements influencing personal responsibility perceptions into two: contextual and personal factors. The first group consists of "job autonomy, position in organizational hierarchy, availability and distribution of sources and role ambiguity, conflict, overload" (p. 136). The second group includes "perceived

organizational support, proactive personality, internal locus of control, self-efficacy, trust and work ethic" (p.136). They claimed that the sense of internal control over results and one's ideas of his/her own ability to reach a performance increase the wish to accept responsibility. Additionally, they differentiated internal responsibility from imposed responsibility and stated that imposed responsibility does not ensure personal commitment.

LoGerfo (2004) stated that teacher responsibility, teacher self-efficacy and teacher locus of control are three factors that can be confused. Similarly, Ross (1995) utilized these three concepts to define teachers with high self-efficacy, the one who "…. take responsibility for the outcomes of their actions, attributing success and failure to their own efforts rather than to factors beyond their control" (p.228). Considering the uncertainity in the meaning of responsibility, it is significant to differentiate responsibility from other concepts. LoGerfo (2004) distinguished teacher responsibility from teacher self-efficacy and teacher locus of control. She stated that different from self-efficacy beliefs of teachers, responsibility is not teachers' judgement of their instructional efficiency. Besides, different from locus of control, responsibility is not only attribution of a cause to an internal or external factor. Responsibility shows a teacher's eagerness to enable his students learn and this eagerness is shaped through a process. Teachers think about the expected outcomes, realize what affects these results, judge the possibility of being successful, and consider the pros and cons of taking responsibility for these results.

Guskey (1987) also differentiated efficacy from teacher responsibility with the following definitions, "Efficacy typically refers to projected potency in a particular situation. It is an expectation that is generally present or future directed. It is a teacher's belief that I can make this happen. Responsibility, on the other hand, is an attribution reference that is reflective and directed toward the past. It is a teacher's belief that I made this happen" (p. 41). In support with the distinction, Lauermann and Karabenick (2013) also suggested that a thought that someone can do something does not ensure that person takes responsibility to act in this way, so it is important to differentiate responsibility from efficacy.

In this study, the first approach "Responsibility as a locus of control" which was seen in Guskey's (1981) perspective was adopted. Actually, Guskey's responsibility concept is based on attribution theory. This is a theory about how individuals comment on the events and how this is related to their thoughts and actions. That is, attribution theorists are mostly concerned with causality perceptions, which are the perceived reasons for the happening of a specific event. Based on this theory, Weiner and his colleagues proposed some factors behind causal perceptions and attributions (Weiner, 1976) and suggested the attribution of responsibility to different factors affects the next behavior (Weiner, 1972). In a success-related event, there are four reasons to be used to comment on the results of that particular event. These four causes are ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck. That is, to be able to interpret the result of a future or past event as success or failure, the estimation of the performer's level of ability, the effort spent, the difficulty of task, and the amount of luck should be taken into consideration (Weiner, 1976). In attribution theory, attributions are classified along three causal dimensions: locus of control, stability and intentionality. In the first dimension, causal elements are classified in terms of their internality and externality which is similar to Rotter's locus of control concept. Rotter's internal-external locus of control relates to whether individuals think that they can control the events or not. According to Rotter (1966), people with internal locus of control believe they have a control over their life while people with external locus of control believe that their life is controlled by external factors. In attributions continuum, ability and effort fall into internal part while luck and task difficulty fall into external part. The second dimension in Weiner's model is concerned whether the attributions changes over time or not, which categories the factors as stable or unstable. Two dimensions together comprise four general categories of causes, which are ability (internal/stable), effort (internal/unstable), the difficulty of the task (external/stable), and/or good or bad luck (external/unstable) (Weiner, 1976). Cooper and Burger (1980) offered "personal efficacy," as another dimension. However, most of the studies focused on Weiner's first two dimensions and four elements (Guskey, 1982).

Attribution conceptions were found to be useful to account for classroom manners. Weiner (1972) proposed that causal attributions have an effect on showing achievement-related behaviors, the amount of work and the amount of persistence in the case of failure. Additionally, they can increase the academic achievement of the students (Bar-Tal, 1978). Furthermore, attributions of responsibility have an effect on the quality and the quantity of the reinforcement given by the teachers (Meyer, 1979; Weiner, 1972).

Weiner (1979) proposed that teachers' perceptions of responsibility might mediate the relationship between teachers' sense of efficacy and their behaviors. Besides, Brophy (1982) suggested that effective teachers "accept the responsibility for teaching their students" (p.527). This responsibility brings higher commitment to guarantee the learning of their students. When a teacher sees that a positive learning outcome is the result of his effort, this results in increase in the personal responsibility for the outcome and confidence for future tasks (Guskey, 1984).

Guskey (1980) asserted that there were many studies for students' ideas related to their own control of reinforcements in academic and school related situations, but there was no specific responsibility scale in regards to academic performance. Considering this need, he constructed a Responsibility for Student Achievement scale. Depending on this scale, Guskey (1981) suggested that teachers who had a high sense of efficacy took more responsibility for students' both success and failure, while teachers who had a low sense of efficacy put the blame on external factors for students' failure. Guskey (1981) found low relationship between teacher responsibility for students' success and teacher responsibility for students' failure.

2.2. Teacher Self-Efficacy

Social cognitive theory, which focuses on the role of the human agency, proposes that people have some beliefs about their capabilities (efficacy beliefs) to make something happen via their own behaviors (Ng & Lucianetti, 2015). This theory explains the origins, processes, influences of efficacy beliefs and helps to develop and increase them (Bandura, 1995). The definition of perceived self-efficacy is "people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of

performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives" (Bandura, 1994, p.1). The self-efficacy beliefs affect the way that people feel, think, act and motivate through cognitive, motivational, affective and selection processes (Bandura, 1994). As Pajares (1992) points out, "how people behave can often be better predicted by the beliefs they hold about their capabilities than by what they are actually capable of accomplishing, for these self-efficacy perceptions help determine what individuals do with the knowledge and skills they have" (p.4).

According to Bandura (1995), efficacy beliefs come from four major sources: "enactive mastery experiences, vicarious learning experiences, verbal persuasion and physiological arousal" (p.3-4). Enactive mastery experiences refer to the success and failure in performing an action on your own. While success increases one's personal belief, failure may decrease it. Having self-efficacy beliefs through mastery experiences includes cognitive, behavioral and self-regulatory processes. The second effective way to develop efficacy beliefs is vicarious learning experiences which come from observing other people's behaviors. The success and failure of the model while performing a task influence the observers' belief in their own capabilities and motivation to master similar activities. The impact of the modeling depends on how much the observer perceives himself similar to the model. The third source is verbal persuasion. When people are verbally encouraged to complete a task, they tend to put more effort in it and sustain it. Lastly, people depend on their physiological and emotional states while evaluating their abilities. Mood also affects people's judgments. Whereas positive mood increases the perception of self-efficacy, negative mood decreases it.

Over the last century, teacher self-efficacy has been considered as an important variable in instructional effectiveness and studied by many researchers (Guskey & Passaro, 1994). In accordance with the general description of self-efficacy beliefs, Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) defined teacher self-efficacy as "the teacher's belief in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context" (p. 203). Guskey and Passaro (1994) proposed the following definition for teacher self-efficacy, "teachers' belief or conviction that they can

influence how well students learn, even those who may be difficult or unmotivated" (p.169).

Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) proposed teacher self-efficacy had its historical roots in two theories: Rotter's locus of control and Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory. In their model, they offered that teacher self-efficacy has a cyclical nature. When teachers have great efficacy, they present more effort and persistence which result in better performance, which results in improvement in efficacy. However, if they have less efficacy, then they show less effort which may result in poor instructional results, which decreases the efficacy level. They also reported that teachers who have high level of efficacy can control and influence their students' motivation and success. They asserted that teachers with high efficacy level reported trust into their capabilities to instruct students who are not motivated and have more internal locus of control for their students' both success and failure.

In the literature, teacher self-efficacy has been studied with different instructional concepts in various contexts. Lee and Smith (1996) stated that items that measure teacher self-efficacy, locus of control and responsibility created one construct, which promotes that these factors are both conceptually and experimentally interconnected.

Bandura (1978) suggested a theory about the mutual relation between teacher self-efficacy and teacher act. According to this theory, teachers' self-efficacy beliefs influence their classroom behaviors and the results of these behaviors affect the self-efficacy beliefs of the teachers in turn. Guskey (1984) also proposed a similar idea. He contended that increase in teachers' self-efficacy beliefs were related to the positive changes in the responsibility perceptions for students' success and failure, which results in a positive impact on teaching. Guskey (1988) also asserted that teachers with a high level of teaching efficacy are sure of their teaching abilities and these teachers seem to accept the implementation of new instructional practices related to mastery learning while the ones with lower level of teaching efficacy do not tend to accept this implementation easily.

Clark (1999) suggested that teacher self-efficacy and teachers' causal attributions for student learning outcomes influence teachers' perceptions of responsibility for the problem and their attitudes towards students. In Clark's study, the results showed that special education teachers asserted that the success of the students with disabilities is under their control while the regular education teachers told achievement level of the students having inabilities depend on the learning disabilities that they could not control. In Clark's another study (1997), it was found that teachers attributed the low achievement level of students with disabilities to their abilities while attributing the low achievement level of students without disabilities to their own effort.

Hall, Villeme and Burley (1989) stressed that when teachers have high level of teacher self-efficacy, they see themselves responsible for their students' learning results no matter what the result is; it can be either failure or success and they also stated that the reason might be the fact that these teachers perceive these unsuccessful students as a challenge rather than a threat.

Silverman (2010) asserted that in research of self-efficacy, the motivation factor which directs the decision to do or not to do an action has been the missing part obviously. Notably missing from studies of self-efficacy, a motivational component guides decisions about whether to engage in actions or not. According to him, this motivator is the sense of responsibility. He stated that responsibility perception could be a strong predictor of opinions about results and efficacy because when someone's responsibility perception is high, that person may act in a specific way even without confidence in his own ability to reach the desired results efficiently. Additionally, responsibility can be a motivating factor behind deciding to take an action for which someone feels capable.

2.3. Motivation

Many researchers think that there is a huge variety in the definitions of what motivation is and what is not and it seems a bit inconclusive since each researcher sees motivation from various perspectives. Motivation is a construct to describe why we behave in a certain way, or why we think in a distinct way. The word motivation comes from motive, which derives from the Latin word "*movere"*,

which means to move. Motivation is the total of what moves a person to action (Mclean, 2003). Pintrich and Schunk (1996) stated that motivation is a dynamic process during which goal-directed activity is maintained.

In parallel with the variety of definitions of motivation, there are various motivation theories in the literature as well: Self Determination Theory (SDT), Behavior Reinforcement Theory, Need Theory, Achievement Goal Theory, Gardner's Motivation Theory, Expectancy Value Theory (Fidan, 2014). Each motivation theory relies on some hypothesis about the nature of the people and the driving elements behind taking any action (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

A possibly helpful theory to discover teacher motivation is Deci and Ryan (1985)'s the Self-Determination Theory (Fidan, 2014). According to Deci and Ryan (1985), self determination is a characteristic of human being that requires the experience of choice. In other words, "Self determination is the capacity to choose and to have those choices, rather than reinforcement contingencies, drives, or any other forces, or pressures, be the determinants' of one's action" (p. 38). SDT emphasizes both goal-directed behaviors and psychological development of a human. Deci and Ryan (2000b) highlighted the psychological needs rather than physiological needs and similar to Murray tradition (1938), they defined needs as "innate psychological nutriments that are essential for ongoing psychological growth, integrity, and well-being" (Deci & Ryan, 2000b, p.229). SDT focuses on three psychological needs: competence, relatedness and autonomy to find out what (content) and why (process) of following an objective and proposes the requirement of satisfying these needs for the well being of any human being in any culture (Deci & Ryan, 2000b).

In SDT, Deci and Ryan (2000a) differentiated the types of motivation considering the impetus of the action. The most fundamental types of motivation are "*intrinsic motivation*, which refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable and *extrinsic motivation*, which refers to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome" (p.55). According to Deci and Ryan (1985), intrinsic motivation is related to engaging in an activity since it gives enjoyment and satisfaction. Actions based on extrinsic motivation are the ones

done for achieving an instrumental aim, such as receiving a reward. However, this kind of motivation does not bring a lack of self-determination in the actions.

According to Koestner and McClelland (1990), studies on intrinsic motivation revealed that intrinsic motivation will be very high when the situation leads to challenge, competence, and self-determination emotions. By contrast, events that lead to feelings of incompetence are likely to destroy intrinsic motivation (Nakanishi, 2002).

On the other hand, extrinsic motivation refers to "performing a behavior as a means to some separable end, such as receiving an extrinsic reward (e.g. good grades) or avoiding punishment" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p.23). Therefore, extrinsic motivation contradicts with intrinsic motivation since it refers to doing a task because of the instrumental value not because of liking the task itself (Deci & Ryan, 2000a). Extrinsic motivation is divided into four types by Deci and Ryan (2000a): external, introjected, identified, and integrated forms of regulation. Extrinsic motivation types differ from each other depending on how much they propose self-determination. Internalization and integration are two basic processes through which extrinsically motivated actions get more self-determined. There is also a third type of motivation which is *amotivation* which refers to not having any kind of motivation. If a person is amotivated, his actions do not have any intentionality or a sense of personal causation.

2.3.1. Teacher Motivation

Regarding the teacher motivation, much attention has not been given to it in both educational psychology and second language education literature. Generally speaking, most of the research in teacher education investigated the influence of teacher education on student motivation and success (Mifsud, 2011). Considering the literature on teacher motivation, there are three outstanding research topics: choosing teaching as a career, problems during teaching, what influences the development of teachers and students. In fact, to be able to understand teacher motivation, not much great effort is necessary since teaching is also a human action and general theories of motivation can be applied while describing and explaining

teacher motivation and SDT is among the most suitable motivation theories that can be utilized in the context of teacher motivation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

Regarding the literature, there are different factors that have an impact on teacher's motivation. According to Pelletier, Levesque, and Legault (2002), there are three types of pressure that affect teachers' self-determined motivation:

> Being responsible for students' behavior and students performing up to standards.
> Being forced to follow colleagues' teaching methods or involvement in school activities.
> Having limited freedom in determining the course's curriculum or following a certain curriculum decided by the school's administration (p.193).

When we consider the psychological needs –autonomy, relatedness, competence- offered by SDT regarding the intrinsic motivation, teaching satisfies autonomy and relatedness in some ways since teachers have autonomy in class to some extent while dealing with the student and the school environment provides profound human relationship with staff and students. However, the third component competence is important and it refers to teachers' both teaching efficacy and self-efficacy beliefs (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). According to Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011), the intrinsic component of teacher motivation includes the joy of having a meaningful activity in an area that you are interested, having autonomy while pursuing this activity in a community which consists of members with equal responsibilities, teaching efficacy, getting feedback regarding performance and goals. Personal challenge, personal growths, service to society, delivering knowledge are among some other intrinsic motivation elements for English teachers as well (Yau, 2010).

When it comes to the extrinsic component of teacher motivation, Erkaya (2013) explained the extrinsic factors that motivate English teachers who work at Turkish universities as physical working environment, colleagues, classrooms, salary, management, and students. Some other important extrinsic motivation factors are workload, social status, career prospects, job security, support from administration, relationships with other teachers and students (Yau, 2010).

Dinham and Scott (as cited in Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p.163-164) offered micro and macro level factors that influence the teacher motivation:

School-based extrinsic factors (micro-level) exert a varied impact, ranging between satisfying and dissatisfying, primarily as a function of the school leadership;
Systemic/societal-level factors (macro-level) such as the status and image of teachers or imposed educational changes, over which teachers and school have little control, function primarily as dissatisfiers.

Additionally, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) referred to two other aspects of teacher motivation: temporal dimension and negative influences. Teacher motivation is not just to have motivation to teach but it is also related to continuing teaching as a lifelong profession. Current achievements should lead to further steps in career, in this way, the career path will be open and both external and internal motives are very important in this process. Pennington (1995) presented a 'sample career ladder' to create possible paths in language education. The steps are:

- the increased variety of courses taught;
- contribution to curriculum development;
- monitoring role with new faculty;
- being in charge of developing new courses/programs;
- making conference presentations and/or preparing professional publications;
- serving as teaching consultant within and/or outside the institution;
- conducting teacher-training workshops (in-service programs);
- developing materials for use in the home institutions and elsewhere (p.209-210).

Negative influences are some de-motivating factors that decrease teacher's motivation level. These factors are listed by Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) as following:

- the particularly stressful nature of most teaching jobs;
- the inhibition of teacher autonomy by set curricula, standardized tests, imposed teaching methods, government mandated policies and other institutional constraints;
- insufficient self-efficacy on most teachers' part due to inappropriate training;
- content repetitiveness and limited potential for intellectual development;
- inadequate career structures (p. 168).

Lauermann and Karabenick (2014) stated that personal responsibility is related to a person's pscyhological wellness, performance, in this way, his emotions and motivation. According to Lauermann (2013), responsibility studies complete the studies regarding teacher motivation in a way since it focuses on an

important source of motivation which has not taken much attention in the literature, which is the perception of internal obligation and duty.

In Job characteristics model by Hackman and Oldham (1976), responsibility is seen as a mediator between the features of the job setting and some results such as work performance and work satisfaction. Besides, responsibility perceptions were found to be a mediator in the relationship between work autonomy, work motivation, and work performance (Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007) Additionally, with an adapted version of Job Diagnostic Survey, Winter, Brenner, and Petrosko (2006) found that teacher autonomy, experienced responsibility for the job, knowledge of the outcomes from the job and experienced meaningfulness of the job explained the 46% of the variance in teacher job satisfaction. However, Aliakbari and Kafshgar (2013) found no significant relationship between teachers' sense of responsibility and job satisfaction.

Guskey (1980) proposed that responsibility may be among the motivational factors that impact on teachers' performance in the class. When a student has a sense of responsibility for his success and failure, he may show more effort and persistence when faced with a difficulty while pursuing a reward, in the same way, a teacher who has a responsibility for his students' success and failure shows more attempts for his students' success and more effort to deal with the problems of the classroom. Besides, Guskey (1981) proposed that belief in self-responsibility might create a motivation for the classroom performance of teachers. Teachers with high responsibility for success and failure might show great effort for dealing with students and struggling with their problems. Helker and Wosnitza (2014) also proposed that responsibility perceptions have important motivational insights for a person's behaviors since a person who is responsible for an act probably see himself as self-determined and so show more effort for a particular work. Lastly, Lauermann (2014) stated that teachers reported that responsibility had important motivational results regarding effort investment, persistence, and commitment to students, but that might also result in hard work, lack of sleep, and less family time.

Overall, though there have been some links between teacher responsibility and teacher motivation in the literarure, there has not been enough explanation in the literature concerning responsibility's influence on teacher motivation, affection

and attitudes (Lauermann & Karabenick, 2011), so the link needs to be made stronger with more studies on these constructs.

2.4. Research on Teachers' Sense of Responsibility for Students' Success and Failure

First of all, the review of literature shows that studies on teacher responsibility in Teaching English as Foreign Language (TEFL) field is limited. Considering its importance, teacher responsibility needs more attention in TEFL context. The relevant literature shows that some importance has been given to the relationship between self-efficacy beliefs of teachers and their responsibility perceptions for students' achievement. Besides, the studies about responsibility perceptions for students' achievement included different variables and yielded different results.

To start with, in one study conducted in eight elementary schools, six of which had improvement in student success while two of which had decrease in student success, the aim was to identify the factors that influence students' achievement level. The data were collected through questionnaires and interviews. The results showed that teachers in improving schools took more responsibility for student learning than teachers in the declining schools. They put the responsibility on the parents and students. Besides, surprisingly, teachers in the declining schools were more satisfied and had higher morale than the teachers in the improving schools (Brookover & Lezotte, 1979). Similarly, Collins (2010) compared two different groups of teachers (national board certified teachers vs non-national board certified teachers) in terms of their sense of responsibility for student achievement with respect to engagement, expectations, feedback, motivation and teaching methods. 100 teachers for each group were randomly selected considering the criterion that they had at least 3 years of experience. The data collection instrument was Teachers Perceived Responsibility for Student Achievement Survey, a revised form of Guskey (1981)'s Responsibility for Student Achievement Survey. T test results showed that two groups' sense of responsibility for student achievement significantly differed in terms of expectations, feedback, motivation and teaching methods but not engagement. Besides, Guskey (1982) compared elementary and

secondary school teachers and investigated how teachers' perceptions of their control on success and failure change in regards to overall efficacy, grade level taught, gender and experience. The study was conducted with 184 teachers. The results showed that considering the success, teachers attributed the success to their own abilities and effort while they attributed failure to students and external factors; mostly to the task difficulty. Besides, secondary school teachers' attribution to success and failure showed significant difference from elementary school teachers' attributions. In terms of teachers' attribution of success and failure, in Matteucci's study (2007) with 119 high school teachers, results again showed that teachers attributed significantly more responsibility to unsuccessful students in case of lack of effort than they did in case of poor ability. Besides, teachers did not take any personal responsibility for students' failure in any cases. Similarly, 62 teacher participants stated that they had more roles in their students' success than failure. On the other side, in the studies of Ross, Bierbrauer and Polly (1974), Ames (1975), and Beckman (1973), teachers felt more responsible for their students' failure rather than success.

As the developer of Responsibility for Student Achievement Scale, Guskey conducted many other studies among elementary and secondary school teachers. Firstly, Guskey (1981) conducted a study with 215 teachers working in elementary and secondary level schools by using Responsibility for Student Achievement Scale. Three-way ANOVA was run to find out if there existed any interactive effect between the gender, experience and grade level taught. He concluded that female teachers showed more responsibility for positive learning results than male teachers. Besides, responsibility scores did not differ significantly by experience and grade level taught. He concluded when performance outcome was negative, teachers felt less responsible for one student than a group of students. Similarly, in LoGerfo's study (2004), no relationship was found between first grade teachers' years of experience and their responsibility perceptions for their students' well being. LoGerfo (2004) also concluded that teacher responsibility and job satisfaction were significantly and positively related. However, Brady and Woolfson stated that (2008) teachers with 15 or more years of teaching experience

tended to attribute students' learning troubles to causes concerning students when compared with less experienced counterparts.

In another study, Guskey (1987) examined the variables influencing assesment of teacher self-efficacy. Data were collected from 114 experienced teachers working in elementary and secondary schools through a revised version of Responsibility for Student Achievement Scale (RSA) by Guskey (1981), an adapted version of Self-Observational Scales by Katzenmeyer and Stenner (1974) and Self-Concept Scale developed by the researcher. Results showed that teachers took significantly less responsibility for single unsuccessful student than a group of students. In his another experimental study with 52 secondary school teachers, MANOVA results showed using mastery learning caused positive change in teachers' instructional effectiveness and when the teachers became more effective in their teaching, they showed more responsibility for students' learning outcomes (Guskey, 1984).

In addition to investigating teachers' sense of responsibility in relation to gender, teacher efficacy, experience, grade level taught, some other researchers tried to find out the relationship between teachers' sense of responsibility and some other variables such as teachers' perceived empowerment, teachers' expectations and teachers' transformational leadership style. Regarding teachers' perceived empowerment, Jackson-Crossland (2000) conducted a study with 271 teachers in twelve different schools. The results showed that teacher empowerment was significantly related to responsibility for student success but not related to responsibility for students' failure. In terms of student achievement, no significant relationship was found between teachers' sense of responsibility for students' success and students' success in achievement test. Concerning teachers' expectations, the results showed that except one school, teachers' perception of responsibility for student learning was higher when they thought their students had more learning sources while their responsibility perceptions were less when teacher thought their students did not possess motivation and varied skills (Diamond, Randolph, & Spillane, 2004). However, Scott and Teddlie (1987) found that teacher expectation is not a significant predictor of teacher attributions of responsibility. As for teachers' transformational leadership style, in Khany and

Ghoreishi (2014)' s study with 183 Iranian teachers, the data were collected through Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1995) and Teachers' Responsibility Scale (Lauermann & Karabenick, 2013). Spearman correlation and linear regression analysis results showed that Iranian EFL teachers' transformational leadership type is significantly related to their responsibility perceptions. Besides, transformational leadership style positively predicted the sense of responsibility.

When it comes to the studies conducted in Turkey, most of the studies were prevelant among pre-service teachers and Biology teachers. To begin with, Güvenç (2011) conducted a study with 144 student teachers in Çanakkale to investigate the pre-service teachers' responsibility perceptions for student achievement in terms of gender and department. The data collection instrument was Responsibility for Student Achievement (developed by the researcher). It was found teacher candidates' perceptions of responsibility for students' success and failure showed significant difference in terms of department but not gender. Similarly, Ekici (2013) conducted another study with 337 student teachers from different departments at Gazi University to analyze teacher candidates' responsibility perceptions regarding various variables. Data collection instruments were Responsibility Perception Scale of Teachers' for Student Achievement, the Scale of Teacher Sense of Efficacy, the Scale of Attitudes towards Teaching Profession and the Scale of Academic Self-Efficacy. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), t-test for independent groups, Pearson Correlation Coefficient and Tukey HSD test to define the source of variation were conducted for the data analysis. The results showed that teacher candidates' responsibility senses for students' success and failure significantly differed in terms of gender, grade level and overall academic success while there was not a significant difference in regards to self-efficacy of teaching, attitude towards teaching and academic self-efficacy. Besides, it was found that there was a positive and low relationship between teacher candidates' responsibility perceptions of student success and academic self-efficacy perceptions, attitudes towards teaching profession, classrooms, overall academic success levels. Regarding the relationship between student teachers' self-efficacy perceptions, self-efficacy perceptions regarding teaching process and responsibility

perception for student achievement, Kurt, Güngör and Ekici (2014) conducted another study with the following instruments: Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001), The Scale of Self-efficacy Beliefs of Student Teachers regarding Teaching Process scale (Özdemir, 2008), and The Scale of Responsibility Perception for Student Achievement (Guskey, 1981). The participants were 246 student teachers from different departments of Gazi university. Independent samples t-test and Pearson correlation analyses revealed that gender had an effect on teacher candidates' responsibility perceptions of students' success and failure, and there was a positive and medium correlation between responsibility perceptions of student success and their self-efficacy perceptions.

In some other studies among student teachers, the effect of some pre-service education courses on teacher candidates' responsibility perceptions for students' achievement was investigated. Kurt and Ekici (2013) investigated the effect of classroom management course on teacher candidates' responsibility perception for students' achievement. The data were collected from 215 student teachers through Responsibility for Student Achievement Scale (RSA) by Guskey (1981), Academic Self-Efficacy Scale adapeted by Yılmaz, Gürçay and Ekici (2007), Attitudes toward Classroom Management Course (Ekici, 2008) and interviews. A pre and post test design was preferred in the study. To analyze the data, independent t-test, effect size, correlation coefficient, dependent t-test and one-way variance of analysis (ANOVA) were conducted. The results showed that classroom management course did not affect the teacher candidates' responsibility perception for students' achievement. Besides, the results showed no significant differences regarding students' academic achievement, the high schools students graduated from, academic self-efficacy perceptions, students' attitudes towards classroom management course. However, in the interview, the student teachers stated that the responsibility for students' success and failure initially should belong to the teachers. Besides, Ekici (2014) conducted a qualitative study with 46 pre-service teachers of Biology about their opinions of teachers' responsibility for students' success and failure. Content analysis results showed that student teachers think that teachers are responsible for both success and failure. They also stated that

pedagogical courses especially “School Experience” and “Internship” courses were effective in the development of sense of responsibility for student success and failure.

Lastly, Eren (2014) looked at student teachers’ personal responsibility, academic optimism, hope, and emotions about teaching. Data were collected from 455 students through teacher responsibility scale developed by Lauermann and Karabenick, (2013) and three other scales for academic optimism, hope, and emotions about teaching. Results showed that there was a significant positive relationship between responsibility for student achievement, hope and student teachers’ emotions about teaching.

When it comes to the studies among experienced teachers, first of all, Ekici (2012b) investigated the effect of gender and seniority on teachers’ responsibility perceptions of student achievement. The study was conducted with 86 biology teachers working in different secondary schools in Ankara. Data were analyzed through Independent samples t-test and Pearson correlation coefficient. Responsibility for Student Achievement Scale (RSA) by Guskey (1981) was the data collection instrument. The results showed that gender did not have a significant effect on teachers’ responsibility perceptions. However, seniority had a significant effect on teachers’ overall responsibility perceptions, responsibility perceptions for students’ success and responsibility perceptions for students’ failure. In another study with 82 biology teachers in Ankara, Aktaş, Aksu, Ekici and Kurt (2013) tried to find out to what extent gender and experience predict teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs regarding education and responsibility senses for students’ achievement. Pearson Correlation Coefficient and linear regression analysis were conducted. The results showed that 11.4% of the variance in teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs regarding education and 9.1% of the total variance in sense of responsibility was accounted for by gender. On the other hand, 13.6% of the variance in teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs regarding education and 8.7% of the total variance in sense of responsibility was accounted for by experience.

Kurt (2013a) also conducted a study with 117 biology teachers in Ankara to investigate teachers’ sense of responsibility for students’ success and failure considering several variables. Data were analyzed through one-way variance

analysis, independent groups t-test, Pearson Correlation and content analysis. The results showed that teachers felt more responsible for their students' success than failure. Besides, there was not a significant difference in overall responsibility perceptions of teachers, responsibility perceptions for success and failure separately in terms of gender, self-efficacy beliefs in teaching profession and attitutes toward teaching profession. On the other hand, experience significantly affected teachers' overall responsibility perceptions while class size had a significant effect on teachers' responsibility perceptions for success. Kurt's study (2013a) indicated that teachers who taught crowded classes took significantly more responsibility for students' success than failure. Additionally, the results showed that there was a significant relationship between experience and overall sense of responsibility while there was no significant relationship between experience and sense of responsibility for students' success and failure separately. Besides, it was found that there was a positive and significant relationship between teachers' overall responsibility perceptions and class size, attitudes toward teaching profession and self-efficacy beliefs in teaching profession.

Lastly, Kurt 2013(b) analyzed biology teachers' responsibility perceptions for student achievement in terms of classroom management profiles. 117 Biology teachers participated into the study. The data were collected through Responsibility for Student Achievement Scale (RSA) by Guskey (1981), Classroom Management Profile Scale adapted by Ekici (2004) and Pearson Correlation Coefficient was computed for the analysis. The results showed that biology teachers' responsibility perceptions for student achievement are significantly related to their classroom management profiles.

2.5. Summary

Shortly, the literature review part provided theoretical information about teacher responsibility, teacher self-efficacy, teacher motivation and the studies concerning teacher responsibility, which were conducted in different contexts.

Firstly, the concept of teacher responsibility is tried to be clarified by giving varied definitions. The conception of responsibility is explained by focusing on

attribution theory. In addition to that, the notion of teachers' causal attributions for students' performance is pointed out as well.

Secondly, teaching efficacy is dealt with. Some different definitions of this concept are provided. Bandura's social cognitive theory and self-efficacy beliefs are discussed to some extent and the possible relationship between teacher responsibility and teaching efficacy is tried to be made clear since these terms are sometimes used interchangeably in the literature. Thirdly, motivation and teacher motivation are discussed. In the light of Self-Determination theory, intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors are explained. It is seen that not much attention has been given to the relationship between teacher motivation and teacher responsibility. Instead, these constructs have been studied separately in the literature.

Last but not the least, the literature on teacher responsibility is discussed by giving different research examples in the chronological order. The literature on teacher responsibility in teaching English as second or foreign language field setting is limited. Regarding the profound effect of teachers' perceptions on teaching and learning environment, it is needed to study the three important perceptions of teachers - responsibility, teaching efficacy and motivation- together in TEFL setting.

Considering the participants in these studies, it can be said that participants were from varied educational levels: some of them are elementary or secondary school teachers (Akbaba-Altun, 2009; Brookover & Lezotte, 1979; Guskey, 1981, 1982, 1984, 1987) and high school teachers (Matteucci, 2007). Additionally, some other studies are prevalent among pre-service teachers especially in Turkish settings (Ekici, 2013; Ekici, 2014; Eren, 2014; Güvenç, 2011; Kurt & Ekici, 2013; Kurt, Güngör, & Ekici (2014); Sherman & Giles, 1981). It can be said that teacher responsibility studies have not been common among English instructors working at universities' language preparatory schools.

In a set of studies published between 1979 and 2014, teachers' sense of responsibility for achievement were studied in terms of different variables such as gender (Aktaş et al.,2013; Ekici, 2012b ; Guskey, 1981;), experience (Aktaş et al.,2013; Ekici, 2012b; Guskey,1981; Kurt, 2013a; Sherman& Giles, 1981), grade

level (Guskey, 1981), teaching efficacy (Guskey, 1982), teachers' classroom management profiles (Kurt,2013b), teachers' transformational leadership styles (Khany & Ghoreishi ,2014), teacher empowerment (Jackson-Crossland, 2000) and teacher expectations (Collins, 2010; Diamond, Randolph, & Spillane, 2004; Scott & Teddlie, 1987).

In the analysis of these factors, mostly the relationship between these variables and teachers' perceptions of responsibilty was concerned. Therefore, the most common research design was correlational design (Eren 2014; Guskey, 1981; Jackson-Crossland, 2000; Khany & Ghoreishi, 2014; Kurt, 2013b; Kurt, Güngör & Ekici, 2014; LaGerfo, 2004). Experimental design was also preferred in some studies (Ekici,2013; Guskey, 1981,1984; Kurt, 2013a; Kurt & Ekici, 2013). Based on the chosen research designs, the common data analysis method was computing Pearson correlation coefficient to find the relationship between teacher responsbility and another construct. In addition to those, Aktaş et al. (2013) utilized linear regression to find out to what extent gender and experience predict teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding education and responsibility senses for students' achievement. Besides, Khany and Ghoreishi (2014) used linear regression to find out to what extent transformational leadership style predicts the sense of responsibility. Additionally, some researchers used ANOVA (Guskey, 1981; Kurt, 2013a) and MANOVA (Guskey, 1984) to analyze the variance and its sources.

In these studies, mostly quantitative data were collected to answer the research questions. In a limited number of studies, interviews were conducted in addition to administering the questionnaires (Brookover & Lezotte, 1979; Kurt ,2013a; Kurt & Ekici, 2013). Regarding the instruments utilized in these studies, to assess teachers' responsibility perceptions for students' success and failure, the following instruments were commonly used in the studies mentioned above: Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control Scale (1966), Responsibility for Student Achievement Scale (Guskey,1981), Responsibility for Student Achievement Scale (Güvenç, 2011), and Teachers' Responsibility Scale (Lauermann & Karabenick, 2013).

Taking the information presented so far into consideration, it is clearly seen that studying teachers' responsibility perceptions in regards to teacher self-efficacy,

teacher motivation, teaching experience and English proficiency will significantly contribute to the concerned literature and TEFL field since it will provide an insight into the current situation in Turkey.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

In this chapter, the method of the study is presented. The chapter includes the design of the study, research questions, participants, data collection instruments, data collection procedure, data analysis procedure, and limitations of the study respectively.

3.1. Design of the Study

The main purpose of the study was to investigate English language preparatory school instructors' sense of responsibility for students' success and failure, the relationship between instructors' responsibility perceptions for students' success and failure and self-efficacy beliefs, and to what extent instructors' sense of responsibility for students' success and failure is predicted by the years of teaching experience, English proficiency scores, self-efficacy beliefs of instructors and their motivation level. To reach this aim, correlation research design was chosen. Correlation design was used because in this type of research design, the aim is "to describe the degree to which two or more quantitative variables are related" (Frankel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2011, p.331). In this study, the relationship between instructors' self-efficacy beliefs and sense of responsibility for students' success and failure was investigated and it was tried to find out to what extent the years of teaching experience, English proficiency scores, self-efficacy beliefs of instructors and their motivation level predict instructors' sense of responsibility for students' success and failure. This part of the study comprised the correlation design. In this study, there are one criterion variable and four predictor variables: the criterion variable is instructors' sense of responsibility for students' success and failure and predictor variables are years of teaching experience, English proficiency

scores, self-efficacy beliefs of instructors and their motivation level, which are continuous variables.

Instruments utilized in this study were selected after the relevant literature review on English language teaching, teacher responsibility, teacher self-efficacy and teacher motivation. Previously existing instruments, Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale by Çapa, Çakıroğlu, and Sarıkaya (2005), Responsibility for Student Achievement Scale by Ekici (2012a) and an adapted version of Teacher Motivation Scale by Tanrıverdi (2007) were utilized. Existing instruments were used because creating a new instrument requires a great deal of knowledge and expertise (Fraenkel et al., 2011).

Because the study consisted of English language instructors, the participants were university preparatory school instructors working in both public and foundation universities in Ankara. These universities are Middle East Technical University, Hacettepe University, Gazi University, Ankara University, Bilkent University, TOBB Unversity of Economics and Technology, Başkent University, Atılım University and Ufuk University. The data collection instrument was administered to participants who were present at the institutions at the time of data collection and volunteered. Moreover, the online version of the instrument was provided to instructors who would like to complete it online.

The results were analyzed and interpreted using descriptive and inferential techniques. Data analysis was done through SPSS 22.0 software. Firstly, descriptive statistics were computed. Then, regarding the inferential statistics, Pearson's product moment-correlation coefficient was computed and multiple regressions were conducted.

3.2. Research Questions

This study aimed to find out English language preparatory school instructors' sense of responsibility for students' success and failure and the factors that influence it. Specifically, the following research questions were formulated:

1. What is instructors' overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure?

1.1 What is instructors' sense of responsibility for students' success?

1.2 What is instructors' sense of responsibility for students' failure?

2. What is the relationship between instructors' self-efficacy beliefs and overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure?

2.1 What is the relationship between instructors' self-efficacy beliefs and sense of responsibility for students' success?

2.2 What is the relationship between instructors' self-efficacy beliefs and sense of responsibility for students' failure?

3. To what extent years of teaching experience, English proficiency scores, self-efficacy beliefs and motivation of instructors predict instructors' overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure?

3.1 To what extent years of teaching experience, English proficiency scores, self-efficacy beliefs and motivation of instructors predict instructors' sense of responsibility for students' success?

3.2 To what extent years of teaching experience, English proficiency scores, self-efficacy beliefs and motivation of instructors predict instructors' sense of responsibility for students' failure?

3.3. Participants

The entire population for this study was all English language instructors working in both public and foundation universities' language preparatory schools in Ankara. According to the information collected from web sites, there were approximately 965 university preparatory school instructors working in both public and foundation universities in Ankara. The distribution of the instructors according to universities is presented in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

Distribution of the English Instructors in Ankara by Universities

University	*n*	%
METU	147	15.23
Gazi University	95	9.85
Hacettepe University	96	9.95
Başkent University	155	16.06
Bilkent University	180	18.65
TOBB ETU	75	7.77
Ufuk University	22	2.28
Ankara University	105	10.88
Atılım University	90	9.33

The universities were selected based on some criteria. Firstly, the institutions should have at least ten years of history in English language teaching. Secondly, the institutions should have an established policy for language teaching such as having exemption, placement and proficiency exams, offering different programs to students at different English language levels, having regulations for disciplinary issues and having pre-determined conditions for successfully completing the preparatory class or repeating it. Thirdly, the institutions should have a common recruitment process which ensures that instructors have at least a bachelor degree in English Language teaching or related fields such as English Language and Literature, American Culture and Literature, English Linguistics, Translation and Interpretation. Lastly, practicality and accessibility were also taken into consideration. The following universities satisfied the criteria mentioned above: Middle East Technical University, Hacettepe University, Gazi University, Ankara University, Bilkent University, TOBB University of Economics and Technology, Başkent University, Atılım University, and Ufuk University. Therefore, participants of the study were the instructors who were working in these institutions which satisfied the conditions mentioned above. The data were collected from the instructors who were present at the time of data collection and

volunteered to respond to questionnaires, so that means convenience sampling was used. Frankel et al., (2011) defines convenience sampling as: "A convenience sample is a group of individuals who (conveniently) are available for study" (p.g. 99). Besides, many times, it is very difficult and almost impossible to choose a random sample because of time, money, or the lack of other resources necessary to obtain a random sample (Frankel et al., 2011). Field (2013) also states: "We never have access to the entire population". Convenience sampling was preferred because the population is large and it is difficult to reach each and every individual in the population, so accessibility is an important issue. Besides, it can be difficult to reach every instructor in the institution due to their teaching schedule or they may have some official duties or they may not volunteer to participate into the study.

There are 522 (54.09 %) instructors working for foundation and 443 (45.91 %) for public universities out of 965. Among this target population, 235 of the instructors participated in this study. Though it was planned to reach the whole population of instructors, because of some official constricts such as working hours, instructors' official duties, and the condition of volunteer participation influenced the participation level. Owing to these limitations in terms of sampling, the data collection instrument was administered to 235 participants. On the other hand, of all participants, there were 28 participants who did not complete the scale fully. Therefore, they were not included into statistical analysis. Out of 207 participants, 70 of them completed the online version of the scale because of either their institutions' or their own preferences. Considering the low participation rate, a chi-square goodness-of-fit test was conducted to check whether the the sample distribution is close enough to the population distribution by university type so that it can be considered representative of it. The assumptions were checked before the analysis to ensure a valid result: "indenpendent observations and the expected frequencies should be greater than 5" (Field, 2013, p. 692). First of all, independence of observations was ensured since there was not a relationship between the participants. Secondly, there were at least 5 frequencies in each group of the categorical data. The results showed that the sample distribution is not statistically different from the population distribution by university type, $\chi 2$ (1, n=207) = 3.25, $p > .05$. It was decided to continue with further analyses.

Among these 207 participants, 39.61 % (*n*=82) of them were working for a state university while 60.39 % (*n*=125) for a foundation university. As it was stated in Table 3.2, 6.3 % (*n*=13) of them were from Ankara University, 9.2 % (*n*=19) of them were from Gazi University, 14 % (*n*=29) of them were from Başkent University, 17.9 % (*n*=37) of them were from Hacettepe University, 6.3 % (*n*=13) of them were from METU, 4.3 % (*n*=9) of them were from Bilkent University, 9.2 % (*n*=19) of them were from Atılım University and 5.3 % (*n*=11) of them were from Ufuk University and 27.5 % (*n*=57) of them were from TOBB ETU. Considering their gender, the data showed that 83.1 % of the participants were female (*n* = 172) while 16.9 % of them were male (*n* = 35). When these numbers are considered, it can be said that there are much more female instructors than male ones, which is the common trend in many universities in Turkey considering the English language preparatory schools.

Table 3.2

Distribution of the Participants by Universities

University	*n*	*%*
Ankara University	13	6.3
Gazi University	19	9.2
Başkent University	29	14.0
Hacettepe University	37	17.9
METU	13	6.3
Bilkent University	9	4.3
Atılım University	19	9.2
Ufuk University	11	5.3
TOBB ETU	57	27.5

The participants' age was between 22 and 60 and their teaching experience is between 1 year and 38 years. Year of teaching experience variable, which is a continuous one, was recoded into 5 categories to provide clear descriptive information; however, for inferential statistics, this variable was taken as a

continuous variable. As it was shown in Table 3.3 below, 39.6 % (*n*=82) of the participants have been teaching for 1-5 years. 22.7 % (*n*=47) of the participants have been teaching for 6- 10 years while 14.0 % (*n*=29) of them have been teaching for 11-15 years. It can be said that around 76.3 % of the participants have been teaching for 15 years or below. Lastly, 12.1 % (*n*=25) of the participants have been teaching for 16-20 years while 11.6 % (*n*=24) of the participants have been teaching for 21 years or above.

Table 3.3

Distribution of the Participants by Years of Teaching Experience

Teaching Experience	*n*	*%*
1 year-5 years	82	39.6
6-10 years	47	22.7
11-15 years	29	14.0
16-20 years	25	12.1
21 years or higher	24	11.6

In terms of graduated university, 27.1 % (*n*=56) of them graduated from METU, 38.2 % (*n*=79) of them graduated from Hacettepe University, 7.7 % (*n*=16) of them graduated from Gazi University, 8.2 % (*n*=17) of them graduated from Ankara University, 2.4 % (*n*=5) of them graduated from Bilkent University, 2.9 % (*n*=6) of them graduated from Başkent University, 3.4 % (*n*=7) of them graduated from İstanbul University. The remaining 10.1 % (*n*=21) graduated from other universities such as Anadolu, Marmara, Çukurova, Kocaeli, Yeditepe, Akdeniz and Bosporus Universities. The data is displayed in Table 3.4 below.

Table 3.4

Distribution of the Participants by Graduated University

Graduated University	*n*	*%*
Ankara University	17	8.2
Bilkent University	5	2.4
Başkent University	6	2.9
Gazi University	16	7.7
Hacettepe University	79	38.2
İstanbul University	7	3.4
METU	56	27.1
Others	21	10.1

When graduated departments are analyzed, 54.1% (*n*= 112) of the instructors graduated from English Language Teaching departments of Faculty of Education while 45.4 % (*n*= 94) of them graduated from Faculty of Science and Literature. The data analysis also showed that 88.4 % (*n*=183) of the instructors have a teaching certificate while 11.6 % (*n*=24) of them do not have a teaching certificate. Table 3.5 displays the instructors' distribution according to the departments they graduated from.

Table 3.5

Distribution of the Participants by Graduated Departments

Graduated Department	*n*	*%*
English Language Teaching	112	54.1
English Literature	49	23.7
American Literature	19	9.2
Translation	9	4.3
Linguistics	17	8.2
Other	1	.5

With regards to graduate degree studies, the data analysis showed that 56.0 % (*n*= 116) of the instructors have an MA or MSc. degree while 8.2 % (*n*= 17) of them have a doctorate degree. Moreover, 35.7 % (*n*=74) of them do not have any graduate degrees. Table 3.6 shows the information concerning the instructors' graduate degree studies.

Table 3.6

Distribution of the Participants by Graduate Degree

Graduate Degree	*n*	*%*
No Graduate Degree	74	35.7
MA or MSc	116	56.0
PhD	17	8.2

Of all participants, 203 of them responded to the items concerning the English proficiency scores measured by YDS, TOEFL IBT, IELTS or another standardized test. 94.09% (*n*=191) of them reported their YDS exam scores while 5.91% (*n*=12) of them reported their TOEFL IBT scores. Since most of the participants answered this item with their YDS scores, they were utilized in the data analysis. The scores of TOEFL IBT were converted into YDS equivalent scores based on the conversion table suggested by The Council of Higher Education.

The range of scores is between 62.5 and 100. To be able interpret the scores clearly; the scores were recoded into 6 variables considering the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) criteria suggested by ÖSYM (2013). The scores between 0 and 30 are coded as "A1", 31 and 45 as "A2", 46 and 60 as "B1", 61 and 75 as "B2", 76 and 95 as "C1", 96 and 100 as "C2". The obtained data showed that 63.8 % (*n*=132) of the instructors got scores between 76 and 95 points as coded "C1", 33.3 % (*n*=69) of them got scores between 96 and 100 as "C2" and 1.0% (*n*=2) of them got scores between 61 and 75 as "B2". Moreover, 1.9 % (*n*=4) of the participants did not report their YDS exam

scores. Table 3.7 shows the information related to instructors' proficiency scores from YDS exam.

Table 3.7

Distribution of the Participants by English Proficiency Scores from YDS

CEFR Level (YDS Score Range)	*n*	%
B2 (61-75)	2	1.0
C1 (76-95)	132	63.8
C2 (96-100)	69	33.3
Missing	4	1.9

3.4. Data Collection Instruments

The instruments have been decided after the literature review. The data was collected through three scales: Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (See Appendix A), Responsibility for Student Achievement Scale (See Appendix B) and Teacher Motivation Scale (See Appendix C). The permission was taken from the developers of each scale (See Appendix E). Besides, to collect information about the demographic features of the participants, a personal information sheet that includes items such as institution in which they work, gender, age, overall teaching experience, graduate degree earned, teaching certificate and English proficiency scores (YDS, IELTS, TOEFL IBT etc.) was distributed to the participants. Concerning English proficiency scores of the instructors, YDS exam scores were accepted as the reference point and the other exam scores were converted by using the conversion table suggested by The Council of Higher Education.

3.4.1. Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale

This instrument was originally developed by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy (2001) to measure teachers' self-efficacy levels. The scale was based on the integrated model of teacher self-efficacy introduced by Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998). The scale is sometimes called as Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale (OSTES). The development of the scale was completed with three studies.

Initially, there were 52 items in the scale and 20 items were eliminated in the first study. In the second study, 14 items were extracted from the scale and 18 items were left. In the third study, another 18 items were added and retested. In the end, the researchers reached two forms of the instrument: short form with 12 items and long form with 24 items. Items on the scale are the examples of common teaching activities that exemplify three factors: efficacy for student engagement, efficacy for classroom management, efficacy for instructional strategies. The reliability coefficient values of the original instrument (long version) are .90 for classroom management, .87 for student engagement, .91 for instructional strategies and .94 for the whole scale (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001).In this study, the Turkish adapted and translated version by Çapa et al. (2005) was used. The Turkish adapted version also includes 24 items with eight items for each subscale: "efficacy for engagement, efficacy for management and efficacy for instructional strategies". The items are ranked on 9-points, ranging from ''A great deal (9) to Nothing (1)". The reported reliability coefficient of this instrument is ".82 for engagement, .86 for instructional strategies, .84 for management and .93 for the whole scale" (Çapa et al., 2005, p.77).

Sample items from the scale are:

How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students? (Item 1 from efficacy in student engagement dimension)

How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies? (Item 18 from efficacy in instructional strategies dimension)

How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom? (Item 3 from efficacy in classroom management dimension)

3.4.1.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted through AMOS 24.0 (Analysis Moment of Structure) to check the three factor structure suggested by Çapa et al. (2005) for the Turkish adapted version of Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale. Before the analysis, the confirmatory factor analysis assumptions were checked. Firtsly, the number of participants was more than the five times of item numbers in the scale (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, 2009). Secondly, there were no missing data. Thirdly, scores of each item were standardized and there were no

values exceeding 3.29 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Then, Mahalanobis Distance for each case was computed and there were four cases exceeding the critical value of 51.179 (*df* =24, *p*=.001). These cases were reviewed, and there were no problem regarding data entry. These cases were not deleted since decrease in sample size limits the generalizability (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk results were significant; however, these tests are conservative and affected by sample size (Field, 2013). Lastly, histograms and Q-Q plot did not show a serious evidence for non-normality in the data. Therefore, it was decided to continue with further analysis. The Confirmatory factor analysis yielded a significant chi-square value of 547.56. Because chi-square is mostly affected by sample size (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013), other fit values were also checked to evaluate the model. The analysis revealed CFI value of .85, NNFI value of .75, GFI value of .83 and the RMSEA value of .07, which indicated poor fit. Modification indices were examined and there existed some high error covariances among the following items: e20-e22, e17-e18, e12-e14, e11-e12, e11-e16, e10-ee12, e6-e8, e3-e8, e2-e7. Since these items were loaded in the same factor, they were allowed to covary and CFA was run once more. The chi-square value decreased to 404.55; however, it was still significant. The RMSEA value of .05 indicated an acceptable fit by Browne and Cudeck (1993). CFI=.91 and NNFI=.80 were not satisfactory for a good model fit. However, .90 was a border value between adequate and inadequate model fit and a .91 CFI value can be accepted as a moderate fit when the sample size is large (Bentler & Bonett, 1980). Though there were problems with some fit values, the researcher accepted the three factor structure as an acceptable fit for the data collected in this study considering the RMSEA value and CFI value. Additionally, factor loading of each item was significant. The loadings were from .35 to .74 for efficacy for student engagement, from .47 to .70 for efficacy for instructional strategies and from .48 to .84 for efficacy for classroom management (Table 3.8). Moreover, many reserachers used this scale to measure English teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and in these studies, it had high reliability coefficient (Solar Şekerci, 2010). Additionally, in this study, the reliability coefficient of this instrument was found as .73 for student engagement, .82 for instructional strategies and .87 for classroom management. Considering the

common usage of the scale in the literature and high reliability of subscales, it was decided to keep the scale as it is. Figure 3.1 shows three factor CFA model for teacher self-efficacy scale.

Table 3.8

Results of CFA regarding Factor Loadings of Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale

Dimension	Item	Standardized Estimates
Efficacy for student engagement	Item 22	.35
	Item 14	.74
	Item 12	.52
	Item 9	.55
	Item 6	.57
	Item 4	.56
	Item 2	.48
	Item 1	.58
Efficacy for instructional strategies	Item 24	.63
	Item 23	.70
	Item 20	.64
	Item 18	.63
	Item 17	.57
	Item 11	.47
	Item 10	.57
	Item 7	.54
Efficacy for classroom management	Item 21	.61
	Item 19	.70
	Item 16	.73
	Item 15	.84
	Item 13	.70
	Item 8	.48
	Item 5	.55
	Item 3	.72

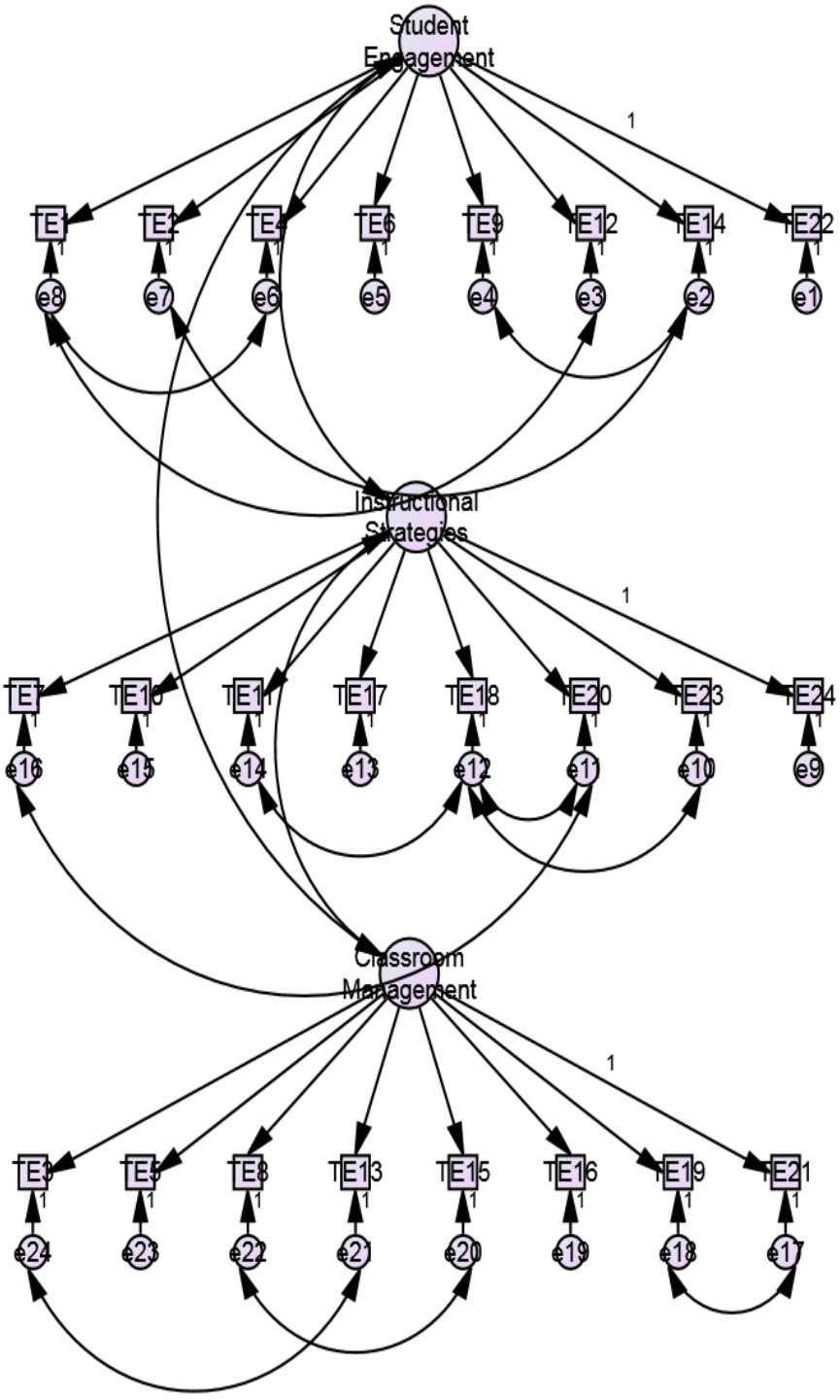

Figure 3.1. Three factor CFA model for teacher self-efficacy scale

3.4.2. Responsibility for Student Achievement Scale

The scale includes 30 items and aims to measure teachers' responsibility for student achievement. Guskey (1980) developed the Responsibility for Student Achievement Questionnaire (RSA) in order to find out responsibility perceptions of elementary and secondary school teachers regarding their students' academic success and failure. For each item, there are two choices. The first choice states that the teacher is the reason behind the event while the second choice states that the external factors which are out of the teacher's control event cause the event. 100 percentage points should be distributed to these two alternatives for each pair in the items. There are two sub-scales: responsibility for students' success (R+) and responsibility for students' failure (R-). When 40 points are given to the R+ event described in the first alternative, 60 points go to R- event described in the second alternative. General responsibility value is measured with the average of R+ and R- events. For the reliability of the instrument, test-retest was done and results showed that the correlation value for total R, between test and retest results is .74, for R+ .79 and for R- .88 (Ekici, 2012a).

Sample items for the scale are:

If a student does well in your class, would it probably be

____a. because that student had the natural ability to do well, or

____b. because of the encouragement you offered? (Item 1 for responsibility for student success domain)

When your class if having trouble understanding something you have taught, is it usually

____a. because you did not explain it very clearly, or

____b. because your students are just slow in understanding difficult concepts? (Item 2 from responsibility for student failure domain)

In this study, the Turkish adapted and translated version by Ekici (2012a) was utilized. The Cronbach alpha coefficient was calculated for reliability and it was found that the internal reliability coefficient for the full measure was .85 while

for R+ .84 and for R- .82. The Turkish version has been used by different researchers such as Aktaş et al. (2013), Ekici (2013), Güvenç (2011), Kurt (2013a) and Kurt et al. (2014) in Turkish context. In this study, two items were eliminated since they were irrelevant to the context of English instructors working at preparatory schools, so 28 questionnaire items were left. The removed items are:

15. When parents commend you on your work as a teacher, is it usually
___ a. because you have made a special effort with their child, or
___ b. because their child is generally a good student?

29. If a parent is critical of you as a teacher, is it likely to be
___a. because you have difficulty getting that parent's child to do the work you require, or
___b. because that parent's child is developmentally not ready to do well in your class?

The reliability coefficient of this instrument was found as following in this study: .80 for R+, .88 for R-and .83 for the whole scale. Considering the common usage of the scale in the literature and higher reliability coefficient results for the whole scale and subscales, it was decided to keep the scale as it is.

3.4.3. Teacher Motivation Scale

The literature was reviewed to find a suitable scale to measure instructors' motivation levels. However, when the current scales were reviewed, it was seen that most of the scales were developed for measuring job satisfaction level of teachers working either in elementary or secondary level schools and also there were limited proof ensuring the construct validity, content validity and reliability of the scales. Considering the context where the study was conducted and the participants' profile, it was decided to adapt a current Job Motivation scale to the TEFL context to ensure that English instructors working preparatory schools understand the items well and the scale is compatible with the conditions of the instructors. Job Motivation Scale by Aksoy (2007) was utilized for adaptation

process. The scale was developed to measure the job motivation level of workers in an institution. The original 5 point scale includes 18 items and had a reliability coefficient of .79. The rating for answers ranges from 1 "I am not pleased at all" to 5 "I am really pleased". This scale was used by different researchers in school context to measure teacher's motivation level and yielded high reliability coefficient results. Tanriverdi (2007), Gündüz (2009), Kırıştı (2009), Yılmaz (2009), used this scale in school context. Tanriverdi (2007) reported the scale's reliability coefficient as .90 while Gündüz (2009) reported it as .88. Yılmaz (2009) made a reliability and validity study of the scale before using it. The results showed that the scale had four factors: team harmony, integration with job, commitment to a job and personal development. The reliability coefficient of the scale was found as .82 in this study.

Initially, the literature was reviewed, and additional items were included in this scale. The generated items are: Item 2 "Workload", Item 6 "Job guarantee in the institution", Item 11 "Promotion opportunities in the institution", Item 16 "Teaching English", Item 19 "Difficulty level of my job", Item 20 "Opportunity to get involved in decisions made in the institution", Item 23 "Opportunity to reach the equipment I need". These statements were taken and adapted from different scales used to investigate the motivation level of teachers in the past studies (Bernaus, Wilson, & Gardner, 2009; Çelik, 2013; Kassabgy, Boraie, & Schmidt, 2001; Ololube, 2006; Pennington, 1997; Tsutsumi, 2014; Yau, 2010; Yıldırım, 2006).

Additionally, some modifications were made on some of the original items. The original items: "Being appreciated and the success feeling that I have" and "Harmony and cooperation among teachers" were split into separate items. Original items "The income from the institution" and "Additional payment system" were combined as following: "The income from the institution (salary, additional payment system)". The original item "The status of making your own decisions and using your own methods" were rewritten as two separate items "The status of making my own decisions" and "For being able to choose the instructional methods to use in courses". The original item "Training and professional development opportunities" was changed as "My eagerness to develop professionally". Lastly,

the original item “The opportunity to use my creativity” was rewritten as “For being able to use my creativity”.

The adapted version of the scale included 25 items on both intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. The answers were again based on a rating scale from 1 “I am not pleased at all” to 5 “I am really pleased”. The draft scale was evaluated by two experts from educational sciences department of Middle East Technical University and two other experts from Hacettepe University. They reviewed the wording, format, content covered to measure the teacher motivation construct. They contributed to the revision of the items to make them more clear and comprehensible. Through the experts’ opinions, validity of the instrument in terms of content, comprehensiveness and format were ensured and necessary modifications on the items were done upon the experts’ advices. Then, the instrument was pilot tested with instructors at Hacettepe University (n=34), Türk Hava Kurumu University (n=26) and Yıldırım Beyazıt University (n=16).

The maximum likelihood factor analysis was done using SPSS 22 for each item on the scale for construct validity. Before conducting the analysis, the suitability of factor analysis was assessed. All of the variables in the analysis were continuous ones. However, multivariate normality assumption was violated because Mardia’s test showed a significant value (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Correlation matrix was checked for correlations above .30 (Field, 2013) and it showed that the correlation coefficients for seven items were far below .30, so these items were eliminated from the scale. The removed items are: Item 1 “The success feeling that I have”, Item 2 “Workload”, Item 3 “The income from the institution”, Item 6 “Job guarantee in the institution”, Item 9 “Social events”, Item 14 “The respect that I get from the society as a teacher”, Item 16 “Teaching English”.

After the elimination, it was reanalyzed. The results showed that the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was .85, which shows a satisfactory value as stated by Hutcheson and Sofroniou (1999) and it showed that the number of the participants was enough to continue with exploratory factor analysis. The Barlett’s Test of Sphericity was significant (p <.05) and it shows that there are correlations in the data set which are suitable for factor analysis. Both of these figures supported the

factorability of the correlation matrix. All in all, the findings showed the assumptions were met to number and interpret factor structure of the scale developed.

To find the number of factors in the scale, principal axis factoring was selected as an extraction technique since multivariate normality assumption was violated (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). To decide the number of factors to rotate, the factor number suggested by the scale developer, the scree plot and its inflection point and the Eigenvalue- greater-than-one criteria were used (Field, 2013). The interpretability of the pattern matrix was used to finalize the decision. The initial factor analysis showed that there are four factor loadings. However, it was not appropriate to name four subscales. To help the interpretations of the factor loadings, Direct Oblimin rotation was conducted for 2 factors set. The analysis revealed the presence of two components with Eigenvalues greater than 1. Table 3.9 displays the results on Eigen values and total variance explained by these two factors.

Table 3.9

Eigen Values for the Factors in Teacher Motivation Scale

Factors	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings
	Total	% of Variance	Cum. %	Total	% of Variance	Cum. %	Total
1(External Motivation)	7.92	44.01	44.01	7.46	41.41	41.41	6.568
2(Internal Motivation)	1.97	10.93	54.94	1.55	8.62	50.04	4.93

54.94% of the variance was explained by these two factors. Moreover, when the total variances are analyzed, it was seen that factor one is explaining the

44.01 % of the variance whereas the second factor is explaining 10.93 %. This indicated that for the first factor there would be more items loaded than the second one. In addition to that, to interpret factor structure, scree plot and its inflexion point was checked as well. The scree plot showed a point of inflection on the third factor. This indicates that maximum factors to be extracted in this scale are two (See Figure 3.2)

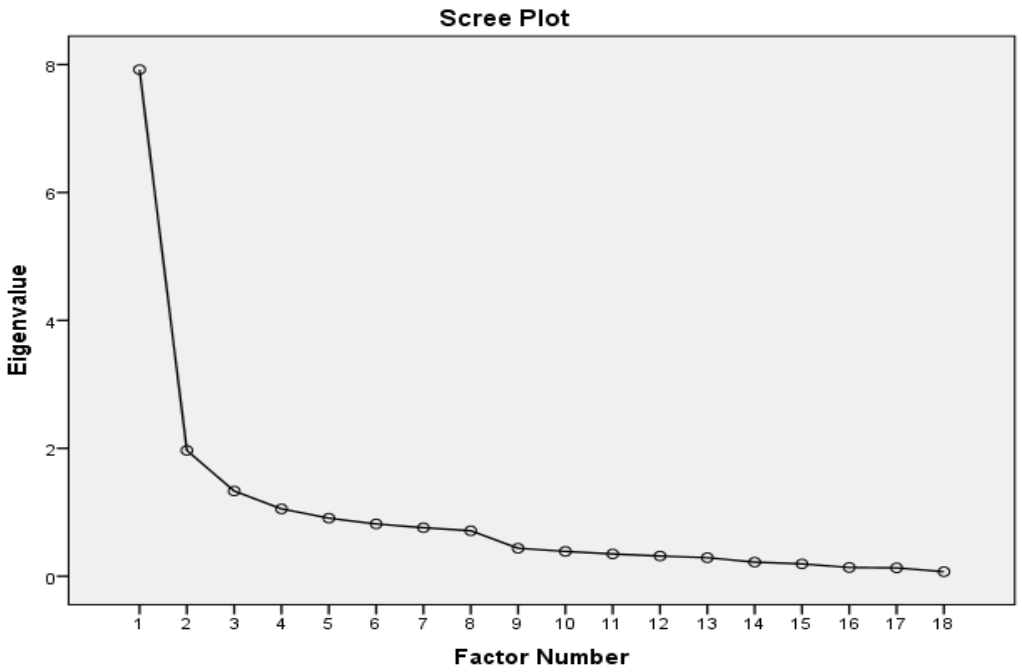

Figure 3.2. Secree plot for the factors in teacher motivation scale

After finding the number of factors in the scale, the factors were interpreted based on the results of factor correlations, factor rotations, pattern matrix and factor loadings in factor plot were analyzed. Based on the results and the related literature covered while developing the scale, the factors were named. It was found that the items 2,4,6,7,9,10,11,13,14,15,16,17,18 (See Appendix C) were loaded in the first factor explaining external motivation level of teachers while the items 1,3,5,8,12 (See Appendix C) were loaded in the second factor explaining internal motivation level of teachers. The factor loadings on pattern matrix are shown in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10

Pattern Matrix of Teacher Motivation Scale

	Factor	
The Items	1	2
Harmony among teachers (Item 10)	**.88**	
Cooperation among teachers (Item 11)	**.84**	
Harmony with the administrators (Item 18)	**.80**	
Performance evaluation method in the institution (Item 4)	**.73**	
Physical environment in my school (Item 14)	**.67**	
Opportunity to get involved in decisions made in the institution (Item 13)	**.60**	
Importance given to teamwork (Item 17)	**.58**	
For working in that institution (Item 15)	**.55**	
The degree of being under control (Item 7)	**.52**	
Being appreciated (Item 9)	**.49**	
Vacation and leave periods (easiness in exercising employee personal rights) (Item 2)	**.44**	
Promotion opportunities in the institution (Item 6)	**.41**	
Opportunity to reach the equipment I need (Item 16)	**.32**	
For being able to choose the instructional methods to use in courses (Item 1)		**.88**
For being able to use my creativity (Item 8)		**.78**
The status of making my own decisions (Item 3)		**.68**
Difficulty level of my job (Item 12)		**.42**
My eagerness to develop professionally (Item 5)		**.34**

As it was presented in Table 3.10, items concerning external motivation are loaded in Factor 1 while items concerning internal motivation were loaded in Factor 2. Moreover, Item 16 “Opportunity to reach the equipment I need” loaded in two factors, but considering the content, it was included in factor 1. As for the

reliability of the instrument, it was found to be high with a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .92 for the whole scale, which shows the scale has high internal consistency. Besides, Cronbach alpha coefficients of each subscale were found as .85 for external motivation and .73 for internal motivation.

3.5. Data Collection Procedures

Before starting the data collection, the necessary permission was taken from METU Applied Ethics Research Center to guarantee the conformity to the ethical principles (See Appendix D). Then, the universities were officially informed about the permission of AERC (Applied Ethics Research Center) and their official permission was asked, too. Then, the researcher contacted herself the administrators of English Preparatory Schools to get the necessary permission and learn about instructors' weekly schedule. The administering of the instrument started in May and finished in July. The researcher visited the preparation schools and collected the data individually. The surveys were administered to the instructors directly. It took roughly 30 minutes to complete the scales. However, because of the administrators' preferences at Bilkent and Başkent Universities, the data were collected through an online link. The teachers were informed about the aim of the study; therefore, deception was not a matter of concern. For the confidentiality issue, the names of the participants in the study were hidden and data collected were held in confidence on a computer which is password protected. Informed consent forms were given to participants before they began responding to the data collection instruments.

3.6. Data Analysis

All of the gathered data (demographic information of participants, Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale responses, Responsibility for Student Achievement Scale responses and Teacher Motivation Scale responses) were transferred to computer environment in a SPSS data file. The collected data were analyzed through descriptive analysis and inferential statistics by using SPSS 22.0 software.

Before combining the data collected through online tool and traditional way, a one-way Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was performed to ensure the data collection method did not result in differences in the collected data. The data collection method with two levels (online, paper-pencil) was the independent variable. Instructors' sense of responsibility, motivation levels and self-efficacy levels were the dependent variables. Conducting MANOVA was chosen instead of three separate factorial Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to control Type I error. The assumptions of MANOVA are "interval scale of measurement on the dependent variables, independent observations, multivariate normality, homogeneity of covariance matrices" (Field, 2013, p.g. 603) and all of these were checked before the analysis.

Instructors' sense of responsibility, motivation levels and self-efficacy levels were all measured at interval scale of measurement. The participants completed the data collection instruments on their own, so independent observations assumption was met. The scores of each item were standardized and there were no values exceeding 3.29 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Then, Mahalanobis Distance for each case was computed and there were only one case exceeding the critical value of 16.27 (df=3, p=.001). This case was not deleted since decrease in sample size limits the generalizability (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). VIF and Tolerance values were checked for the absence of multicollinearity. There were no tolerance values less than .20 (ranging between .96 and .98) and VIF values were less than 4 (ranging 1.01 to 1.04) (Field, 2013, p.221). Univarite normality was checked through Kolmogorov-Smirnov and ShapiroWilk's statistical tests, skewness and kurtosis values. Kolmogorov-Smirnov and ShapiroWilk's statistical tests were not significant except for motivation scores. The values of Skewness and Kurtosis were in the boundaries of -3 and +3, which was another proof for normality. Additionally, histograms and Q-Q plots were examined and there was no problem based on them. Furthermore, for multivariate normality assumption, Mardia's test was run and it was significant ($b2p$ = 53.18, p < .001), indicating non-normality. Later, for homogenity of covariance matrices assumption, Box's M test results were checked and for homogeneity of variance for the univariate tests, Levene's test results were checked. Box's M test was not

significant (4.82, p >.001), which indicates covariance matrices didn't significantly differ (Field, 2013). Levene's test results also yielded non-significant results so homogeneity of variances assumption was not violated (Field, 2013). To examine the significance of the model, Wilk's statistics was used. MANOVA yielded non-significant results, F (3, 203) = 2.47 p > .05. It was decided to continue with further analysis by combining the data.

After that, the data were combined and relevant descriptive statistics (mean, median, standard deviation, standard error and range) were conducted. When it comes to inferential statistics, Pearson's product moment-correlation coefficient was computed to find out the relationship between instructors' self-efficacy beliefs and sense of responsibility for students' success and failure. Additionally, this study is a prediction study with 4 variables; therefore, multiple regression was conducted as it is suggested by Frankel et al. (2011) for determining a correlation between a criterion variable and the best combination of two or more predictor variables. Among the three types of multiple regressions, the hierarchical regression was chosen because it gives the researcher a chance of entering the predictors within desired order and predictors are chosen considering previous studies (Field, 2013). Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) stated: "Some simple rules of thumb are $N \geq 50 + 8m$ (where m is the number of IVs) for testing the multiple correlation and $N \geq 104 + m$ for testing individual predictors" (p.123). This study included 4 predictor variables. Considering the formula given by Tabachnick and Fidell (2013), the data which were collected from 207 participants seemed to be adequate to be able to conduct multiple regression to test these individual predictors.

Before the analysis, the assumptions of multiple regression analysis: normality, homoscedasticity, linearity, independence of errors and multicollinearity were checked and reported. The hierarchical regression analyses were conducted in two blocks for four predictor variables. The order of the variables was decided by the researcher considering theoretical importance of the variables, past research studies and the importance of predictors in predicting the outcome (Field, 2013). In Block 1, continuous variables; teaching experience and English proficiency scores were entered into regression and in Block two; continuous variables; teacher self-

efficacy scores and motivation scores were entered into the regression. Table 3.11 displays the models of hierarchical regression analyses.

Table 3.11

Description of Models of Hierarchical Regression Analyses

Model	Dependent Variable	Blocks	Number of Variables Entered	Predictor Variables
1	Instructors' overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure	1	2	Teaching Experience English Proficiency Scores
2		2	2	Self-efficacy Belief Scores Motivation Scores
1	Instructors' sense of responsibility for students' success	1	2	Teaching Experience English Proficiency Scores
2		2	2	Self-efficacy Belief Scores Motivation Scores
1	Instructors' sense of responsibility for students' failure	1	2	Teaching Experience English Proficiency Scores
2		2	2	Self-efficacy Belief Scores Motivation Scores

3.7. Limitations of the Study

The current study has some limitations. Firstly, the response rate is low and the participants are limited to a group of preparatory school instructors in Ankara. Unfortunately, this is a common situation in the survey literature and there has been a decrease in respondent cooperation with the researchers (Rindfuss, Choe, Tsuya, Bumpass, & Tamaki, 2015). Considering the sample size issue, there is no

single answer for that. For correlational study, there should be minimum 50 participants to form a relationship and for descriptive studies, there should be at least 100 participants (Frankel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2011). The data were collected between May and July. This was the end of the spring semester and the instructors had hectic schedules. The working hours, instructors' official duties, and the condition of volunteer participation influenced the participation level for the current study as well. Considering the low response rate and convenience sampling preferred in this study, the results cannot be generalized to all preparatory school instructors who work in Ankara and different cities of Turkey. Secondly, self-reported data were collected to investigate responsibility perceptions and people might be influenced by social desirability, which is not controlled in this study.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This study aimed to investigate English language preparatory school instructors' sense of responsibility for students' success and failure and the factors that influence it. The participants were English language preparatory school instructors at universities in Ankara. These participants were administered an instrument which had four parts. The first part asked for demographic information. The second part aimed to measure instructors' sense of responsibility for students' success and failure. The third part aimed to measure instructors' self-efficacy beliefs and the last part aimed to measure instructors' motivation level.

This chapter reveals the information about the analyses and the findings of these analyses. Firstly, instructor's sense of responsibility for students' success and failure were presented. Secondly, self-efficacy belief of the instructors and its relationship with the sense of responsibility for students' success and failure was analyzed. After that, the results of the regression analyses, which were executed to find the predictive power of teacher self-efficacy, motivation, experience and English proficiency scores on instructors' sense of responsibility for students' success and failure were reported. This analysis was done with 203 participants since 4 of them did not report their proficiency scores.

207 instructors (172 female, 35 male) who are teaching English at preparatory schools participated into the study. Their age is between 22 and 60 (M= 33.21, SD=8.16), and their range of experience is between 1 year to 38 years (M= 10.16, SD=7.75). The reported proficiency scores seem to be high ranging between 62.5 and 100 (M= 93.83, SD= 4.74). The motivation level of the instructors is medium ranging between 1.67 and 4.94 (M=3.38, SD= .62).

4.1. Instructors' Sense of Responsibility for Students' Success and Failure

The first research question of this study was: "What is instructors' overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure? To answer this question, the participants' answers were analyzed through descriptive statistics. The mean and standard deviation scores were computed for each participant. The analyses were done separately on each dimension: responsibility for success and responsibility for failure. Each subscale consists of 14 items with the total of 28 items. The maximum score for each item was 100 (feels highly responsible) and minimum score was 0 (does not feel any responsibility) which makes up a total of maximum 100 and minimum 0. The results of the descriptive analysis showed that instructors' overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure is 48.10 (*SD*= 8.25).

The first research question of the study had two sub-research questions: "What is instructors' sense of responsibility for students' success?" and "What is instructors' sense of responsibility for students' failure?". The analyses were done separately for each one of these dimensions. For the sense of responsibility for students' success, the scores ranged between 25 and 90 with the mean score of 57.59 (*SD*= 9.58). For the sense of responsibility for students' failure, the scores were between 0 and 77.14 with the mean score of 38.61 (*SD*= 12.96). The descriptive statistics analysis results showed that instructors have a moderate level of overall responsibility perception considering the maximum score that can be taken from this instrument, which is 100 points and the minimum score which is 0. Additionally, they take more responsibility for students' success than failure. The findings regarding the first research question are summarized in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1

Descriptive Statistics for Instructors' Sense of Responsibility for Students' Success and Failure

	N	*Min*	*Max*	*M*	*SD*
Overall Responsibility	207	12.50	72.14	48.10	8.25
Responsibility for Success	207	25.00	90.00	57.59	9.58
Responsibility for Failure	207	0	77.14	38.61	12.96

The findings concerning items for instructors' sense of responsibility for students' success (R+) and failure (R-) are summarized in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2

Descriptive Statistics for Items for Instructors' Sense of Responsibility for Students' Success and Failure

	N	*Min*	*Max*	*M*	*SD*
R1B+	207	0	100.00	42.63	15.59
R2A-	207	0	100.00	43.63	20.65
R3B+	207	0	100.00	59.87	16.68
R4A-	207	0	90.00	28.46	19.88
R5A+	207	5.00	100.00	69.01	19.26
R6A+	207	0	90.00	50.56	17.39
R7A+	207	0	100.00	49.98	15.74
R8B-	207	0	100.00	43.31	19.44
R9B-	207	0	90.00	31.12	20.09
R10B+	207	0	100.00	50.13	17.22
R11B-	207	0	90.00	41.64	20.09
R12A-	207	0	95.00	30.66	19.12
R13A+	207	0	100.00	60.85	17.44
R14B-	207	0	90.00	30.58	19.83
R15B-	207	0	100.00	33.08	20.33

Table 4.2 (continued)

Descriptive Statistics for Items for Instructors' Sense of Responsibility for Students' Success and Failure

	N	*Min*	*Max*	*M*	*SD*
R16A-	207	0	100.00	40.31	22.71
R17A+	207	0	100.00	64.25	20.41
R18B+	207	0	100.00	53.12	18.30
R19A-	207	0	100.00	52.08	21.77
R20A+	207	0	100.00	63.45	20.41
R21B+	207	0	100.00	57.27	19.17
R22A+	207	0	100.00	58.30	16.60
R23A-	207	0	90.00	40.03	21.30
R24B-	207	0	100.00	47.54	24.46
R25B+	207	0	100.00	58.70	18.71
R26B+	207	0	100.00	68.12	18.80
R27B-	207	0	90.00	36.07	19.89
R28B-	207	0	100.00	42.07	21.76

When we look at the items regarding sense of responsibility for students' success, Items 3, 5, 13, 17, 20, 22, 25 and 26 (See Appendix B) have the mean scores higher than the overall mean score of responsibility for success (*M*=57.59). When these items are considered, it can be said that instructors have higher sense of responsibility for their students' success either because they motivate their students or they review the subject frequently or they give feedback or they express their expectations or they make learning interesting or they can get most students to participate and involved in the lesson. However, Item 1 (See Appendix B) has the lowest mean score (*M*=42.63, *SD*=15.59) among all items for sense of responsibility for students' success. It shows that encouragement that the instructors offered to students is seen as the weakest reason behind sense of responsibility for the students' success. On the other hand, when we look at the items regarding sense of responsibility for students' failure, the mean scores for

most of the items are below 40 and Items 2, 8, 16, 19, 23, 24, 28 (See Appendix B) have mean scores higher than the overall mean score of responsibility for failure (*M*=38.61). When these items are considered, it can be said that instructors have higher sense of responsibility for their students' failure either because they do not explain something clearly, or they do not have enough time to plan well, or they cannot give their students enough attention, or they cannot motivate their students to work hard. Item 19 (See Appendix B) has the highest mean score which is 52.08 (*SD*= 21.77). Regarding Item 19, it can be said that instructors have the highest sense of responsibility for their students' failure when they think they cannot explain something at their students' level. Lastly, Item 4 (See Appendix B) has the lowest mean score (*M*=28.46, *SD*=19.88) among all items for sense of responsibility for students' failure. It shows that stressing the point strong enough is seen as the weakest reason behind sense of responsibility for the students' failure.

4.2. The Relationship between Self-Efficacy Levels of Instructors and Sense of Responsibility

The second research question was: **"**Is there a relationship between instructors' self-efficacy beliefs and overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure?". The sub-research questions were: "Is there a relationship between instructors' self-efficacy beliefs and sense of responsibility for students' success?" and "Is there a relationship between instructors' self-efficacy beliefs and sense of responsibility for students' failure?".

Firstly, descriptive statistics regarding the self-efficacy levels of English language preparatory school instructors were computed. The scale included 24 items. The maximum score for each item was 9 (the most efficacious) and minimum score was 1 (the least efficacious) with the maximum score of 72 and minimum score of 8 in total. The results showed that the mean score for the overall self-efficacy level of the instructors was 7.14 (*SD*=.70), which shows a rather high level of self-efficacy considering that possible maximum score was 9.

In addition to descriptive statistics analysis, to answer the second research question and related sub-research questions, the Pearson Product-Moment

Coefficient of correlation was computed. The results showed there was no significant relationship between instructors' overall self-efficacy levels and their overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure. In the same way, the results showed that there was no significant correlation between instructors' overall self-efficacy levels and their sense of responsibility for students' failure. On the other hand, the results showed that instructors' overall self-efficacy levels was positively correlated with their sense of responsibility for students' success, r=+.29, n=207, ρ <.01, two tailed. Cohen (1988) suggests that this is medium effect. Table 4.3 presents the correlation matrix for instructors' overall self-efficacy levels and their sense of responsibility for students' success and failure.

Table 4.3

Correlation Matrix for Instructors' Overall Self-efficacy Levels and Sense of Responsibility for Success and Failure

	Instructors' Overall Self-efficacy Levels
Overall Responsibility	.11
Responsibility for Success	.29**
Responsibility for Failure	-.08

*ρ <.01

4.3. Predictors of Instructors' Sense of Responsibility for Students' Success and Failure

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used to investigate to what extent years of teaching experience, English proficiency scores, self-efficacy beliefs and motivation of instructors predict instructors' overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure, their sense of responsibility for students' success and their sense of responsibility for students' failure.

The independent variables, predictors, in hierarchical analyses were: years of teaching experience, English proficiency scores, overall self-efficacy levels and motivation level of instructors. For the first hierarchical multiple regression

analysis, the dependent variable was instructors' overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure, for the second hierarchical multiple regression analysis, the dependent variable was instructors' sense of responsibility for students' success, and the dependent variable for the last hierarchical multiple regression analysis was instructors' sense of responsibility for students' failure. In Block 1, continuous variables; teaching experience and English proficiency scores were entered into regression and in Block 2; continuous variables; self-efficacy belief scores and motivation scores were entered into the regression.

4.3.1. Testing Assumptions of Hierarchical Regression Analyses

Before conducting hierarchical regression analysis, the assumptions to conduct the analysis were checked. Field (2013) listed eight assumptions to be checked which are (1) variable types (the need for either continuous independent variables or dichotomous ones that are dummy coded and continuous and quantitative dependent variable); (2) non-zero variance; (3) no perfect multicollinearity; (4) linearity; (5) homoscedasticity; (6) independent errors; (7) normally disturbed errors; (8) independent observations (p.220-221).

In terms of variable types, the dependent variable was responsibility perceptions of instructors which were continuous and quantitative ones. All of the predictor variables which were English proficiency scores, years of experience, motivations scores, teacher self-efficacy belief scores were all continuous variables, too.

Firstly, the existence of extreme cases was checked. Critical leverage value was calculated according to the recommendation of Stevens "three times the average ($3(k + 1)/n$)" (as cited in Field, 2013, p.307). The calculation yielded the value of .07. With the examination of the data, it was found that the leverage values for participants with ID numbers of 8, 22, 114 were above the specified value. Therefore, they were accepted as possible outliers. Then, Cook's D values were examined and the maximum value for Cook's D was .20., which was not above 1 (Field, 2013). As a further check for outliers, DF Beta values were examined and there were no values greater than 1 (Field, 2013).

Lastly, Mahalonobis distance values were checked. Before that, the critical value was calculated depending on the chi-square table (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). With 4 predictors and alpha level of .001., the critical distance value was 18.47. It was found that 114th, 22th, 8th participants with their Mahalonobis values of 45.26, 19.64, and 19.00 respectively were possible outliers. In spite of these matching findings on the 114th, 22th, 8th participants, considering "Bartnett and Lewis (1978) table of critical values and the suggestion of eliminating cases when the values were above 25 for a 500 participant with 5 predictor data set" (Field, 2013, p. 307), it was decided to exclude only 114th participant since she had a proficiency score of 62.5 which is very lower than the average English proficiency score (*M*=93.83).

In regression analysis, "multicollinearity exists if two or more independent variables are too highly correlated with each other" (Huck, 2012, p.400). To meet the assumption of no perfect multicollinearity, firstly, correlation matrix was checked for the analysis of the relationship among predictor variables (Table 4.4). The correlations among the independent variables were not above .80. That showed the non-existence of multicollinearity.

Table 4.4

Bivariate Correlations for Overall Responsibility Scores and Predictor Variables

	Responsibility	Experience	Proficiency Score	Motivation	Teacher self-efficacy
Responsibility	1.00				
Experience	.07	1.00			
Proficiency Scores	.11	-.01	1.00		
Motivation	.18	.11	-.02	1.00	
Teacher self-efficacy	.12	.12	.00	.11	1.00

VIF and Tolerance values were also checked. All tolerance values were above .10 and no VIF values were above 10 (Huck, 2012). Results of collinearity statistics were shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5

Collinearity Statistics on Predictor Variables

Model		Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)		
	Experience	1.00	1.00
	Proficiency Scores	1.00	1.00
2	(Constant)		
	Experience	.98	1.02
	Proficiency Scores	1.00	1.00
	Teacher self-efficacy	.98	1.02
	Motivation	.98	1.02

Normality assumption means that the errors are normally distributed in the regression model. To check normality and linearity assumption, histogram and normal probability plot were examined. The curve of the histogram proved a proper shape and the dots were close enough to the diagonal line. Therefore, the normality assumption was met. Figure 4.1 displays the histogram for normality and Figure 4.2 displays normal p-p plot for standardized residual.

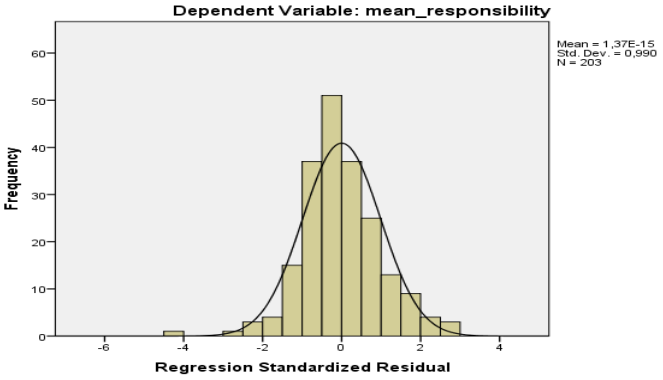

Figure 4.1. Histogram for normality

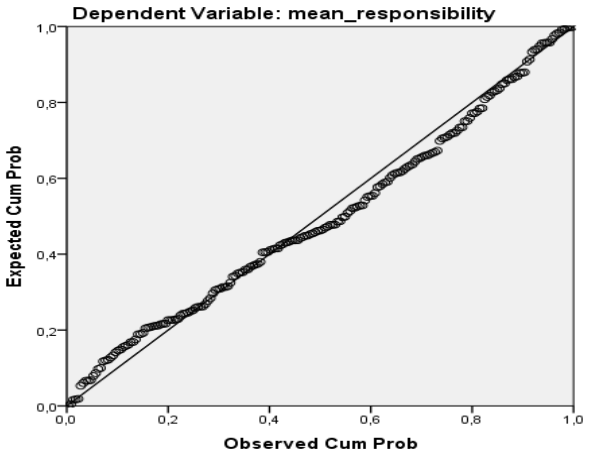

Figure 4.2. Normal p-p plot for standardized residual

When it comes to the homoscedasticity assumption, the scatter plot did not show a significant pattern. Figure 4.3 displays the scatter plot of predicted value and residuals.

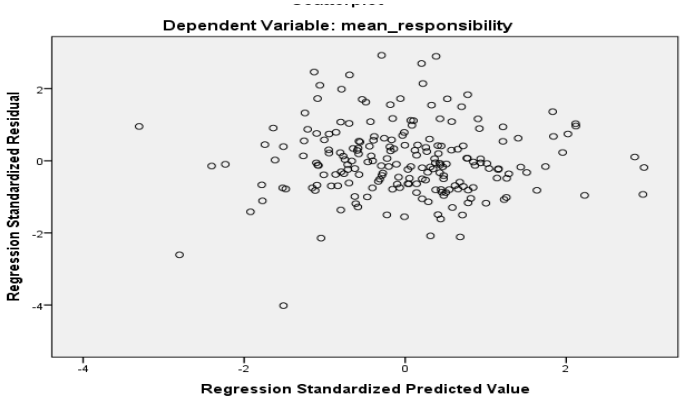

Figure 4.3. Scatterplot for residuals in outcome variable

For independence of errors, Durbin-Watson test statistics was concerned. Field (2013) suggested that this value should be close to 2. In this study, this value was 1.87, so this assumption was not violated, too. Lastly, the participants completed the data collection instruments on their own after they were given necessary information by the researcher, so independent observations assumption was met, too. To sum up, the data gathered had only one threat of outliers. It did not have the problem of multicollinearity; and the majority of the assumptions were met to go on with the interpretation of the results.

4.3.2. Predictors of Overall Sense of Responsibility for Students' Success and Failure

The hierarchical regression that gives the researcher a chance of entering the predictors within the desired order (Field, 2013) was used to find out if years of teaching experience, English proficiency scores, motivation scores and self-efficacy belief scores of instructors predict instructors' overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure. The dependent variable was the mean of instructors' overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure. Regarding the independent variables, the first block included teaching experience, English proficiency scores. The independent variables in the second block were motivation scores and self-efficacy belief scores of instructors. Table 4.6 presents the results.

Table 4.6

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Summary for Overall Sense of Responsibility

	B	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	sr^2	R^2	*ΔF*
Model 1						.02	2.31
Experience	.08	.08	.08	1.08	.01		
Proficiency Scores	.26	.14	.13	1.91	.02		
Model 2						.06	3.91*
Experience	.05	.08	.05	.66	.00		
Proficiency Scores	.27	.14	.14	1.95	.02		
Teacher self-efficacy	1.09	.82	.09	1.33	.01		
Motivation	2.15	.93	.16	2.32*	.03		

*$p<.05$.

According to Table 4.6, it was seen that Model 1 did not significantly predict overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure, F (2,199) = 2.31, p> .05. When we looked at the Model 2, to which teacher self-efficacy and motivation variables were added, Model 2 significantly predicted instructors' overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure, F (2,197) = 3.91,

$p<.$ 05 with R^2 =.06. This model explained 6% of the variance in instructors' overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure. In Model 2, after years of teaching experience variable and English proficiency scores variable were controlled, teacher self-efficacy variable did not have a unique contribution to results, $t\ (197)$ = 1.33, $p>.$ 05 while motivation variable individually explained 3% (sr^2=.03) of the variation, $t\ (197)$ = 2.32, $p<.$ 05. It can be concluded that instructors' motivation scores were positively related to their overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure (β=.16).

4.3.3. Predictors of Sense of Responsibility for Students' Success

The second hierarchical regression analysis was used to find out to what extent teaching experience, English proficiency scores, motivation scores and self-efficacy belief scores of instructors predict instructors' sense of responsibility for students' success. The dependent variable was instructors' sense of responsibility for students' success. Regarding the independent variables, the first block included teaching experience, English proficiency scores. The independent variables in the second block were motivation scores and teacher self-efficacy scores. Table 4.7 shows the results.

Table 4.7

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Summary for Sense of Responsibility for Success

	B	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	sr^2	R^2	*ΔF*
Model 1						.00	.32
Experience	.04	.09	.04	.50	.00		
Proficiency Scores	.09	.14	.05	.64	.00		
Model 2						.11	11.83*
Experience	-.02	.08	-.01	-.18	-.00		
Proficiency Scores	.09	.14	.05	.68	.00		
Teacher self-efficacy	3.98	.92	.30	4.35*	.09		
Motivation	1.82	1.04	.12	1.75	.01		

*$p<.05$.

According to Table 4.7, it was seen that Model 1 did not significantly predict sense of responsibility for student success, F (2,200) = .32, p> .05. When we looked at the Model 2, to which teacher self-efficacy and motivation variables were added, Model 2 significantly predicted instructors' sense of responsibility for student success, F (2,198) = 11.83 p<. 05 with R^2 =.11. This model explained 11% of the variance in instructors' sense of responsibility for success.

In Model 2, after years of teaching experience variable and English proficiency scores variable were controlled, motivation variable did not have a unique contribution to results, t *(198)* = 1.75, p>. 05 while teacher self-efficacy variable individually explained 9% (sr^2=.09) of the variation, t *(198)* = 4.35, p<. 05. It can be concluded that instructors' self-efficacy beliefs were positively correlated to their sense of responsibility for student success (β=.30).

4.3.4. Predictors of Sense of Responsibility for Students' Failure

The third hierarchical regression analysis was used to find out to what extent years of teaching experience, English proficiency scores, self-efficacy beliefs and motivation of instructors predict instructors' sense of responsibility for students' failure. The dependent variable was instructors' sense of responsibility for students' failure. Regarding the independent variables, the first block included teaching experience, English proficiency scores. The independent variables in the second block were motivation scores and teacher self-efficacy scores. Table 4.8 presents the results.

Table 4.8

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Summary for Sense of Responsibility for Failure

	B	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	sr^2	R^2	*ΔF*
Model 1						.02	1.53
Experience	.10	.12	.06	.87	.00		
Proficiency Scores	.30	.19	.11	1.53	.01		
Model 2						.04	2.28
Experience	.10	.12	.06	.84	.00		

Table 4.8 (continued)

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Summary for Sense of Responsibility for Failure

	B	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	sr^2	R^2	*ΔF*
Proficiency Scores	.30	.19	.11	1.57	.01		
Teacher self-efficacy	-1.86	1.30	-.10	-1.43	-.01		
Motivation	2.55	1.48	.12	1.72	.01		

According to Table 4.8, it was seen that Model 1 did not significantly predict sense of responsibility for student failure, F (2,200) = 1.53, p> .05. When we looked at the Model 2, to which teacher self-efficacy and motivation variables were added, Model 2 also did not significantly predict sense of responsibility for student failure, F (2,198) = 2.28, p> .05.

4.4. Summary of the Research Results

First of all, descriptive statistics results showed that instructors felt more responsible for their students' success than failure. Besides, their sense of responsibility for students' success was also higher than their overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure. Secondly, the results showed that the instructors had a high level of teacher self-efficacy. However, the results also indicated that there was no significant relationship between instructors' overall self-efficacy scores and their overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure. Besides, the results showed that there was no significant relationship between instructors' overall self-efficacy scores and their sense of responsibility for students' failure. On the other hand, the results showed that there was a significant and positive relationship between instructors' overall self-efficacy scores and their sense of responsibility for students' success.

According to regression analyses, years of teaching experience and English proficiency scores variables did not predict sense of responsibility for students' success and failure. When the contributions of these two variables were controlled, the results indicated that instructors' overall sense of responsibility for their students' success and failure was uniquely predicted by teacher motivation

variable. In terms of sense of responsibility for students' success, the results of the study indicated only teacher self-efficacy variable uniquely had a significant contribution to prediction equation. As for the sense of responsibility for students' failure, the findings showed that none of the variables significantly predicted it.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study aimed to investigate English language preparatory school instructors' sense of responsibility for their students' success and failure, the relationship between instructors' self-efficacy beliefs and their sense of responsibility for their students' success and failure and lastly the extent to which years of teaching experience, English proficiency scores, teacher self-efficacy and motivation predict instructors' sense of responsibility for their students' success and failure. In this chapter, the conclusions on the findings of this study are presented together with discussions regarding the literature and the implications for further studies and practice will be revealed.

5.1. Discussion

This part presents discussions on the results considering the relevant literature. The results and possible reasons for them were discussed in connection with the relevant previous studies. The discussion will be presented for each research question under three main headings: instructors' sense of responsibility for students' success and failure, the relationship between instructors' self-efficacy beliefs and their sense of responsibility for students' success and failure and lastly the predictors of instructors' sense of responsibility for students' success and failure.

5.1.1. Instructors' Sense of Responsibility for Students' Success and Failure

The first research question of this study was: "What is instructors' overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure? and two sub-research

questions were: “What is instructors’ sense of responsibility for students’ success?” and “What is instructors’ sense of responsibility for students’ failure?” The results of the descriptive analysis showed that instructors feel more responsible for their students’ success than failure. Besides, their sense of responsibility for their students’ success is also higher than their overall sense of responsibility for their students’ success and failure.

When we consider most of the relevant previous studies, the results of this study were in parallel to them. In these studies, teachers had a moderate level of overall responsibility for their students’ success and failure while their sense of responsibility for students’ success was higher than their sense of responsibility for students’ failure (Matteucci, 2007; Guskey, 1981; Ekici, 2012b; Ekici, 2013; Guskey 1987; Kurt, 2013a; Aktaş et al.,2013; Kurt & Ekici, 2013). However, in the studies of Ross, Bierbrauer and Polly (1974), Ames (1975), and Beckman (1973), teachers put the blame on themselves for their students’ failure but attributed the success to their students. Ames (1982) suggested teachers’ value of responsibility may have resulted in inconsistencies in responsibility studies. Additionally, in one study, the results showed that student teachers have higher sense of responsibility for their students’ failure than success (Kurt, Güngör & Ekici, 2014). However, in that study, the participants were student teachers so with no real classroom environment experience, they could only imagine what happens in a real class. Considering the discrepancy between the participants of these studies in terms of having teaching experience, the contradictions in the results can be quite expected.

When the descriptive statistics results of this study were concerned, it can be said that the outcome of the student performance might be effective on instructors’ responsibility perceptions. Instructors tend to take more responsibility for their students’ success than failure. The reason behind that low responsibility for failure can be the locus of control factor. External and internal people behave differently in the face of failure and external ones tend to blame outer sources rather than the personal factors in failure situation and they give less value to this failure experience. As a result, external ones avoid negative emotions that arise from failure by refusing individual responsibility (Stebbings & Stone, 1977). Considering that, it can be said that most of the instructors may have a tendency to

have an external locus of control. In addition to that, %39.6 of the participants in this study have a teaching experience between 1 and 5 years, so they can be accepted as novice teacher. Lack of experience can be a powerful reason for assuming less responsibility for students' failure. Moreover, most of the instructors are at beginning of their career, so they have not reached a professional maturity yet and they may not have finalized their education philosophies and teaching pedagogies; therefore, those factors may also result in assuming less responsibility in failure situation. Students' characteristics may also influence to what degree instructors feel responsible for success or failure. For example, instructors may see some students with high ability while others with low ability. At this point, they may feel different levels of responsibility for students with different abilities. If they assume that most of their students lack some abilities, they may put the blame on the students in the face of failure. Furthermore, 54.1% (*n*= 112) of the participants graduated from English Language Teaching departments of Faculty of Education while 45.4 % (*n*= 94) of them graduated from Faculty of Science and Literature, so that creates an important difference in terms of professional background among the participants, which possibly influences the results of the study. Lastly, since these students at English language preparatory schools are 18-20 years old, English instructors might think that these students are mature enough to take responsibility for their own education process and their job is just to guide them at this level and the responsibility of failure rests upon the students not them.

Regarding the descriptive statistics results for each item, it can be said that the instructors have responsibility for their students' success mostly when they motivate their students, review the subject frequently, give feedback, express their expectations, make learning interesting, can get most students to participate and involved in the lesson. The weakest reason behind the responsibility for success is encouragement that the instructors offered to students. In that case, it can be said that instructors attribute the success to their own teaching and instructional skills rather than the students' ability and effort. Similarly, Guskey (1982) found that considering the success, teachers attributed the success to their own abilities and effort. On the other hand, the instructors have responsibility for their students' failure mostly when they do not explain something clearly, do not have enough

time to plan well, cannot give their students enough attention, cannot motivate their students to work hard. Additionally, the instructors have the least responsibility for their students' failure when they think they stress the point strong enough. It can be said that when teachers see themselves weak in terms of instruction, effort and time management, they feel more responsible for their students' failure.

5.1.2. The Relationship between Self-Efficacy Levels of Instructors and Sense of Responsibility

The second research question was: **"**Is there a relationship between instructors' self-efficacy beliefs and overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure?". The sub-research questions were: "Is there a relationship between instructors' self-efficacy beliefs and sense of responsibility for students' success?" and "Is there a relationship between instructors' self-efficacy beliefs and sense of responsibility for students' failure?". The results showed that the instructors' self-efficacy levels are high, but considering the second research question and sub-research questions, the findings showed that there is no correlation between instructors' overall self-efficacy scores and their overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure. In the same way, the results showed that there is no significant relationship between instructors' overall self-efficacy scores and their sense of responsibility for students' failure. On the other hand, the results showed that there is a significant and positive relationship between instructors' overall self-efficacy scores and their sense of responsibility for students' success. It can be concluded that as instructors' self-efficacy levels increase, they tend to assume more responsibility for their students' success.

In the literature, it was stated that there is a close relationship between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their responsibility perceptions for students' success and failure (Guskey, 1981) and responsibility is positively related to teacher self-efficacy (Lauermann & Karabenick, 2013). However, though this is true and an expected relationship in theory, the practice may yield different results in different contexts. In some studies, the researchers reached the conclusion that there is a significant and positive relationship between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure

(Ekici, 2013; Kurt, 2013a; Kurt, Güngör & Ekici, 2014). However, in parallel with the results of this study, Kurt, Güngör and Ekici (2014) also found that there is no significant relationship between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their sense of responsibility for students' failure. When we take the results of this study and the previous studies into consideration, it can be concluded that the results proved some inconsistency.

For the current study, it is very surprising that although instructors have a high level of self-efficacy, this does not bring higher responsibility for the failure. This shows that there may be some other variables that moderate the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their responsibility perceptions for students' failure. Besides, there should be some specific reasons behind having less responsibility for failure although the instructors have higher level of confidence in their capability to increase their students' learning.

First of all, instructors' educational philosophies, pedagogical opinions about students, teaching, instruction, school system may explain their low tendency to take responsibility for failure. Additionally, instructors' characteristic features, some personal skills such as communication, critical thinking, problem solving, reflective thinking, and people's general inclination to deny failure to preserve their self images may result in their acceptance of success but not failure (Tetlock, 1980). Additionally, Lauermann and Karabenick (2013) suggested that there may be some moderating elements affecting teacher self-efficacy such as positive organizational environment, the difficulty of affecting older students' habits, less parental impact. According to Guskey (1980), there can be a close relationship between teacher expectations and their sense of responsibility for students' success and failure. Considering that, the instructors might set some low expectations for their students and have less responsibility for failure. Having different degree of responsibility for one student vs one class, the availability of sources, help, cooperation in the organization may have a moderating effect on the results as well (Guskey, 1988). A teacher might think that he has a potential control on students' failure but might give different degree of importance to this particular result, so this may also cause varied levels of responsibility. Besides, teachers' earlier experiences, the school context, their social roles, their perceptions might affect

their felt responsibility (Lauerman, 2013). Moreover, if a teacher has higher level of collective responsibility, he may think that the responsibility for failure does not rest upon on him, but all the related agents (Lauerman, 2013). In addition to those factors mentioned above, instructors' approaches to teaching English, working in a public or foundation school, school size (in bigger schools, it might be hard to know students well and have close relationship with the students), cooperation with the colleagues may affect teachers' willingness to accept responsibility for students' failure (LoGerfo, 2004). Last but not the least, the motivation can be a source of instructors' low responsibility levels for the failure and in this study, it was found that the motivation level of the instructors is medium (M=3.38, SD=.62); possible maximum score was 5, so it can be said that the instructors do not have a high level of motivation. Therefore, despite instructors' high level of self-efficacy, their indecisive level of motivation may lower their enthusiasm towards teaching English and commitment to the school where they work.

When it comes to the inconsistencies in the results of different studies, it may drive from the fact that in these previous studies, the participants were either biology teachers or student teachers. On the other hand, in this study, the participants were English instructors. Biology and English are two separate subject matters. Therefore, each discipline requires using different instructional techniques and teaching methods. Biology and English teachers may have different expectations from their students considering the requirements of the discipline. Responsibility on students' side may differ in different branches as well. Since the previous responsibility studies in Turkey were prevalent among Biology teachers and student teachers, reaching different results through conducting a responsibility study among a totally different group of teachers can be expected. In addition to that, these studies were conducted in different settings such as high schools and education faculties; therefore, working place and the grade level taught might also have an effect on the varied results of the studies. Lastly, as Lauermann and Karabenick (2013) suggested, feeling that you can do something (self-efficacy) does not necessarily mean that you feel responsible to do the same thing. Having a control over the results of events or having the capability to affect a result do not have to result in a sense of responsibility (Lauermann & Karabenick, 2013;

Lauermann, 2014). Considering that, it can be said although instructors have a high level of self-efficacy, it does not guarantee that they feel responsible for their students' achievement and especially failure as it is in this study.

5.1.3. Predictors of Instructors' Sense of Responsibility for Students' Success and Failure

Three separate hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted to reach the results for predictors of instructors' sense of responsibility for students' success and failure. The analyses examined to what extent years of teaching experience, English proficiency scores, teacher self-efficacy and motivation predict instructors' overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure, sense of responsibility for students' success and sense of responsibility for students' failure (See Table 3.11).

The results of the first regression analysis showed that the variables in Model 1, which were years of teaching experience, English proficiency scores did not significantly predict overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure (See Table 4.6). However, Model 2 to which teacher self-efficacy and motivation variables were added significantly predicted instructors' overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure (See Table 4.6). When the four variables were separately considered for their contribution to prediction equation, only teacher motivation variable uniquely predicted instructors' overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure (See Table 4.6). Although teacher motivation was found to be a significant predictor of instructors' overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure, it cannot be said to be a strong predictor.

When the literature was considered, it can be said that most of the studies related to responsibility issue included experience, gender and teacher self-efficacy as variables. As for teacher motivation, Lauermann and Karabenick (2014) stated that personal responsibility is related to a person's emotions and motivation and Guskey (1981) proposed that responsibility perception may create a motivation basis for the acts of teaching. Considering the possible relationship between motivation and teacher responsibility perception the relevant literature, results of

this study proved consistency. It can be said that variance in the instructors' overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure might be explained by instructors' motivation level and more motivated instructors might have higher overall sense of responsibility for their students' success and failure. Therefore, motivation can be a source of teacher responsibility.

On the other hand, in the literature, the results regarding the variables of experience and instructors' self-efficacy beliefs were inconsistent. Clark (1999) stated that teacher self-efficacy and teachers' causal attributions for student learning outcomes affect teachers' perceptions of responsibility. In one study with 82 Biology teachers in Ankara, Aktaş et al. (2013) found that teaching experience accounted for 8.7% of the total variance in the overall perception of responsibility. In addition to that, the results showed that there is a positive and significant relationship between experience and overall responsibility perception for students' success and failure. Kurt (2013a) also found that experience has a significant effect on teachers' overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure. Besides, Kurt (2013a) reached the conclusion that there is a significant relationship between experience and overall sense of responsibiltiy for students' success and failure and there is a significant relationship between self-efficacy perceptions and overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure. Ekici (2012b) also found that experience had a significant effect on teachers' overall responsibility perceptions for students' success and failure, responsibility perceptions for students' success and responsibility perceptions for students' failure. However, in some studies (Guskey 1981, 1982), it was found that teachers' sense of responsibility showed no significant difference in terms of experience. Moreover, LoGerfo (2004) found that there is no relationship between first grade teachers' years of experience and their responsibility perceptions for students' well being. In the current study, experience and overall self-efficacy beliefs of instructors had also no predictive power in regards to instructors' overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure. Including the results of this study, it can be said that the responsibility studies have contraditory results, so more studies should be conducted with homogenous groups including experience, teacher self-efficacy and motivation as variables.

Considering the results of the second regression analysis conducted to test the extent to which years of teaching experience, English proficiency scores, teacher self-efficacy and motivation predict instructors' sense of responsibility for students' success, the results showed that the variables in Model 1 which were years of teaching experience, English proficiency scores did not significantly predict sense of responsibility for students' success (See Table 4.7). However, Model 2 to which teacher self-efficacy and motivation variables were added significantly predicted instructors' sense of responsibility for students' success (See Table 4.7). When the four variables were separately considered for their contribution to prediction equation, only teacher self-efficacy variable uniquely predicted instructors' sense of responsibility for students' success (See Table 4.7). Considering these results, it can be said that variance in instructors' sense of responsibility for students' success can be explained by instructors' self-efficacy beliefs and as instructors' scores of self-efficacy increase, their sense of responsibility for students' success may increase.

When the literature was analyzed, Ekici (2013) found that there is a positive and low relationship between teacher candidates' responsibility perceptions of student success and academic self-efficacy perceptions. However, Kurt (2013a) found that there is not a significant relationship between perceptions of self-efficacy in teaching profession and sense of responsibilty for students' success. Taking these results into consideration, the results in the literature showed inconsistency in itself. As for experience, Aktaş et al. (2013) found that there is a positive and significant relationship between experience and responsibility perception for students' succcess. Ekici (2012b) also found that experience had a significant effect on teachers' responsibility perceptions for students' success. On the other hand, Kurt (2013a) found that experience does not have a significant effect on teachers' sense of responsibility for students' success and there is no significant relationship between experience and sense of responsibilty for students' success. Guskey (1981, 1982) also found no relationship between experience and sense of responsibility for success. In Logerfo's study (2004), no relationship was found between first grade teachers' years of experience and their responsibility perception for students' well being. Considering the results of these studies, again,

conflicting results in the literature regarding the predictive power of experience on teachers' responsibility perception for students' success can be easily seen.

Considering the results of the third regression analysis conducted to test the extent to which years of teaching experience, English proficiency scores, teacher self-efficacy and motivation predict instructors' sense of responsibility for students' failure, the results showed that the variables in Model 1 which were years of teaching experience, English proficiency scores did not significantly predict sense of responsibility for students' failure (See Table 4.8). Besides, Model 2 to which teacher self-efficacy and motivation variables were added did not significantly predict sense of responsibility for students' failure (See Table 4.8).

When the previous studies were taken into consideration, the results showed that there is a positive and significant relationship between experience and responsibility perception for students' failure (Aktaş et al., 2013) while Kurt (2013a) and Guskey (1981, 1982) stated that there is no significant relationship between experience and sense of responsibility for students' failure. On the other hand, Ekici (2012b) found that experience had a significant effect on teachers' responsibility perceptions for students' failure while Kurt (2013a) found that experience does not have a significant effect on teachers' sense of responsibility for students' failure. In this study, none of the independent variables (teacher self-efficacy, motivation, experience, English proficiency scores) predicted instructors' sense of responsibility for students' failure.

The different results of regression analyses for instructors' sense of responsibility for students' success and failure separately shows that the result of the students' performance- whether its' being success or failure- may influence the instructors' sense of responsibility. Moreover, English Proficiency scores did not predict instructors' overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure or sense of responsibility for students' success or sense of responsibility for students' failure. The reason might be YDS scores were accepted as the reference point for English proficiency and this exam tests only reading, grammar and vocabulary aspects of English language, and the other skills in English- listening, writing and speaking- are not tested. This limitation of the study might have an impact on the predictive power of English proficiency scores on instructors' sense

of responsibility for students' success and failure. Lastly, experience does not have any predictive power on instructors' overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure or sense of responsibility for students' success or sense of responsibility for students' failure.

5.2. Implications for Practice

Teachers' sense of responsibility is an important construct that affects teachers' behavior towards students (Georgiou et al., 2002), students' performance (Lee & Smith, 1996), teachers' effort and persistence (Guskey, 1980; Lauermann, 2014; Helker & Wosnitza, 2014) and self-efficacy beliefs (Guskey, 1981). It is also related to positive thoughts about teaching (Guskey, 1984) and teachers' eagerness to use new instructional techniques (Guskey, 1988). Considering the importance of sense of responsibility and low level of responsibility for students' failure, institutions may provide professional development sessions to improve the instructors' sense of responsibility for students' achievement. The sessions should also focus on helping instructors internalize the meaning of responsibility and realizing the value and importance of responsibility perception for students' learning. Another focus in these sessions can be to increase the awareness of instructors on having more internal locus of control rather than blaming outside sources for undesired outcomes.

Structures that provide personal development chances increase teachers' optimistic anticipations and that may affect their evaluation of responsibility in the face of failure, so administrators should develop more optimistic environment and enhance the professional development opportunities for the instructors (Lauermann, 2013). Besides, awareness regarding responsibility perception can be raised in pre-service education years since these years are important in shaping teacher candidates' attitudes and ideas related to teaching profession. Especially, responsibility subject can be dealt with in teaching certification courses. Administrators may develop new educational policies to enable their instructors take more responsibility for their students' failure because instructors' taking more responsibility for their students' failure may indirectly result in increase in the students' performance and it may influence a teacher's behavior against an

unsuccessful student. In addition to that, when teachers accept responsibility for students' failure, they tend to continue to try helping their students succeed (Georgiou et al., 2002). Lastly, responsibility system in education can be negotiated and teachers' role in this system can be made clearer by the stakeholders.

In this study, teacher self-efficacy had a predictive power on instructors' sense of responsibility for students' success, so institutions can help instructors increase their self-efficacy levels through mentoring, workshops, projects, action research, training opportunities and engaging teachers in decision-making process. In addition to that, teacher motivation had a predictive power on instructors' overall sense of responsibility for students' success and failure. Considering that, to keep their instructors' motivation level high, institutions may improve the conditions under which the instructors work, offer some incentives, give them their space, respect their opinions and values and have an open and honest relationship with them. Higher levels of motivation on teachers' side will probably result in more commitment to teaching and higher responsibility for students' failure.

5.3. Implications for Further Research

In this study, sense of responsibility was investigated in terms of experience, English proficiency scores, teacher self-efficacy and teacher motivation. However, responsibility perception may derive from many other factors such as job autonomy, position in the organization, support from the organization, interpersonal relationships within the school, internal locus of control, trust, business ethics, professional development, personal integrity, persistence, self control, expertise in subject matter, teachers' outside life (health, personal difficulties), role ambiguity and overload (Lauermann, 2013). Considering the conflicting results in the literature, so these variables should be studied more in further studies. What factors or sources are behind teacher's responsibility perceptions should be examined further. Additionally, some other variables such as gender, grade level taught, subject matter, school size, students' socioeconomic background, willingness to continue professional development, organizational aspects, teachers' enthusiasm for teaching English and their commitment to their schools can be examined in relation to teachers' sense of responsibility. Moreover,

instructors tend to deny responsibility for students' failure, so the reasons behind this denial should be investigated more considering the potential impact of felt responsibility on students' achievement levels.

The participants in this study were limited to instructors in Ankara. To increase the generalizability of the results, this study can be replicated in other universities in different cities. Besides, English teachers working at different grade levels can be included in the studies and these teachers can be compared regarding their responsibility perceptions. Additionally, responsibility issue can be explored in different countries, so cross cultural factors related to responsibility perceptions can be compared and discussed in further studies.

The sense of responsibility was examined from teachers' point of view in this study. Further studies can be conducted regarding the students' perspective on taking responsibility for their own success and failure. Besides, parents' and stakeholders' opinions can be asked to get a detailed overview on the responsibility issue.

This study had correlation design and quantitative data was collected to answer the research questions, so the data were just self reported data. To provide data triangulation, some interviews can be done with the instructors or a survey including cases concerning teacher responsibility can be developed. Moreover, to develop a concise understanding of responsibility issue in education context, teachers' opinions regarding the value of responsibility can be examined through interviews or focus groups. Besides, the items in the responsibility questionnaire utilized in this study are related to both one student and a group of students. Since teachers' responsibility perceptions for one single student or the whole class may differ, another questionnaire including cases either for a single student or a group of students can be preferred in future responsibility studies and the findings can be compared. Lastly, along with language proficiency, subject matter knowledge can be an important variable so it can be tested as a variable in further prediction studies.

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APPENDICES

A: ÖĞRETMEN ÖZYETERLİK ÖLÇEĞİ (TEACHERS' SENSE OF EFFICACY SCALE)

Bu bölümde, öz yeterlilik ile ilgili yirmi dört ifade bulunmaktadır. Öğretmen öz yeterliliğine yönelik cevapları "Çok yeterli (9)" den "Yetersiz (1)" e uzanan dokuzlu değerlendirme ölçeği üzerinde, size en uygun olanı seçerek belirtiniz.

Öğretmen Özyeterlik Ölçeği	**çok yeterli**		**oldukça yeterli**		**biraz yeterli**		**çok az yeterli**		**yetersiz**
1.Çalışması zor öğrencilere ulaşmayı ne kadar başarabilirsiniz?	**9**	**8**	**7**	**6**	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
2.Öğrencilerin eleştirel düşünmelerini ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	**9**	**8**	**7**	**6**	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
3.Sınıfta dersi olumsuz yönde etkileyen davranışları kontrol etmeyi ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	**9**	**8**	**7**	**6**	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
4.Derslere az ilgi gösteren öğrencileri motive etmeyi ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	**9**	**8**	**7**	**6**	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
5.Öğrenci davranışlarıyla ilgili beklentilerinizi ne kadar açık ortaya koyabilirsiniz?	**9**	**8**	**7**	**6**	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
6.Öğrencileri okulda başarılı olabileceklerine inandırmayı ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	**9**	**8**	**7**	**6**	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
7.Öğrencilerin zor sorularına ne kadar iyi cevap verebilirsiniz?	**9**	**8**	**7**	**6**	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
8.Sınıfta yapılan etkinliklerin düzenli yürümesini ne kadar iyi sağlayabilirsiniz?	**9**	**8**	**7**	**6**	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
9.Öğrencilerin öğrenmeye değer vermelerini ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	**9**	**8**	**7**	**6**	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
10.Öğrettiklerinizin öğrenciler tarafından kavranıp kavranmadığını ne kadar iyi değerlendirebilirsiniz?	**9**	**8**	**7**	**6**	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
11.Öğrencilerinizi iyi bir şekilde değerlendirmesine olanak sağlayacak soruları ne ölçüde hazırlayabilirsiniz?	**9**	**8**	**7**	**6**	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**

12.Öğrencilerin yaratıcılığının gelişmesine ne kadar yardımcı olabilirsiniz?	**9**	**8**	**7**	**6**	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
13.Öğrencilerin sınıf kurallarına uymalarını ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	**9**	**8**	**7**	**6**	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
14. Başarısız bir öğrencinin dersi daha iyi anlamasını ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	**9**	**8**	**7**	**6**	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
15. Dersi olumsuz yönde etkileyen ya da derste gürültü yapan öğrencileri ne kadar yatıştırabilirsiniz?	**9**	**8**	**7**	**6**	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
16. Farklı öğrenci gruplarına uygun sınıf yönetim sistemi ne kadar iyi oluşturabilirsiniz?	**9**	**8**	**7**	**6**	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
17. Derslerin her bir öğrencinin seviyesine uygun olmasını ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	**9**	**8**	**7**	**6**	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
18. Farklı değerlendirme yöntemlerini ne kadar kullanabilirsiniz?	**9**	**8**	**7**	**6**	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
19. Birkaç problemli öğrencinin derse zarar vermesini ne kadar iyi engelleyebilirsiniz?	**9**	**8**	**7**	**6**	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
20.Öğrencilerin kafası karıştığında ne kadar alternatif açıklama ya da örnek sağlayabilirsiniz?	**9**	**8**	**7**	**6**	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
21. Sizi hiçe sayan davranışlar gösteren öğrencilerle ne kadar iyi baş edebilirsiniz?	**9**	**8**	**7**	**6**	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
22. Çocuklarının okulda başarılı olmalarına yardımcı olmaları için ailelere ne kadar destek olabilirsiniz?	**9**	**8**	**7**	**6**	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
23. Sınıfta farklı öğretim yöntemlerini ne kadar iyi uygulayabilirsiniz?	**9**	**8**	**7**	**6**	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
24. Çok yetenekli öğrencilere uygun öğrenme ortamını ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	**9**	**8**	**7**	**6**	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**

APPENDIX B: ÖĞRENCİ BAŞARISINDAN SORUMLULUK ALGI ÖLÇEĞİ (RESPONSIBILITY FOR STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT SCALE)

Aşağıdaki ifadeleri her birisi için tercihinize göre her iki seçeneğe toplamı 100 puanı geçmeyecek şekilde puan veriniz.

Örnek: Aileler sizi bir öğretmen olarak yaptığınız işten dolayı övüyorsa, bunun sebebi genellikle,

__75_ a.onların çocuğu için özel bir çaba sarf etmeniz, ya da
__25_ b.onların çocuğunun genel olarak iyi bir öğrenci olmasındandır

1. Eğer bir öğrenci sınıfınızda başarılıysa, bunun sebebi muhtemelen

___ a. bu öğrencinin başarılı olması için doğal yeteneğinin olması, ya da

___ b. sizin ona verdiğiniz cesarettir.

2. Sınıfınız öğrettiğiniz bir şeyi anlamakta zorluk çekiyorsa, bunun sebebi muhtemelen

___ a. onu yeterince iyi **anlatmamanız**, ya da

___ b. öğrencilerinizin zor kavramları anlamada geri kalmasındandır.

3. Öğrencilerinizin çoğu bir sınavda başarılı olduğunda, bunun sebebi daha çok

___ a. sınavın kolay olması, ya da

___ b. onlardan ne beklediğinizi öğrenmelerine izin vermenizdir.

4. Sınıfınızdaki öğrencilerden birisi daha birkaç saniye önce anlattığınız bir şeyi **hatırlayamadığında,** bunun sebebi genellikle,

___ a. önemli noktayı yeterince güçlü **vurgulamamanız,** ya da

___ b. bazı öğrencilerin yeterince dikkat **etmemelerindendir**.

5. Farz edin ki yöneticiniz çok iyi bir iş çıkardığınızı söyledi. Bunun sebebi muhtemelen,

___ a. öğrencilerinizin çoğuyla birlikte başarılı olmanız, ya da

___ b. yöneticilerin böyle şeyleri öğretmenleri motive etmek için söylemelerindendir.

6. Farz edin ki özellikle bir sınıfta çok başarılısınız. Bunun sebebi muhtemelen,

___a. onların öğrenme zorluklarının üstesinden gelmelerine yardımcı olmanızdan, ya da

___ b. bu öğrencilerin genel olarak okulda iyi olmalarındandır.

7. Öğrenciler bir düşünceyi çabuk öğreniyorlarsa, bunun sebebi,

___ a. öğrenme çabalarını teşvik etmedeki başarınızdan, ya da

___ b. öğrencilerinizin genel olarak zeki olmasındandır.

8. Eğer yöneticiniz sınıftaki bazı hareketlerinizi değiştirmenizi öneriyorsa, bunun sebebi muhtemelen,

___ a. onun öğretim metotları hakkındaki kişisel fikirleri, ya da

___ b. öğrencilerinizin başarısızlığıdır.

9. Öğrencilerinizin büyük bir kısmı başarısız oluyorsa, bu muhtemelen

___a. daha önceden de başarısız olmaları ve gerçekten **çabalamamalarından**, ya da

___b. hepsinin ihtiyacı olan yardımı onlara verecek vaktinizin **olmamasındandır**.

10. Öğrencileriniz bir şeyi çabuk öğreniyor gibi gözüküyorsa, bunun sebebi muhtemelen,

___a. zaten o konuyla ilgili olmaları, ya da

___b. kavramları organize etmekte onlara yardımcı olmanızdandır.

11. Sınıfınızdaki öğrenciler önceden anlattığınız bir şeyleri unutuyorsa, bunun sebebi muhtemelen,

___ a. birçok öğrencinin yeni kavramları çok çabuk unutması, ya da

___ b. kavramları öğrenmede öğrencilerinizi aktif bir role **koyamamanızdır.**

12. Belirli öğrencilere ders anlatırken zorlanıyorsanız, bunun sebebi muhtemelen,

___ a. önceki derslerde öğrenmeleri için çaba **göstermemeniz**, ya da

___ b. onların anlama ve öğrenmedeki yavaşlığıdır.

13. Farz edin ki öğrencilerinize yeni bir fikir sundunuz ve öğrencilerin çoğu bunu hatırlıyor. Bunun sebebi muhtemelen,

___ a. zor bölümlerini gözden geçirmeniz ve tekrar anlatmanız, ya da

___ b. siz anlatmadan önce de o konuya ilgi duymalarıdır.

14. Öğrencileriniz bir sınavda çok başarısız olursa, bunun sebebi,

___ a. başarılı olmayı beklemedikleri, ya da

___ b. yeterince hazırlanmaları konusunda ısrar **etmemenizdir**.

15. Bir çocuk dersinizde başarılı olamıyorsa, bunun sebebi muhtemelen,

___ a. çok çalışmamasıdır, ya da

___ b. onun için doğru motivasyonu **sağlamamanızdır**.

16. Farz edin ki belirli bir sınıfınızla her zaman olduğunuz kadar başarılı olamıyorsunuz. Bunun sebebi muhtemelen,

___ a. normalde olduğu kadar dikkatli plan **yapmamanız**, ya da

___ b. bu öğrencilerin diğer öğrencilerden daha az kabiliyetli olmasıdır.

17. Eğer öğrencilerinizden bir tanesi "Siz de biliyorsunuz ki çok iyi bir öğretmensiniz." derse, muhtemelen bunun sebebi,

___ a. bu öğrenci için öğrenmeyi daha cazip kılmanız, ya da

___ b. öğrencilerin genellikle öğretmenlerin gözüne girmeye çalışmalarıdır.

18. Farz edin ki öğrenciler sizin sınıfınızda olmak için can atıyor. Bunun sebebi muhtemelen,

___a. çoğu öğrencinin sizin iyi bir kişiliğe sahip olduğunuzu düşünmesi, ya da

___b. öğrencilerinizin çoğunu daha iyi öğrenmesi için cesaretlendirmenizdir.

19. Farz edin ki bir öğrenciye belirli bir problemi çözmesi konusunda yardım etmeye çalışıyorsunuz ama öğrenci bu problem konusunda çok zorlanıyor. Bunun sebebi,

___a. onun seviyesinde **anlatamamış** olmanız, ya da

___b. onun yetişkinler tarafından yardım edilmeye alışkın **olmamasıdır.**

20. Bir dersi sınıfa anlatmayı kolay bulduğunuzda, bunun sebebi,

___ a. tüm öğrencilerin derse katılımını sağlayabilmeniz, ya da

___ b. dersin öğretim açısından kolay oluşudur.

21. Eğer sınıfınızdaki bir öğrenci haftalar önce anlattığınız bir şeyi hatırlıyorsa, bunun sebebi,

___ a. bazı öğrencilerin bir şeyleri hatırlama konusunda potansiyele sahip olması, ya da

___ b. anlattığınız şeyi bu öğrenci için ilginç hale getirmenizdir.

22. Eğer bir kavramı hatırlayamayan bir öğrenciyle çalışıyorsanız ve aniden bu kavram aklına gelirse, bunun sebebi muhtemelen,

___ a. ona her öğrenme aşamasında düzenli geri dönütler vermeniz, ya da

___ b. onun genellikle bir şeyi kavrayana kadar çalışmasıdır.

23. Öğrencilerinizin ilgisini derse çekme konusunda zorlanıyorsanız, bunun sebebi genellikle,

___ a. sunumu güzelce planlamak için vaktinizin **olmaması**, ya da

___ b. öğrencilerinizin zor motive olmasındandır.

24. Öğrencilerinizden birisi "Siz çok kötü bir öğretmensiniz." derse, sebebi muhtemelen,

___ a. öğrencilerinizin birçoğunun öğrenme konusunda problemleri olması, ya da

___ b. bu öğrenciye bireysel olarak yeterince dikkat **edememenizdir.**

25. Öğrencileriniz dersinize en başından bu yana ilgili gözüküyorlarsa, sebebi,

___ a. konunun öğrencilerin genellikle ilginç bulduklarından bir tanesi olması, ya da

___ b. öğrencilerin çoğunun ilgisini konuya çekebilmenizdir.

26. Öğrencilerinizin çoğunun sınıfta başarılı olduğunu fark ederseniz, bunun sebebi,

___ a. ailelerin okulun çabalarını desteklemesi, ya da

___ b. öğrencileri daha çok çalışmaları için motive edebilmenizdir.

27. Öğrencileriniz bir şeyi öğrenirken zorluk yaşıyorlarsa, bunun sebebi genellikle,

___ a. konu üzerinde çalışmakta isteksiz olmaları, ya da

___ b. konuyu onlar için ilginç hale **getirmemenizdir.**

28. Öğretmekten keyif alamadığınız günlerde, bunun sebebi,

___ a. öğrencilerinizin birçoğu için öğrenmenin zor bir aktivite olması, ya da

___ b. öğrencileri gerektiği kadar çalışması konusunda motive **edememenizdir.**

APPENDIX C: ÖĞRETMEN MOTİVASYONU ÖLÇEĞİ
(TEACHER MOTIVATION SCALE)

Bu bölümde, motivasyon ile ilgili on sekiz ifade bulunmaktadır. Öğretmen motivasyonuna yönelik cevapları "Çok memnunum (5)" dan "Hiç memnun değilim (1)" e uzanan beşli değerlendirme ölçeği üzerinde, size en uygun olanı seçerek belirtiniz.

İş Motivasyonumu etkilemesi açısından;	**Çok Memnunum(5)**	**Memnunum(4)**	**Ne memnunum ne memnun değilim(3)**	**Memnun Değilim(2)**	**Hiç Memnun Değilim(1)**
1. Derste kullanacağım öğretim yöntemlerini belirleyebildiğim için					
2. Tatil ve izin sürelerinden (Özlük haklarımı kullanma rahatlığından)					
3. Kendi kararlarımı alma durumumdan					
4. Kurumumdaki performans değerlendirme yönteminden					
5. Mesleki olarak gelişebilme isteğimden					
6. Kurumdaki terfi ve yükselme imkanlarından					
7. Denetim altında tutulma derecemden					
8. Yaratıcılığımı kullanabildiğim için					
9. Taktir edilmemden					
10. Öğretmenler arası uyumdan					
11. Öğretmenler arası işbirliğinden					
12. İşimin zorluk derecesinden					
13. Kurumda alınan kararlara katılma imkanlarından					
14. Okulumdaki fiziksel çalışma ortamından					
15. Bu kurumda çalışıyor olmaktan					
16. İhtiyaç duyduğum araç ve gereçlere ulaşma imkanlarından					
17. Ekip çalışmasına verilen önemden					
18. Yöneticilerle aramdaki uyumdan					

APPENDIX D: METU ETHICS COMMITTEE APPROVAL

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
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21.04.2015

Gönderilen : Doç.Dr. Ahmet Ok
Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü

Gönderen : Prof. Dr. Canan Sümer
IAK Başkan Vekili

İlgi : Etik Onayı

Danışmanlığını yapmış olduğunuz Eğitim Programları ve Öğretim Bölümü yüksek lisans öğrencisi Dilek Bozu'nun "**İngilizce Okutmanlarının Öğrenci Başarı ve Başarısızlığından Sorumluluk Algısı**" isimli araştırması "İnsan Araştırmaları Komitesi" tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Etik Komite Onayı

Uygundur

21/04/2015

Prof.Dr. Canan Sümer
Uygulamalı Etik Araştırma Merkezi
(UEAM) Başkan Vekili
ODTÜ 06531 ANKARA

APPENDIX E: PERMISSION FROM INSTRUMENT DEVELOPERS

Re: İŞ MOTİVASYONU ÖLÇEĞİ

Fatih YILMAZ

Yanıtla

Kime:
Dilek VURAL <dilekvural@windowslive.com>;

21.4.2015 (Sal) 17:41

ölçeği kaynak göstermek suretiyle kullanabilirsiniz. iyi çalışmar dilerim

---

Re: İŞ MOTİVASYONU ÖLÇEĞİ

Selin Tanriverdi

Yanıtla

Kime:
Dilek VURAL <dilekvural@windowslive.com>;

12.6.2015 (Cum) 14:30

Tabiki Dilek hanım, kaynak göstermek şartıyla kullanabilirsiniz.

Saygılar ve iyi çalısmalar.

Selin Erzin

Subject: Re: Ölçek
To: Dilek VURAL
Date: 20/05/15 22:44
From: Yesim Capa
Kullanabilirsin Dilek. Izin yazısına ihtiyacın var mi?
Y.
Sent from my iPhone

Re: Öğretmenlerin Öğrenci Başarısından Sorumluluk Algı Ölçeği
To: Dilek VURAL , as@metu.edu.tr
Date: 28/02/15 18:44
From: Gulay Ekici
Mrh Dilek hanım,
Evet dün Ahmet hocamızla telefonda görüşmüştük ölçek konusunda. Ölçeği tez çalışmanızda kullanabilirsiniz. Ayrıca ekte bu konuda benim ve çalışma arkadaşlarımla ortak hazırladığımız çalışmaların listesini gönderiyorum. bu çalışmalarada ulaşarak tezinizde kullanabilirsiniz.

Çalışmanızın sonuçlarını bende merakla bekliyorum. Umarım orijinal-güzel sonuçlar elde edebilirsiniz.
Başarılar dilerim. İyi çalışmalar

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APPENDIX F: TURKISH SUMMARY

GİRİŞ

Globalleşen dünyada, İngilizce hem sosyal hem iş bağlamında önemli bir iletişim aracı haline gelmiştir (Yang, Chuang, Li, & Tseng, 2013). Bu yüzden, tüm dünyada pek çok insan bugünün küreselleşen dünyasında var olabilmek için önemli bir gereklilik olan İngilizce dilini öğrenmek için çok fazla vakit ve para harcamaktadır. Türkiye de İngilizcenin yaygınlaşmasından etkilenmiştir. 4+4+4 modeline geçişle beraber, İngilizce öğretimi ilköğretimde 4. sınıf yerine 2. sınıftan itibaren başlamaktadır. Hem devlet kurumları hem de özel kurumlar, ilköğretimden lisansüstü eğitim seviyesine kadar İngilizce eğitimi sunmaktadırlar. Hazırlık eğitimi programlarına ek olarak, pek çok üniversite, mezuniyetten sonra öğrencilerinin İngilizce yeterliliği sağlamak için İngilizce dersleri sunmaktadır. Fakat, İngilizce öğrenmeye başlanan erken yaşa ve devam eden düzenlemelere, çabalara rağmen, hala öğrencilerin çoğu, dili İngilizce olan bir ortamda etkili bir şekilde konuşma becerisine sahip olmadan, lise öğrenimini tamamlamaktadırlar (MEB Talim ve Terbiye Kurulu Başkanlığı, 2013).

Eğitim ortamında etkisi olan çok fazla grup vardır: Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı, politikacılar, yöneticiler, öğretmenler, öğrenciler ve aileler onlardan bazılarıdır ve bu grupların her biri, öğrenci başarı ve başarısızlığında bir yere kadar sorumluk sahibidirler. Öğretmenler, sınıf içindeki eğitimden sorumlu oldukları için, öğrencilerin başarı ve başarısızlığındaki rolleri inkâr edilemez (Ekici, 2013). Schalock (1998) ayrıca, öğretmenlerin sınıftaki öğrenmeden sorumlu olmaları sebebiyle, yükümlülüğün çoğunlukla öğretmende olduğununu ileri sürmüştür.

Sorumluluk algısı öğretmenlerin davranışlarını etkileyen faktörlerden birisidir. Lauermann (2013) öğretmenlerin sorumluluk algısının, onların öğretme eylemlerini, psikolojik durumlarını ve öğrencilerinin başarısını etkilediğini ileri

sürmüştür. Öğretmenlerin sorumluluk algısı, öğretmenlikle ilgili pozitif düşünceyle (Guskey, 1984) ve yeni eğitici teknikleri kullanma isteği ile ilişkilendirilmiştir (Guskey,1988).

Guskey (1981)' e göre, öğretmenlerin özyeterlik inançları ve öğrenci başarı ve başarısızlığı ile ilgili sorumluluk algıları arasında yakın bir ilişki vardır. Ayrıca, sorumluluğun kökeni ne olursa olsun, öğretmenin öğrencisinin başarısından sorumluluk algısı, öğrenci başarısını etkileyen önemli bir öğretmenlik niteliğidir (Guskey, 1981). Üniversitede çalışan öğretmenler düşünüldüğünde, durum çok da farklı değildir. Üniversite çalışan öğretmenlerden beklenilenler sadece teorik ve deneysel alanda uzmanlıkla sınırlı değildir, ayrıca motivasyon, mesleki gelişime devam etmek için istekli olma ve çabalarıyla değiştirebilecekleri şeyler için sorumluluk sahibi olma gibi niteliklere sahip olmaları da beklenmektedir (Sembradov & Hubackova, 2014). Öğretmenlerin sorumluluk algısı, eğitim alanındaki çalışmalarda dikkate değer bir konudur çünkü bu algı öğretmenlerin davranışlarını, yaklaşımlarını, öğrenci davranışlarını, sınıf dinamiklerini ve eğitimi etkilemektedir. Fakat, öğretmenlerin sorumluluk algısı konusuna çalışmalarda yeteri kadar önem verilmemiştir (Lauermann & Karabenick, 2014). İlgili literatür incelendiğinde, Türkiye' de çalışan İngilizce öğretmenlerinin sorumluluk algısı ile ilgili de çok fazla çalışma bulunmamaktadır.

Çalışmanın Amacı: Bu çalışmada, aşağıdaki araştırma soruları cevaplanmaya çalışılmıştır.

1. Okutmanlarının öğrenci başarı ve başarısızlığından genel sorumluluk algı düzeyi nedir?
   1.1 Okutmanlarının öğrenci başarısından sorumluluk algı düzeyi nedir?

   1.2 Okutmanlarının öğrenci başarısızlığından sorumluluk algı düzeyi nedir?

2. Okutmanların öğrenci başarı ve başarısızlığından genel sorumluluk algısı ile özyeterlik inançları arasındaki ilişki nedir?

2.1 Okutmanlarının öğrenci başarısından sorumluluk algısı ile özyeterlik inançları arasındaki ilişki nedir?

2.2 Okutmanlarının öğrenci başarısızlığından sorumluluk algısı ile özyeterlik inançları arasındaki ilişki nedir?

3. Öğretmenlik tecrübesi, İngilizce yeterlilik puanları, öğretmen öz yeterliği ve motivasyonu, okutmanların öğrenci başarı ve başarısızlığından genel sorumluluk algısı ne derece yordamaktadır?

3.1 Öğretmenlik tecrübesi, İngilizce yeterlilik puanları, öğretmen öz yeterliği ve motivasyonu, okutmanların öğrenci başarısından sorumluluk algısını ne derece yordamaktadır?

3.2 Öğretmenlik tecrübesi, İngilizce yeterlilik puanları, öğretmen öz yeterliği ve motivasyonu, okutmanların öğrenci başarısızlığından sorumluluk algısını ne derece yordamaktadır?

LİTERATÜR TARAMASI

Öğretmenlerin Sorumluluk Algısı: Sorumluluk konusu psikoloji, felsefe ve sosyolojiyi içeren pek çok alanda, değişik anlam ve kavramlaştırmaları ortaya çıkaran pek çok bakış açısıyla incelenmiştir. Lauermann ve Karabenick (2011) sorumluluk kavramını şöyle tanımlamışlardır, " Belirlenmiş sonuçları üretmek ya da engellemek için duyulan içsel bir zorunluluk ve kendini adama algısıdır" (p.127). Lauermann (2013), sorumluluk kavramının iş özerkliği, kurumdaki görev yeri, kurumdan alınan destek, içsel kontrol odağı, özyeterlik inancı, güven, iş etiği, mesleki gelişim gibi pek çok faktörden etkilendiğini ileri sürmüştür ve dışsal sonuçlar üzerindeki içsel kontrol algısının ve önceden belirlenmiş sonuçlara ulaşma yeteneğine inancın sorumluluk almak için hazır olma durumunu arttırdığını ifade etmiştir. Eğitim alanında, öğretmen sorumluluğunun tanım ve değerlendirilmesine

ilişkin ortak bir dayanak yoktur. Öğretmenlerin sorumluluk algısı ile ilgili çalışmalar incelendiğinde, sorumluluk kavramı beş farklı açıdan işlevsel olarak tanımlanmıştır: "nedenselliğin ve kontrolün içsel ve dışsal olarak yüklenmesi, sorumluluk kavramının tekli maddelerle ölçümü, çok kültürlülük, çeşitlilikle ilgili eğitim gibi belirli sonuçlar için sorumluluk, öğretmenlikte kullanılan sorumluluğun kapsamlı ölçümü ve öğretmenlerin kolektif sorumluluğun ölçümü" (Lauermann & Karabenick, 2013, s. 14). Bu çalışmada, ilk yaklaşım olan "nedenselliğin ve kontrolün içsel ve dışsal olarak yüklenmesi" ve Guskey'in (1981) çalışmalarında da görülen "kontrol odağı olarak sorumluluk" yaklaşımı benimsenmiştir. Aslında Guskey'in, sorumluluk kavramı, insanların olayları nasıl yorumladıkları ve bunu düşünce ve davranışlarına nasıl ilişkilendirdikleri ile ilgilenen yükleme teorisine dayalıdır. Yükleme teoristleri, genellikle belli bir olayın olması için algılanan sebepler olan nedensellik algıları ile ilgilenmişlerdir. Başarı ile ilgili bir olayda, o olayın sonucuna yorum yapmak için kullanılabilecek 4 sebep vardır: yetenek, çaba, işin zorluğu ve şans (Weiner, 1976). Weiner (1979) öğretmenlerin sorumluluk algısının, öğretmenlerin davranışları ve özyeterlik inançları arasında dolaylı ilişkiye sebep olabileceğini ileri sürmüştür. Ayrıca, yüksek seviyede özyeterliğe sahip olan öğretmenler, öğrencilerinin hem başarısından hem de başarısızlığından sorumluluk duymaktadırlar ve düşük seviyede özyeterliğe sahip olan öğretmenler, öğrencilerinin başarısızlığını dışsal sebeplere bağlamaktadırlar (Guskey, 1981).

Öğretmen Özyeterliği: Tschannen-Moran ve Woolfolk Hoy (2001), öğretmen özyeterliğini şöyle tanımlamışlardır: "belirli bir ortamda belli bir öğretme görevini başarmak için gerekli eylemleri gerçekleştirmek ve organize etmek için bir öğretmenin kendi yeteneğine olan inancı" (p. 203). Clark (1999), öğretmen özyeterliğinin ve öğretmenlerin öğrencilerinin öğrenme sonuçları için nedensellik yüklemelerinin, öğretmenlerin problemle ilgili sorumluluk algısını ve öğrencilere karşı davranışlarını etkilediğini ileri sürmüştür. Silverman (2010) özyeterlik araştırmalarında, bir eylemi yapmak ve yapmamak için alınan kararın arkasındaki motivasyon faktörünün eksik parça olduğunu ileri sürmüştür ve ona göre, bu motivasyon faktörü, sorumluluk algısıdır. Sorumluluk algısı, sonuçlar ve özyeterlik ile ilgili fikirlerin güçlü bir yordayıcısı olabilir çünkü birisinin sorumluluk algısı

yüksek ise, o kişi istenilen sonuca ulaşmada kendi yeteneğine olan inancı olmasa bile belirli bir şekilde davranabilir.

Öğretmen Motivasyonu: Öğretmen eğitimi alanındaki araştırmaların çoğu, öğretmen eğitimin öğrencinin motivasyonu ve başarısı üzerinde olan etkisini araştırmıştır (Mifsud, 2011). Öğretmen motivasyonu üzerine olan literatür düşünüldüğünde, öne çıkan 3 araştırma konusu vardır: öğretmenliği kariyer olarak seçme, öğretirken karşılaşılan sorunlar, öğretmenlerin ve öğrencilerin gelişimini etkileyen şeyler (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Öğretmen motivasyonu sadece öğretmek için motivasyona sahip olmak değildir, ayrıca öğretmenlik mesleğini ömür boyu bir meslek olarak devam ettirmek ile ilgilidir (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Lauermann ve Karabenick (2014), kişisel sorumluluğun bir kişinin psikolojik olarak iyilik hali, performansı ve bu şekilde duyguları ve motivasyonu ile ilişkili olduğunu ileri sürmüşlerdir. Lauermann (2013)' a göre, sorumluluk çalışmaları, öğretmen motivasyonu ile ilgili çalışmaları tamamlamaktadır, çünkü literatürde çok fazla dikkat çekmeyen önemli bir motivasyon kaynağına vurgu yapılmaktadır, ki bu da içsel zorunluluk ve görev algısıdır. Guskey (1980) sorumluluk algısının öğretmenin sınıftaki performansını etkileyen motivasyonla ilgili faktörler arasında olabileceğini ileri sürmüştür. Nasıl bir öğrenci, başarı ya da başarısızlığı için sorumluluk hissettiğinde, bir ödül kovalarken bir zorlukla karşılaştığında daha fazla çaba ve sebat gösteriyorsa, öğrencilerinin başarı ve başarısızlığı için sorumluluk hisseden bir öğretmen, öğrencilerinin başarısı için ve sınıftaki problemleri çözmek için daha fazla çaba göstermektedir. Öğretmenler, sorumluluğun çaba sarf etme, azim, öğrencilere kendini adama ile ilgili motivasyonla ilgili sonuçları olduğunu ama bunun ayrıca daha fazla iş, daha az uyku ve aileleriyle daha az vakit geçirmeyle sonuçlandığını bildirmişlerdir (Lauermann, 2014).

Öğretmenlerin Sorumluluk Algısı ile ilgili Çalışmalar: Öğretmenlerin sorumluluk algısı ile ilgili çalışmalar incelendiğinde, katılımcıların farklı eğitim basamaklarında çalıştıkları söylenebilir: bazıları ilkokul, ortaokul öğretmenleridir (Akbaba-Altun, 2009; Brookover & Lezotte, 1979; Guskey, 1981, 1982, 1984,

1987), bazıları da lise öğretmenleridir (Matteucci, 2007). Ayrıca, Türkiye'deki bazı çalışmalar, özellikle hizmet öncesi öğretmenler arasında yaygındır (Ekici, 2013; Ekici, 2014; Eren, 2014; Güvenç, 2011; Kurt & Ekici, 2013; Kurt, Güngör, & Ekici, 2014). Öğretmenlerin sorumluluk algısı ile ilgili çalışmaların hazırlık okullarında çalışan okutmanlar arasında yaygın olmadığı söylenebilir. 1979 ve 2014 yılları arasında yapılan çalışmalarda öğretmenlerin sorumluluk algısı farklı değişkenler açısından incelenmiştir: cinsiyet (Aktaş et al.,2013; Ekici, 2012b; Guskey, 1981), tecrübe (Aktaş et al.,2013; Ekici 2012b; Guskey,1981; Kurt, 2013a; Sherman& Giles, 1981), okutulan sınıf seviyesi (Guskey, 1981), öğretmen özyeterliği (Guskey, 1982), öğretmenlerin sınıf yönetimi profilleri (Kurt, 2013b), öğretmen yetkisi (Jackson-Crossland, 2000) ve öğretmen beklentileri (Collins, 2010; Diamond, Randolph, & Spillane, 2004; Scott & Teddlie, 1987). Bu çalışmalarda kullanılan en yaygın araştırma deseni korelasyondur. Ayrıca deneysel araştırma yöntemi de kullanılmıştır. Çalışmalarda genel olarak nicel veri toplanmıştır.

YÖNTEM

Çalışmanın Planı: Bu çalışmanın asıl amacı, İngilizce hazırlık okulunda çalışan okutmanların öğrenci başarı ve başarısızlığından sorumluluk algısının farklı değişkenler açısından incelenmesidir. Çalışma, Ankara'da çalışan İngilizce okutmanları ile birlikte yürütülmüştür. Çalışma ayrıca, İngilizce okutmanlarının öğrenci başarı ve başarısızlığından sorumluluk algısı ile okutmanların özyeterlik inançları arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemeyi hedeflemektedir. Son olarak da, öğretmenlik tecrübesi, İngilizce yeterlilik puanları, öğretmen öz yeterliği ve motivasyonun okutmanların öğrenci başarı ve başarısızlığından sorumluluk algısını yordama gücünü tespit edilmesi amaçlanmaktadır. Bu amaçlara ulaşmak için, korelasyon araştırma yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Çalışmada 1 adet bağımlı değişken vardır: okutmanların öğrenci başarı ve başarısızlığından genel sorumluluk algısı, ve 4 tane de yordayıcı (bağımsız) değişken vardır: Öğretmenlik tecrübesi, İngilizce

yeterlilik puanları, öğretmen öz yeterliği ve motivasyon puanları. Değişkenlerin hepsi sürekli sayısal verilerdir. Katılımcılar 207 tane İngilizce hazırlık okulu okutmanıdır. Veri, Hacettepe Üniversitesi, Gazi Üniversitesi, Bilkent Üniversitesi, TOBB Ekonomi ve Teknoloji Üniversitesi, Başkent Üniversitesi, Atılım Üniversitesi ve Ufuk Üniversitesi'nden toplanmıştır. Veri analizi için, betimsel, korelasyon ve hiyerarşik çoklu regresyon analiz yöntemleri kullanılmıştır. Hiyerarşik çoklu regresyon analizleri, iki blok şeklinde yapılmıştır. Değişkenlerin sırası, araştırmacı tarafından, değişkenlerin teorik önemleri, geçmiş çalışmalar ve sonuçtaki yordama gücünün önemine göre karar verilmiştir.

Veri Toplama Araçları: Veri toplama araçları, Öğretmen Özyeterlik Ölçeği (Çapa Aydın et al., 2005), Öğrenci Başarısından Sorumluluk Ölçeği (Ekici, 2012a) ve Öğretmen Motivasyonu Ölçeği' nin (Aksoy,2007; Tanrıverdi, 2007) adapte edilmiş versiyonudur. Öğretmen Özyeterlik Ölçeği, 24 maddeden oluşmaktadır ve ''Çok Yeterli'' (9)' den ''Yetersiz (1)' e uzanan Likert tipi ölçek şeklindedir. Öğrenci Başarısından Sorumluluk Ölçeği, 28 maddeden oluşmaktadır, her bir madde için iki alternatif bulunmaktadır. Katılımcıların 100 puanı bu iki alternatife eşit olarak dağıtmaları beklenmektedir. Öğretmen Motivasyonu ölçeği, 18 maddeden oluşmaktadır. Maddeler, Çok Memnunum (5)'dan, Hiç Memnun Değilim (1)' e uzanan 5'li Likert tipi ölçek şeklindedir. Öğretmen Motivasyonu ölçeği için gerekli geçerlilik ve güvenirlik çalışmaları yapılmıştır. Literatür incelenmesinden sonra, ölçeğe yeni maddeler eklenmiş, uzman görüşü alınmış ve gerekli değişiklikler yapılmıştır. Daha sonra, pilot çalışma için, 76 adet İngilizce okutmanına uygulanmıştır, güvenirlik çalışmasında Cronbach Alpha iç tutarlık katsayısı .92 olarak bulunmuştur ve ölçek yüksek güvenirlik derecesine sahiptir.

Veri Analizi Yöntemleri: Toplanan veriler bilgisayar ortamına aktarılmıştır ve SPSS 22.0 istatistik paketiyle analiz edilmiştir. Öncelikle, betimsel istatistik analiz yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Çıkarımsal istatistik sonuçları için, korelasyon ve hiyerarşik çoklu regresyon analiz yöntemleri kullanılmıştır. Tabachnick and Fidell (2013, p.123) regresyon analizi için gerekli katılımcı sayısını şu şekilde ifade etmiştir: çoklu korelasyonu test etmek için, $N \geq 50 + 8m$ (m: bağımsız değişken sayısı) ve

yordayıcıyı test etmek için, $N \geq 104 + m$ (m: bağımsız değişken sayısı) olmalıdır. Bu formüle göre, 207 kişiden toplanan verinin, regresyon analizi için uygun olduğuna karar verilmiştir. Regresyon analizinden önce, bu analiz tipi için varsayımlar kontrol edilmiştir. Bağımlı ve bağımsız değişkenler sürekli değişkenlerdir ve kategorik değişken değillerdir. Bağımsız değişkenler arasında çoklubağıntı görülmemelidir. Bunun için bağımsız değişkenler arasındaki korelasyon katsayısının .30 dan az olup olmadığı ve VIF ve Tolerans değerleri kontrol edilmiştir. Normallik ve doğrusallık varsayımlarını ihlal eden uç değer olup olmadığını kontrol etmek için, grafikler ve Mahalanobis Cook' D ve Leverage, Df Beta uzaklık değerleri kontrol edilmiştir. Durbin ve Watson değerlerinin de 1.5 ve 2.5 arasında olup olmadığı kontrol edilmiştir ve 1.87 olarak bulunmuştur. (Tabachnick &Fidell, 2013, p.128). Bütün bu değerler ve grafikler incelendikten sonra, 114 numaralı katılımcının aykırılık gösterdiğine karar verilmiştir ve regresyon analizine katılmamıştır. Ayrıca İngilizce yeterlilik puanlarını belirtmeyen 4 katılımcı da regresyon analizine dahil edilmemiştir. Regresyon analizinde, 1. Blokta öğretmenlik tecrübesi ve İngilizce yeterlilik puanları girilmiştir, 2. Blokta ise öğretmen özyeterlik ve motivasyon puanları girilmiştir.

BULGULAR

Çalışmaya 207 tane İngilizce okutmanı (172 kadın, 35 erkek) katılmıştır. Katılımcıların yaşları 22 ve 60 arasındadır (*Ort*= 33.21, *SS*=8.16). Öğretmenlik tecrübeleri ise 1 yıl ve 38 yıl arasında değişkenlik göstermektedir (*Ort*= 10.16, *SS*=7.75). İngilizce yeterlilik puanları ise, 62.5 ve 100 arasında değişkenlik göstermektedir (*Ort*=93.83, *SS*=4.74). Okutmanların motivasyon seviyeleri, 1.67 ve 4.94 arasında değişkenlik göstermektedir (*Ort*= 3.38, *SS*= .62). Bu bölümde, yapılan analizlerin sonuçları her bir araştırma sorusu için ayrı başlıklar altında açıklanacaktır.

Okutmanların Öğrenci Başarı ve Başarısızlığından Sorumluluk Algısı: Birinci araştırma sorusunun cevabı, betimsel analiz yöntemi kullanılarak cevaplanmıştır. Analiz sonuçları göstermiştir ki, okutmanların genel olarak öğrencilerin başarı ve başarısızlığından sorumluluk algısı 48.10 (*SS*=8.25)'dur. Alt araştırma soruları için yapılan betimsel analizler göstermiştir ki, okutmanların öğrenci başarısından sorumluluk algısı 57.59 (*SS*=9.58)'dur. Diğer yandan, okutmanların öğrenci başarısızlığından sorumluluk algısı 38.61 (*SS*= 12.96)'dir. Betimsel analiz sonuçları göstermiştir ki, okutmanların öğrenci başarısından sorumluluk algısı hem genel sorumluluk algılarından hem de öğrenci başarısızlığından duydukları sorumluluk algısından yüksektir.

Okutmanların Özyeterlik İnançları ile Sorumluluk Algısı Arasındaki İlişki: İkinci araştırma sorusu ve alt araştırma sorularını cevaplamak için yapılan korelasyon analizi sonuçları göstermiştir ki, okutmanların özyeterlik inançları ve öğrencilerinin başarı ve başarısızlığından genel sorumluluk algıları arasında anlamlı ve önemli bir ilişki yoktur. Aynı şekilde, okutmanların özyeterlik inançları ve öğrenci başarısızlığından sorumluluk algıları arasında anlamlı ve önemli bir ilişki yoktur. Fakat, okutmanların özyeterlik inançları ve öğrenci başarısından sorumluluk algıları arasında anlamlı ve önemli bir ilişki vardır, r=+.29, n=207, ρ <.01, çift kuyruklu.

Okutmanların Öğrenci Başarı ve Başarısızlığından Sorumluluk Algısının Yordayıcıları: Okutmanların öğrenci başarı ve başarısızlığından genel sorumluluk algılarının, okutmanların öğrenci başarından sorumluluk algılarının, okutmanların öğrenci başarısızlığından sorumluluk algılarının, öğretmenlik tecrübesi, İngilizce yeterlilik puanları, öğretmen öz yeterliği ve motivasyon tarafından ne derece yordandığını incelemek için 3 adet hiyerarşik çoklu regresyon analiz yapılmıştır. Birinci regresyon analiz sonuçlarına göre, öğretmenlik tecrübesi, İngilizce yeterlilik puanları (Model 1) okutmanların öğrenci başarı ve başarısızlığından genel sorumluluk algısını yordama gücüne sahip değildir. Fakat Model 2'ye öğretmen özyeterlik ve motivasyon değişkenleri eklendiğinde, bu modelin okutmanların öğrenci başarı ve başarısızlığından genel sorumluluk algısını yordama gücüne sahip

olduğu bulunmuştur, F (2,197) = 3.91, $p<.$ 05, R^2 =.06. Model 2 deki her bir değişken ayrı ayrı incelendiğinde, sadece motivasyon değişkeni, okutmanların genel sorumluluk algısını yordamıştır, t *(197)* = 2.32, $p<.$ 05. İkinci regresyon analiz sonuçlarına göre, öğretmenlik tecrübesi, İngilizce yeterlilik puanları (Model 1) okutmanların öğrenci başarısından sorumluluk algısını yordama gücüne sahip değildir. Fakat Model 2'ye öğretmen özyeterlik ve motivasyon değişkenleri eklendiğinde, okutmanların öğrenci başarısından sorumluluk algısını yordama gücüne sahip olduğu bulunmuştur, F (2,198) = 11.83 $p<.$ 05, R^2 =.11. Model 2 deki her bir değişken ayrı ayrı incelendiğinde, sadece öğretmen özyeterlik değişkeni, okutmanların öğrenci başarısından sorumluluk algısını yordamıştır, t *(198)* = 4.35, $p<.$ 05. Üçüncü analiz sonuçlarına göre, öğretmenlik tecrübesi, İngilizce yeterlilik puanları (Model 1) okutmanların öğrenci başarısızlığından sorumluluk algısını yordama gücüne sahip değildir. Model 2'ye öğretmen özyeterlik ve motivasyon değişkenleri eklendiğinde, yine okutmanların öğrenci başarısızlığından sorumluluk algısını yordama gücüne sahip olmadığı bulunmuştur.

SONUÇ ve TARTIŞMA

İlk araştırma sorusu için yapılan analizler göstermiştir ki, okutmanların öğrenci başarısından sorumluluk algısı hem öğrenci başarı ve başarısızlığı için genel sorumluluk algılarından, hem de öğrenci başarısızlığından duydukları sorumluluk algısından yüksektir. Literatür incelendiğinde, okutmanların öğrenci başarı ve başarısızlığı için genel olarak orta seviyede sorumluluk sahibi oldukları ve öğrenci başarısı için öğrenci başarısızlığına göre daha fazla sorumluluk hissettikleri görülmüştür. Bu açıdan, bu çalışmanın sonuçları geçmiş araştırmaların sonuçları ile paraleldir (Aktaş et al.,2013; Ekici, 2012b; Ekici, 2013; Guskey, 1981, 1987; Kurt, 2013a; Kurt & Ekici, 2013; Matteucci, 2007). Bu sonuçları düşünerek, öğrenci performansının –başarı ya da başarısızlığın- öğretmenlerin sorumluluk algısını etkileyen bir faktör olabileceği söylenebilir.

İkinci araştırma sorusu için yapılan korelasyon analiz sonucuna göre, okutmanların özyeterlik inançları ve öğrenci başarı ve başarısızlığından genel sorumluluk algıları arasında anlamlı ve önemli bir ilişki yoktur. Aynı şekilde, okutmanların özyeterlik inançları ve öğrenci başarısızlığından sorumluluk algıları arasında anlamlı ve önemli bir ilişki yoktur. Fakat, okutmanların özyeterlik inançları ve öğrenci başarısından sorumluluk algıları arasında anlamlı ve önemli bir ilişki vardır. İlgili literatür incelendiğinde, bu çalışmanın aksine, bazı çalışmalarda, öğretmenlerin özyeterlik inançları ve öğrenci başarı ve başarısızlığından genel sorumluluk algıları arasında pozitif ve anlamlı ilişki bulunmuştur (Ekici, 2013; Kurt, 2013a; Kurt, Güngör & Ekici, 2014). Sonuçlardaki tutarsızlık, önceki çalışmalardaki katılımcıların ya Biyoloji öğretmeni ya da hizmet öncesi öğretmeni olmalarından kaynaklanabilir. Bu çalışmadaki katılımcılar ise, hazırlık okullarında çalışan İngilizce okutmanlarıdır. Bu okutmanlar, gerçek öğretmenlik tecrübesine sahiptirler ve diğer taraftan İngilizce ve Biyoloji birbirinden çok farklı iki branştır. Bu durum sonuçlardaki farklılığa sebep olmuş olabilir. Ayrıca çalışmaların lise, hazırlık okulu, eğitim fakültesi gibi farklı eğitim ortamlarında yapılmış olması da sonuçları etkilemiş olabilir.

Üçüncü araştırma sorusu için 3 adet çoklu regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Birinci regresyon analiz sonuçlarına göre, öğretmenlik tecrübesi, İngilizce yeterlilik puanları (Model 1) okutmanların öğrenci başarısından ve başarısızlığından genel sorumluluk algısını yordama gücüne sahip değildir. Fakat Model 2'ye öğretmen özyeterlik ve motivasyon değişkenleri eklendiğinde, bu modelin okutmanların öğrenci başarısından ve başarısızlığından genel sorumluluk algısını yordama gücüne sahip olduğu bulunmuştur (Tablo 4.6' ya bakınız). Model 2 deki her bir değişken ayrı ayrı incelendiğinde, sadece motivasyon değişkeni, okutmanların genel sorumluluk algısını yordamıştır (Tablo 4.6' ya bakınız). Bu çalışmanın sonuçları, motivasyonun öğretmen sorumluluğunda bir kaynak olabileceğini göstermiştir. Benzer şekilde, Lauermann ve Karabenick (2014), kişisel sorumluluk duygusunun, kişilerin duygu ve motivasyonu ile ilişkili olduğunu ifade ederlerken, Guskey (1981) de sorumluluk algısının öğretmenlikle ilgili motivasyon için bir temel oluşturabileceğini öne sürmüştür. Fakat, literatürde, tecrübe ve özyeterlik değişkeni ile ilgili sonuçlar birbirinden farklılık göstermiştir.

İkinci regresyon analiz sonuçlarına göre, öğretmenlik tecrübesi, İngilizce yeterlilik puanları (Model 1) okutmanların öğrenci başarısından sorumluluk algısını yordama gücüne sahip değildir. Fakat Model 2'ye öğretmen özyeterlik ve motivasyon değişkenleri eklendiğinde, okutmanların öğrenci başarısından sorumluluk algısını yordama gücüne sahip olduğu bulunmuştur (Tablo 4.7' ye bakınız). Model 2 deki her bir değişken ayrı ayrı incelendiğinde, sadece öğretmen özyeterlik değişkeni, okutmanların öğrenci başarısından sorumluluk algısını yordamıştır (Tablo 4.7' ye bakınız). Ayrıca, Kurt (2013a), çalışmasında öğrenci başarısından sorumluluk algısı ve okutmanların özyeterlik inançları arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulmuştur, fakat tecrübenin öğretmenlerin öğrenci başarısından sorumluluk algısına önemli bir etkisi olmadığını bulmuştur. Guskey (1981, 1982) de çalışmalarında, tecrübe ve öğrenci başarısından sorumluluk algısı arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olmadığını bulmuştur.

Üçüncü analiz sonuçlarına göre, öğretmenlik tecrübesi, İngilizce yeterlilik puanları (Model 1) okutmanların öğrenci başarısızlığından sorumluluk algısını yordama gücüne sahip değildir. (Tablo 4.8' e bakınız). Model 2'ye öğretmen özyeterlik ve motivasyon değişkenleri eklendiğinde, yine okutmanların öğrenci başarısızlığından sorumluluk algısını yordama gücüne sahip olmadığı bulunmuştur (Tablo 4.8' e bakınız).

Son olarak, yapılan analizlerde, öğretmenlerin yeterlilik puanının ne genel sorumluluk algısını ne de öğrenci başarı ve başarısızlığı için ayrı ayrı sorumluluk algısını yordama gücüne sahip olmadığı bulunmuştur. Bunun sebebi İngilizce yeterlilik için sadece, dilbilgisi, kelime ve okuma becerilerini ölçen YDS sınav sonuçlarının dayanak noktası olarak alınması olabilir.

Araştırma ve Uygulama İçin Öneriler: Sorumluluk algısının önemi düşünüldüğünde, kurumlar öğretmenlerin hem öğrenci başarısı hem de başarısızlığı için sorumluluk algılarını arttırmak için mesleki gelişim oturumları düzenleyebilirler. Ayrıca yöneticiler, öğretmenlerin öğrenci başarısızlığından daha fazla sorumluluk hissetmeleri için eğitimle ilgili yeni tedbirler alabilirler ki bu da dolaylı olarak öğrencilerin başarısında bir artışa sebep olabilir. Ayrıca, eğitimde

sorumluluk sistemi tartışılabilir ve öğretmenlerin rolü ilgili taraflarca daha açık hale getirilebilir.

Literatürdeki çelişkili sonuçlar düşünüldüğünde, öğretmenlerin sorumluluk algısını etkileyen faktörler daha fazla çalışılabilir. İlerideki öğretmen sorumluluğu ile ilgili çalışmalarda şu değişkenler üzerinde araştırmalar yapılabilir: cinsiyet, okutulan sınıf seviyesi, branş, okulun büyüklüğü, öğrencilerin sosyo-ekonomik geçmişi, öğretmenlerin mesleki gelişime devam etme isteği, kurumsal özellikler. Ayrıca, öğrencilerin kendi başarı ve başarısızlıkları ile ilgili sorumluluk algıları çalışılabilir. Son olarak, daha genellenebilir sonuçlara ulaşabilmek için, öğretmen sorumluluğu çalışmaları, Türkiye'deki farklı illerdeki üniversitelerin hazırlık okullarında çalışan İngilizce okutmanlarıyla tekrar yapılabilir.

APPENDIX G: TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU

ENSTİTÜ

Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü	
Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü	X
Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü	
Enformatik Enstitüsü	
Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü	

YAZARIN

Soyadı: Bozu
Adı : Dilek
Bölümü: Curriculum and Instruction

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce): ENGLISH LANGUAGE PREPARATORY SCHOOL INSTRUCTORS' SENSE OF RESPONSIBILITY FOR STUDENTS' SUCCESS AND FAILURE

TEZİN TÜRÜ : Yüksek Lisans [X] Doktora [ ]

1. Tezimin tamamından kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir. [ ]
2. Tezimin içindekiler sayfası, özet, indeks sayfalarından ve/veya bir bölümünden kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir. [ ]
3. Tezimden bir (1) yıl süreyle fotokopi alınamaz. [X]

TEZİN KÜTÜPHANEYE TESLİM TARİHİ: