

Psychometric Evaluation Of The Turkish Version Of The Defensive Pessimism Scale

Müge ÇELİK ÖRÜCÜ*

Suggested Citation:

Çelik-Örücü, M. (2013). Psychometric evaluation of the Turkish version of the defensive pessimism scale. *Egitim Arastirmalari-Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 53, 115-130.

Abstract

Problem Statement: Much theoretical interest and attention has been given to the cognitive strategies that individuals use in achievement related domains. Defensive-pessimism is a functional strategy in a demanding academic setting for those who easily become anxious. However, this is a new concept for Turkish researchers and there is currently no instrument for defensive pessimism. Therefore, an instrument is needed to measure defensive pessimism.

Purpose of Study: The purpose of this study was to provide construct validation and normative data for the Turkish adaptation of Defensive-Pessimism Scale (DPS) in a sample of Turkish university students. In the educational settings, many teachers are not aware of defensive pessimism as a cognitive strategy because it is not included in their education. The use of this scale may have many implications in the educational setting.

Method: First, translation and back translation of the questionnaire were carried out. Thereafter, LISREL 8.30 was used to perform a confirmatory factor analysis. Confirmatory factor analysis was used as this is a theory-driven method for assessing the fit of a-priori-specified model. SPSS 17.0 was also used for descriptive statistics.

Findings and Results: Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted for both single and two-factor models of the Turkish version of the DPS. For the single model, after a slight modification, the following indices were obtained: χ^2 (51) = 121.04, p <.01; χ^2 /df = 2.37; GFI =.93; AGFI =.89; RMSEA =.07; and CFI =.95. For the two factor model, χ^2 (51) = 138.39, p <.01; χ^2 /df = 2.71; GFI =.91; AGFI =.87; RMSEA =.08; and CFI =.94 were found. The internal consistency of the DPS was assessed by Cronbach's alpha, which was.81 for the total; .78 for the negative expectation; and .64 for reflectivity. McDonald's Omega was also computed for the single

^{*}Dr. TED University, Faculty of Education, Turkey. E_mail:muge.celikorucu@gmail.com

factor as .77 and the two factor model for the negative expectation factor .81 and.73 for reflectivity. In order to test for gender differences, a independent samples t-test was used and no significant difference was found for the total scale and subscales t (254.64) = .103, p > .05. The correlation between the Perceived Stress Scale and DPS was found to be - , 29 (p < .01), with the correlation being .15 (p < .05) for the Generalized Self-Efficacy Scale.

Conclusions and Recommendations: The results of this study showed that the Turkish version of the DPS provides a reliable and valid measure for Turkish university students and can be used in related research.

Keywords: Defensive Pessimism Scale, reliability, and validity

In literature much theoretical interest and attention has been given to the cognitive strategies that individuals use in achievement related domains. Through the present, authors have investigated different cognitive strategies with their antecedents and consequences. In a study by Elliot and Church (2003), a motivational analysis of defensive pessimism and self-handicapping, cognitive strategies were defined as coherent patterns of appraisal, planning, affect management, retrospection, and effort that characterize an individual's striving in a particular domain of life, such as the achievement domain (p.370).

Defensive pessimism was first defined by Norem and Cantor (1986b) as a cognitive strategy that involves setting unrealistically low expectations and thinking through worst-case outcomes for a forthcoming achievement situation, even though success has been experienced in the past. Defensive pessimists, in order to prevent a loss of self-esteem in the event of failure, set low expectations, and their anxiety for potential failure is used to fuel efforts to do well.

Martin, Marsh, and Debus (2001) stated that defensive pessimism can be positively predicted by uncertain personal control over performance outcomes and negatively predicted by a general task-focused orientation. A strong desire for success and fear of failure has been speculated to be another antecedent for defensive pessimism (Norem & Cantor, 1986a). Some suggestions have been made by researchers that defensive pessimism does not undermine performance outcomes and that interfering with the strategy can actually result in a poor performance (Norem & Cantor 1986b, and Norem & Illingworth, 1993). Showers and Rubin (1990) stated that defensive pessimists do not ruminate or experience excessive anxiety after a performance, but also they do not deny responsibility for failure (Norem & Cantor, 1986b).

Norem and Chang (2002) commented on a different and positive function of defensive pessimism; even though there is considerable evidence that dispositional pessimism can have a debilitating effect on motivation. Defensive pessimism helps anxious people manage their anxiety so that it does not interfere with their performance. Defensive pessimists' performance can be impaired (and they feel more

anxious) if their reflective processes are disrupted by positive thinking and optimistic expectations, and they perform better when they are allowed to maintain low expectations and reflect on negative possibilities before a task (Norem & Chang, 2002).

It is informative to compare defensive pessimists to strategic optimists, but it is at least as illuminating to compare defensive pessimists to other people who are anxious but do not use defensive pessimism. In a longitudinal study, Norem (2002) found that defensive pessimists show a significant increase in self-esteem and satisfaction over time, perform better academically, form more supportive friendship networks, and make more progress in their personal goals than equally anxious students who do not use defensive pessimism. This research converges with contrasting strategic optimism and defensive pessimism to suggest quite strongly that taking away their defensive pessimism is not the way to help anxious individuals.

Isaacowitz and Seligman (2001) reported in their study that among those age 65+, a realistically pessimistic perspective is associated with better adaptation to negative life events, in contrast to the typical findings with younger samples. Optimism and positive thinking can counteract if they lead people to ignore or discount important cues and warnings. When the self-serving function of optimistic biases is considered, there is the motivation of preserving positive self-image and positive outlook factor in strategic optimists, and thus, they are potentially resistant to negative feedback which might be informative.

The cost and benefits of individualistic optimism may also vary among cultures. Chang (1996) found that Asian Americans were significantly more pessimistic than Caucasian Americans, but insignificantly less optimistic. In addition, while pessimism was negatively associated with problem-solving and expressing emotion coping strategies for Caucasian Americans, it was positively associated with the use of these coping strategies for Asian Americans. It seems likely that relationship between self-enhancement and other outcomes may vary in cultures that are less focused on individual achievement and satisfaction than American culture (Chang, 1996).

Lim (2009) examined the underlying factor structure of the defensive pessimism construct and its relationship with achievement motives. She used a sample of 542 Singaporean undergraduate students and found that defensive pessimism is a two factor construct. It is comprised of negative expectations in which individuals worry about possible pitfalls and reflectivity in which individuals devise ways to prevent possible pitfalls. It is important to note that the Defensive Pessimism Questionnaire has always been treated as a uni-dimensional measure of defensive pessimism ((DPQ; Norem, 2001cited in Lim, 2009)

Considering the research described above, defensive pessimism and negative thinking are considered effective ways for managing situations, and not as symptoms to be cured. In a sense, it is a type of coping, where thinking about these negative outcomes and increasing their anxiety motivates them to work harder. As

they approach their goals, they keep their anxiety from interfering by focusing on the steps needed to achieve their goals and avoid failure, as well as the emotional implications of failure (Parra, 2009, p. 3). The purpose of this study was to provide construct validation and normative data for the Turkish adaptation of the DPS in a sample of Turkish university students.

Method

Research Design

The research design for this study is considered both descriptive and confirmatory research. Confirmatory research tests *a priori* hypotheses—such *a priori* hypotheses are usually derived from a theory or the results of previous studies, which is also the purpose of this study. The study is also quantitative in nature, with the data being easily accessible (Deniz, 2013).

Research Sample

The sample of this study was determined by the purposive sampling method. It is a form of non-probability sampling in which decisions concerning the individuals to be included in the sample are taken by the researcher based upon a variety of criteria, which may include specialist knowledge of the research issue, or the capacity and willingness of individuals for participating in the research. Sometimes a research design necessitates researchers making a decision about the individual participants who would be most likely to contribute appropriate data, both in terms of relevance and depth (Jupp, 2006). Two hundred and sixty three university students in Ankara participated in the study. They were aged to 22 (mean age = 18.39), and 134 of them were female and 129 male.

Research Instruments

The Defensive Pessimism Questionnaire - 12 item (DPQ; Norem, 2001) measures the strategies to protect self-worth from possible failure by setting a lower level of expectations. To complete the DPS, the subjects rates each item with a response ranging from 'not at all true of me' (1) to 'very true of me' (7).

The General Perceived Self-Efficacy Scale (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995) is a psychometric scale that was designed to assess optimistic self-beliefs used to cope with a variety of difficult life demands. It has been used in numerous research projects, for which it has typically yielded high internal consistencies in several languages, including Turkish and English. The Turkish adaptation and validation of the same instrument was carried out by Yeşilay, Schwarzer and Jerusalem (1996). It is a 10-item scale with responses ranging from 'not at all true' (1) and 'exactly true' (4).

The Perceived Stress Scale - 10 item version (PSS-10) devised by Cohen, Kamarck, and Mermelstein (1983) measures an individual's appraisal of how stressful his or her life is. Example items include, 'how often have you felt nervous or stressed?' and 'how often have you felt confident about your ability to handle your personal problems?' Respondents rated how often they have experienced these feelings in the

last month on a 5 point Likert scale ranging from 0 = never to 4 = very often. The PSS-10 scores were obtained by reversing the scores on the four positive items; 4, 5, 7, and 8. The total scores ranged from 0 to 40, with higher scores indicating greater overall distress. In the literature, researchers found that internal consistencies ranged from between .75 to .86 (Cohen et al. 1983). The Turkish adaptation and validation of this instrument was carried out and the Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient for the Turkish version of the PSS-10 was found to be .84 (Örücü & Demir, 2009).

Procedure

Permission was obtained from the author to use the scale for research purposes. The scale was then translated into Turkish using a one-way translation qualitative method, which is the translation and checking of the questionnaire with a different group of translators (Savaşır, 1994). The translated items best representing the original items were translated back to the original language by a native English speaker who knows both languages well. Furthermore, a qualified Turkish language teacher reviewed the final form and her suggestions were incorporated into the translation. Then, this form was presented to researchers, counselors, and psychologists working with the university students. Finally university students from 15 classes were randomly selected among 150 classes and that formed the potential 300 students from a university in Ankara. Permission was obtained from the Director of the Preparatory School, who also arranged the classes randomly and decided on the day for the scale administrations. Although the estimated total of the students was approximately 300, only 263 provided valid data. It took approximately 15-20 minutes for participants to complete the questionnaires in their class.

Data Analyses

LISREL 8.30 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1999) was used to perform the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and SPSS 17.0 was used for descriptive statistics. Cronbach's alpha and McDonald's Omega were both calculated because the average interitem covariance provides a limited estimate of the scale's true score variance. Alpha is a consistent estimate of reliability only when all items load on a single underlying construct and when all items represent that construct equally well (i.e., essential tau equivalence; Geldhof, Preacher & Zyphur, 2013). CFA allows for heterogeneous correlations between indicators and their underlying common factor(s) (i.e., heterogeneous factor loadings), and *composite reliability* (\square) (*omega*) as calculated from factor loadings produces a more precise estimate of reliability than those provided by alpha (α).

Results

Construct Validity

Maximum likelihood was the estimation method and the covariance matrices were analyzed, and the original two-factor model was tested as well. The fit of the models was evaluated using the following multiple criteria: Chi square/df ratio, goodness of fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and comparative fit index (CFI). The following

criteria were used to indicate the goodness of fit: GFI, AGFI and CFI .90 and higher, RMSEA .08 or lower, and Chi-square/df ratio 3 or lower (Bentler, 1990; Bollen, 1990; Cole, 1987).

First, the single-factor model of the Turkish version of the DPS was evaluated, and confirmatory factor analysis yielded the following goodness of fit indices: $\chi^2/df = 4.07$; GFI =.877; AGFI =.822; RMSEA =.108; and CFI =.894. These indices indicated a poor fit. Then modifications suggested by the program were conducted, thus setting the error covariance free between item 7 and item 3, item 4 and item 2, and item 12 and item 7. After these modifications, the following goodness of fit indices were obtained: χ^2 =121.04, df= 51, p-value=0.000, χ^2/df = 2.37; GFI =.93; AGFI =.89; RMSEA =.07; and CFI =.95.

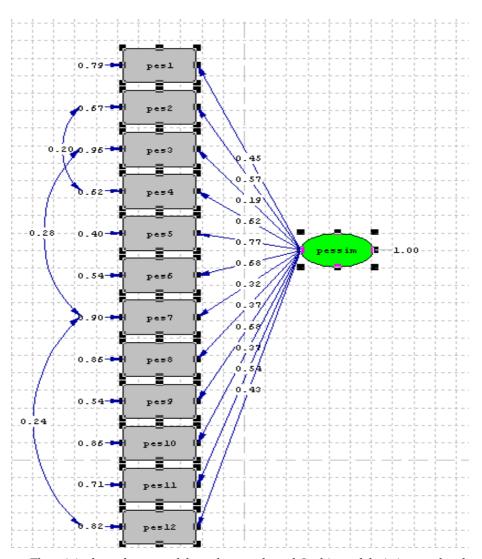
Table 1Factor Loadings, Standard Errors, T Values, Squared Multiple Correlations of the Items and Error Variances of the Turkish Version of the Single Factor Model

Factors & Item No.	λ	SE	T	R^2	Ψ
1	.45	.08	7.13	.21	1.37
2	.57	.06	9.25	.32	.73
3	.19	.06	2.83	.03	.89
4	.62	.06	10.20	.38	.77
5	.77	.07	13.76	.60	.61
6	.68	.06	11.47	.45	.72
7	.32	.05	4.82	.10	.65
8	.37	.06	5.78	.14	.93
9	.68	.06	11.53	.46	.71
10	.37	.07	5.75	.13	1.09
11	.54	.07	8.65	.28	.93
12	.43	.07	6.69	.18	1.01

 λ = Factor Loadings, SE = Standard Errors, T= T Values, R² = Squared Multiple Correlations of the Items, Ψ = Error Variances

Table 1 shows the factor loadings, standard errors, t values, squared multiple correlations (R^2) and error variances of the items of the Turkish version of the DPS for the single factor model.

Figure 1Path Diagram for the Single Factor Model



The original two factor model was later evaluated. In this model, six items related to negative expectations and six items related to reflectivity were specified. Confirmatory factor analysis for the two-factor model of the Turkish version of the DPS yielded the following goodness of fit indices: $\chi^2/df = 3.85$; GFI =.885; AGFI =.83; RMSEA =.104; and CFI =.906,. These indices indicated a poor fit. Then modifications suggested by the program were conducted which set the error covariance free between item 7 and item 3, as well as item 4 and item 2. After these modifications,

the following goodness of fit indices were obtained: χ^2 =138.39, df= 51, p-value=0.000, χ^2 /df = 2.71; GFI =.91; AGFI =.87; RMSEA =.08; and CFI =.94. These goodness-of-fit statistics show that the model seems acceptable, although there is a slightly lower value for AGFI.

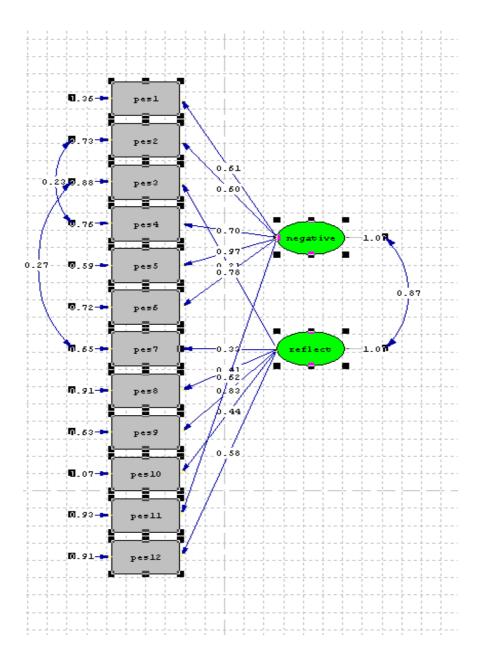
Table 2Factor Loadings, Standard Errors, T Values, and Squared Multiple Correlations of the Items and Error Variances of the Turkish Version of the Two Factor Model

Factors & Item No.	λ	SE	T	R^2	Ψ
Negative					
1	.61	.08	7.22	.21	.60
2	.60	.06	9.25	.33	.59
4	.70	.06	10.27	.39	.69
5	.97	.07	13.85	.61	.97
6	.78	.06	11.43	.45	.78
11	.62	.07	8.70	.29	.62
Reflectivity					
3	. 21	.06	3.19	.04	.21
7	. 33	.05	5.64	.14	.33
8	.41	.07	5.90	.15	.41
9	.83	.07	11.41	.52	.82
10	.44	.07	5.83	.15	.44
12	.58	.07	7.89	.26	.57

 λ = Factor Loadings, SE = Standard Errors, T= T Values, R² = Squared Multiple Correlations of the Items, Ψ = Error Variances

Table 2 shows the factor loadings, standard errors, t values, squared multiple correlations (R^2) and error variance of the items of the Turkish Version of the DPS for the two-factor model.

Figure 2Path Diagram for the Two Factor Model



Although the fit model and the reliability of the general structure of the scale was acceptable for the first order confirmatory factor analysis, for the second order factor analysis the model did not predict the general construct.

Criterian Validity

The correlation between the Perceived Stress Scale and DPS was examined and found to be -.29 (p < .01), indicating a negative correlation between them as expected. This is because the first scale measuring stress levels of individuals, as opposed to the DPS measure coping strategy and correlation, was .15 (p < .05) when using the Generalized Self-Efficacy Scale.

Reliability Results

For descriptive purposes, the mean (M = 52.76) and standard deviation (SD = 7.10) were computed for the total score. In order to test for gender differences, an independent samples t test was used and no significant differences were found for the total scale and subscales t (254.64) = .103, p > .05. The internal consistency of the DPQ was assessed by examining Cronbach's coefficient alpha, which was .81 for the total scale. McDonald's Omega was found as .77 for the total scale. Cronbach's coefficient alpha was 0.78 for the negative expectation factor and .64 for reflectivity. McDonald's Omega for the negative expectation factor was found to be .81 and .73 for the reflectivity factor.

Discussion and Conclusion

In this study the applicability of the DPS was investigated. Confirmatory factor analysis was used because it is a theory-driven method for assessing the fit of a-priori-specified model (Kline, 1998), and for the DPS as specified by Lim (2009). The single factor and two factor models were analyzed with first order factor analysis based on a covariance matrix. Reliable evidence from the DPS data was obtained from first order factor models. As an index of reliability, both Cronbach's alpha and McDonald's omega coefficients were calculated. Second order factor analysis was also conducted.

Although the fit model and the reliability of the general structure of the scale was acceptable for the first order confirmatory factor analysis, the second order factor analysis model did not predict the general construct. In a study done by Yurdugül and Aşkar (2008), they investigated the level of effect for six sub-constructs in PATT-TR on the general constructs of pupils'attitude towards technology. In their study, it was seen that two sub-constructs, "Technology & Gender" and "Personal Prerequisites," have no effect on the general attitude, and therefore they made a reduction by omitting these two sub constructs. In the present study, for the second order CFA, reflectivity happens to be the problem, but as this scale does not have many sub constructs or factors, omission was not considered as an option. Researchers interested in defensive pessimism constructs may prefer to use the scale as unidimensional as the scale provides strong indices and reliability values for both single and two factor models, they might be interested in using the two factor model.

Defensive Pessimism is a challenging cognitive strategy. Although they have done well in the past, when defensive pessimists think about future situations, they feel anxious and out of control. Their mental rehearsal, with its focus on worst-case scenarios of what can go wrong, helps them to use their anxiety as motivation for increased effort towards effective preparation. As they consider the possible undesired outcomes, they begin to visualize how they might prevent them, and in turn put their plans into action (Norem & Illingsworth, 2004, p. 352). The difference between traditional pessimists and defensive pessimists is the latter's willingness to reflect counteracts their pessimism by strengthening their intent to pursue and achieve their goals by the taking necessary steps (Norem & Illingsworth, 2004).

It was mentioned above that the cognitive strategies that students use in pursuit of achievement are critical to their success. Eronen, Nurmi, and Salmela-Aro (1998) carried out a study to identify the types of achievement strategy people apply in a university context, in addition to investigating the extent to which these strategies predict personal academic success and satisfaction. The types of achievement strategies used by people were optimism, defensive pessimism, impulsive strategy, and self-handicapping. The results showed that defensive-pessimism is a functional strategy in a demanding academic setting for those who easily become anxious, and despite their anxiety are able to do well in their university studies.

In educational settings, it is not likely that many teachers know about defensive pessimism, with the reason being it is not part of teacher education. As Merz and Swim (2008) stated, when students make negative comments such as 'I can't do that' or 'How am I supposed to remember that?', a natural reaction for teachers is to stop that type of thought process since it may be difficult to listen to (for example, it may raise the teacher's own anxiety levels) and also because it may adversely affect classroom culture (p.458). In addition, there is fear of a self-fulfilling prophecy because of the negative comments that might affect a student's self-esteem or sense of agency (Norem & Cantor, 1986b). Teachers may try to counter the negative expression by providing comments that attempt to build the student's confidence, not knowing that the defensive pessimist's learning process could actually be hindered by their well-intentioned comments (Merz & Swim, 2008).

In conclusion, it is important to be aware of the different cognitive strategies that students use in their everyday life and in the academic setting. As teachers have the opportunity to make a difference in the lives of their students, they need to listen carefully to the negative self-talk and observe the connected behaviors. Therefore, the use of this scale may have many implications in the educational setting.

Purposive sampling was used in this study to specifically target university students. The results may be affected by biases resulting from social status, gender, or very specific factors relating to the level or subject of study. It is important that those using this scale in new populations assure themselves of its internal consistency and factor structure, especially the reflectivity factor. In further studies, if defensive pessimism is found to be a critical construct in the education of Turkish students, changes in the curriculum should be considered in order to help students be more successful.

References

- Bentler, S. J. (1990). Application of covariance structure modeling in psychology: Cause for concern. *Psychological Bulletin*, 107(2), 260-273.
- Bollen, K. A. (1990). Overall fit in covariance structure models: Two types of sample size effects. *Psychological Bulletin*, 107(2), 256-259.
- Chang, E. C. (1996). Evidence for the cultural specificity of pessimism in Asians vs.

 Caucasians: A Test of a general negativity hypothesis. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 21, 819-822.
- Cohen, S., Kamarck, T., & Mermelstein, R. (1983). A global measure of perceived stress. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*; 24(4), 385-96.
- Cole, D. A. (1987). Utility of confirmatory factor analysis in test validation research. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, *55*(4), 584-594.
- Deniz, K. Z. (2013). National standardization of the occupational field interest inventory (OFII) for Turkish Culture According to Age and Gender. *Egitim Arastirmalari Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 50, 163-184.
- Elliot, A. J., & Church, M. A. (2003). A motivational analysis of defensive pessimism and self-handicapping. *Journal of Personality*, 71,369-396.
- Eronen, S., Nurmi, J.E., & Salmela-Aro, K. (1998). Optimistic, defensive-pessimistic, impulsive and self-handicapping strategies in university environments. *Learning and Instruction*, 8(2), 159-177.
- Geldhof, J,G., Preacher, J.K., & Zyphur, J.M.(in press). Reliability estimation in a multilevel confirmatory factor analysis framework. *Psychological Methods*,doi: 10.1037/a0032138 Isaacowitz, D.M. & Seligman, M.E.P. (2001). Is pessimism a risk factor for depressive mood among community-dwelling older adults? *Behavior Research and Therapy*, 39, 255-272.
- Jöreskog, K., & Sörbom, D. (1999). LISREL 8.30. Chicago: Scientific Software International INC.
- Jupp, V. (2006). The SAGE dictionary of social research methods. Newbury Park, CA: Sage. doi:10.4135/9780857020116
- Kline, R. B. (1998). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Lim, L. (2009). A two-factor model of defensive pessimism and its relations with achievement motives. *The Journal of Psychology*, 143(3), 318-336.
- Martin, A. J., Marsh, H. W., & Debus, R. L. (2001). Self-handicapping and defensive pessimism. Exploring a model of predictors and outcomes from a self-protection perspective. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 93, 87-102. doi:10.1037/0022-0663.95.3.617

- Merz, A. H., & Swim, T. J. (2008). Pre-service teachers' defensive pessimism in situ: Two case studies within a mathematics classroom. *Teacher and Teacher Education*, 24(2), 451-461.
- Norem, J. K. (2001). The positive power of negative thinking: Using defensive pessimism to harness anxiety and perform at your peak. New York: Basic Books
- Norem, J. K. (2002). *Strategies and goal pursuit: A longitudinal study,* unpublished data. Wellesley, MA: Wellesley College
- Norem, J. K & Cantor, N. (1986a). Anticipatory and post hoc cushioning strategies: Optimism and defensive pessimism in "risky" situations. *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, 19, 347-362. doi: 10.1007/BF01173471.
- Norem, J. K. & Cantor, N. (1986b). Defensive pessimism: Harnessing anxiety as motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(6), 1208-1217. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.51.6.1208.
- Norem, J. K. & Chang, E. C. (2002). The positive psychology of negative thinking. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 58(9), 993-1001. doi:10.1002/jclp.10094.
- Norem, J. K & Illingworth, K. S. S. (1993). Strategy-dependent effects of reflecting on self and tasks: Some implications of optimism and defensive pessimism. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 65(4), 822-835. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.65.4.822.
- Norem, J. K & Illingworth, K. S. S. (2004). Mood and performance among defensive pessimists and strategic optimists. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 38(4), 351-366.
- Parra, E. (2009). *The Effect of Encouragement on Defensive Pessimism as an Anxiety Amplifier*. Unpublished Honors Program in the Psychological Sciences Thesis. Nashville, TN: Vanderbilt University.
- Savaşır, I. (1994). Ölçek uyarlamasındaki sorunlar ve bazı çözüm yolları [Problems and solutions in scale adaptation]. *Türk Psikoloji Dergisi*, *9*, 27-32.
- Schwarzer, R., & Jerusalem, M. (1995). Generalized self-efficacy scale. In J. Weinman, S. Wright, & M. Johnston, *Measures in health psychology: A user's portfolio. Causal and control beliefs* (pp. 35-37). Windsor, UK: Nfer-Nelson.
- Showers, C. & Rubin, C. (1990). Distinguishing defensive pessimism from depression: Negative expectations and positive coping mechanisms. *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, 14, 385-399. doi: 10.1007/BF01172934.
- Örücü, M. Ç & Demir, A. (2009). Psychometric evaluation of perceived stress scale for Turkish University Students. *Stress and Health*, 25, 103-109. doi: 10.1002/smi.1218.
- Yeşilay, A., Schwarzer R, & Jerusalem M. (1996). *Turkish adaptation of the general perceived self-efficacy scale*. Retrieved November 3, 2006, from http://userpage.fu-berlin.de/health/turk.htm.

Yurdugül, H. & Aşkar, P. (2008). An investigation of the factorial structures of pupils' attitude towards technology (PATT): A Turkish Sample. *Elementary Education Online*, 7(2), 288-309.

Savunucu Karamsarlık Ölçeğinin Türkçe Formunun Psikometrik Açıdan Değerlendirmesi

Atıf:

Çelik-Örücü, M. (2013). Psychometric evaluation of the Turkish version of the defensive pessimism scale. *Egitim Arastirmalari-Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 53-115-130.

Özet

Problem Durumu: Bireylerin akademik ortamlarda kullandıkları bilişsel stratejilere araştırmacılar tarafından çok fazla ilgi duyulmuş ve bu konuda çeşitli kuramlar geliştirilmiştir. Bugüne kadar bireylerin kullandıkları farklı bilişsel stratejiler öncülleri ve sonuçlarıyla birlikte incelenmişlerdir. Bilişsel stratejiler, bireyin belirli bir alanda yaptığı uyumlu, tutarlı değerlendirme örüntüleri, planlama, duygu yönetimi ve geçmişi değerlendirmek için harcadığı çaba olarak tanımlanmıştır. Savunmacı Karamsarlık, özellikle beklentinin yoğun olduğu akademik ortamlarda çok fazla kaygılanan bireylerin kullanarak fayda görebileceği bir bilişsel strateji olarak tanımlanmıştır. Kişi, kendisi için önemli olan ve başarılı olup olmayacağını düşündüğünde kaygı yaşadığı bir durum karşısında olası bütün terslikleri, yapabileceği hataları ve yaşayabileceği olumsuzlukları düşünmektedir. Daha sonra bunlar olduğunda neler yapabileceğini değerlendirmekte ve strateji geliştirmektedir. Bu anlamda karamsarlıktan farklılık göstermektedir. Savunmacı Karamsarlık kavramı Türkçe alanyazınında yeni bir kavramdır ve Türkiye'de bunu ölçen bir araç bulunmamaktadır. Savunmacı Karamsarlık Ölçeği olumsuz beklentiler ve yansıtmacılık olmak üzere 2 alt ölçekten ve toplam 12 maddeden oluşmaktadır. Ölçekte yer alan herbir madde "Benim için doğru değildir" den "Benim için kesinlikle doğrudur"a değişen 7'li ölçek üzerinden değerlendirilmektedir. Her bir alt ölçekten alınan yüksek puan o özelliğin yüksek olduğuna işaret etmektedir. Bu ölçek, kendilerini bilişsel bireylerin tanımalarında, kullandıkları stratejileri değerlendirmelerinde ve karamsarlığın farklı bir boyutunun bilinmesinde, öğretmenlerin öğrencilerine yaklaşımlarında değişiklik yapabilmeleri konusunda yol gösterici olacaktır. Sıklıkla öğretmenler savunmacı karamsarlığı, karamsarlık olarak düşünmekte ve öğrencilerin olumsuzluklar üzerine düşündüğünü gördüklerinde bunun kendi kendini doğrulayacak bir kehanet olduğu var sayımında bulunarak, öğrencilerini mümkün olduğunca olumsuzluklardan uzaklaştırmaya çalışmaktadırlar ve bazen savunmacı karamsarların bilişsel stratejilerine müdahale etmektedirler. Bu nedenle, öğretmen ve öğrencilere Savunmacı Karamsarlık stratejisinin yerinde kullanılıp kullanılmadığını gösteren bir ölçüm aracı faydalı olacaktır.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Bu araştırmanın amacı Savunmacı Karamsarlık Ölçeğinin Türkçe Formunun psikometrik özelliklerinin değerlendirilmesidir.

Araştırmanın Yöntemi: Bu araştırmaya başlamadan önce Savunmacı Karamsarlık ölçeğinin geliştiricileriyle bağlantı kurulmuş ve gerekli izinler alınmıştır. Ölçek ilk önce İngilizceden Türkçeye daha sonrada Türkçeden İngilizceye çevrilerek backtranslation yapılmış, ayrıca çevirisi yapılmış ölçek maddeleri üniversite gençliğiyle çalışan alan uzmanlarına sunulmuş, ifadelerin uygunluğu ve anlaşılırlığı ile ilgili onay alınıp veriler toplanmıştır. Araştırmaya 134'ü kız, 129'u erkek olmak üzere 263 üniversite öğrencisi katılmıştır. Araştırmaya katılan öğrencilerin yaş aralığı 17-22 arasındadır. Araştırmada gerekli bilgileri toplamak için Savunmacı Karamsarlık Ölçeğinin Türkçe Formu, Algılanan Stres Ölçeği, Kendine Yeterlilik Ölçeği kullanılmıştır. Ölçeğin faktör ve yapı geçerliliği için LISREL 8.30 programı ile doğrulayıcı faktör analizi yapılmıştır ve SPSS-17.0 ile betimleyici istatistikler yapılmıştır. Her alt ölçek için Cronbach alfa iç tutarlılık katsayıları ve McDonald omegaları hesaplanmıştır. Açıklayıcı faktör analiz yapılmadan doğrudan doğrulayıcı faktör analizinin yapılma sebebi, ölçekle ilgili alan yazınında daha önce yapılan çalışmaların ölçeğin boyutlarını sağlam teorik temellere dayandırmasıdır. Ölçüte dayalı geçerliliğini hesaplamak için de Algılanan Stres Ölçeği ve Kendine Yeterlilik Ölçeği ile arasındaki ilişkiye bakılmıştır.

Araştırmanın Bulguları: LISREL 8.30 programıyla yapılan birinci sıralı doğrulayıcı faktör analizinin tek boyutlu modelinde ufak bir değişiklik yaparak χ^2 (51) = 121.04, p <.01; χ^2 /df = 2.37; GFI =.93; AGFI =.89; RMSEA =.07 and CFI =.95 sonuçları elde edilmiştir. İki faktörlü model için bulgular ise χ^2 (51) = 138.39, p <.01; χ^2/df = 2.71; GFI =.91; AGFI =.87; RMSEA =.08 and CFI =.94 şeklinde olmuştur. Ölçeğin güvenilirliği Cronbach alfa iç tutarlılık katsayıları hesaplanarak incelenmiştir. Tüm ölçek için .81, olumsuz beklentiler alt boyutu için .78, ve yansıtmacılık alt boyutu için .64 olarak bulunmuştur. Ayrıca McDonald's Omega hesaplandığında tek faktörlü model için .77 ,iki faktörlü modelin birinci faktörü için .81 ikincisi içinse .73 bulunmuştur. İkinci sıralı doğrulayıcı faktör analiz de yapılmış, fakat model yordayıcı olarak bulunmamıştır. Bunların yanı sıra cinsiyet farkı olup olmadığına bakılmış ve bir fark bulunamamıştır. Algılanan Stres Ölçeği ve Savunmacı Karamsarlık Ölçeğinin arasındaki korelasyona bakılmış ve sonuç -.29(p < .01) olarak düşük fakat anlamlı olarak bulunmuştur. Aralarındaki negatif korelasyonun nedeni ise, Algılanan Stres Ölçeğinin bireylerin stres düzeylerini ölçmesi, Savunmacı Karamsarlık Ölçeğinin ise bireyin stres ve kaygıyla baş etmek için kullandığı bilişsel bir strateji olmasıdır. Ayrıca Kendine Yeterlilik Ölceği ile Savunmacı Karamsarlık Ölçeğinin arasındaki korelasyonda .15 (p < .05) olarak bulunmuştur. Bu düşük fakat anlamlı bir değerdir.

Araştırmanın Sonuçları ve Öneriler: Bu araştırmada Savunmacı Karamsarlık Ölçeğinin Türkçeye çeviri çalışması yapılarak, psikometrik özelliklerine bakılmıştır. Bu amaçla ölçeğin yapı geçerliliği, ölçüt geçerliliği ve iç tutarlılığı incelenmiştir. Yapı geçerliliğinin belirlenmesi için doğrulayıcı faktör analizi uygulanmıştır. Sonuç olarak, yapılan istatistiksel değerlendirmeler Savunmacı Karamsarlık Ölçeğinin Türkçe formunun geçerlilik ve güvenilirliği konusunda kanıtlar sağlanmıştır. Özet

olarak, Savunmacı Karamsarlık Ölçeği'nin Türkçe formunun psikometrik uygunluğunun yeterli düzeyde olduğu görülmektedir. Ayrıca bu araştırma sonuçlarının kültürler arası karşılaştırmalı çalışmalara imkân sağlayacağı düşünülmektedir. Özellikle akademik ortamlarda öğrencilerin kullandıkları bilişsel stratejilerin başarıları üzerinde kritik bir etkiye sahip olduğu düşünüldüğünde, farklı bir strateji kullanmak, bunların eğitimciler tarafından bilinmesi bu stratejiyi kullananların desteklenmesi yönünden faydalı olacaktır. Bunun yanında, bu ölçeğin araştırmacılara, uygulamada çalışan uzmanlara da fayda sağlayacağı düşünülmektedir. Son olarak, ölçeğin normlarının oluşması açısından ölçek farklı yaş gruplarında ve okul türlerinde uygulanabilir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Savunucu Karamsarlık, geçerlik, güvenirlik