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Academic Self-Efficacy Scale for
Singapore, Spain and Turkey**

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Testing Measurement Invariance of Academic Self-Efficacy Scale for Singapore, Spain and Turkey

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Abstract

A scale that does not measure the same structure in different cultures should not be used in the cross-cultural comparison-based studies. The validity of the scales should be tested primarily for the countries. In this study, as the evidence of validity of the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2015 science self-efficacy scale, the measurement invariance has been tested for different cultures. As determined in scientific studies, general self-efficacy is focused on more and this should be examined in academic self-efficacy known to be to student learning and achievement. In the analysis of the data, the measurement model is initially tested. Then, the measurement invariance is tested with a series of analysis. As a result, the scale confirms a unidimensional structure for each country. However, it has provided partial measurement invariance. This indicates that item-based analysis should be conducted.

Introduction

Determining the performance of the students and the related variables has an important place in educational research. Defended in terms of the effect of students' characteristics on learning, the most important approach is that the students' own behaviors are important in the development of their motivation towards the lesson and thus in the realization of learning. In this research, one of the student behavior's structure, the academic self-efficacy, is examined in terms of cultures. According to Bandura (1977a; 1977b) self-efficacy as one of the students' beliefs, is an important component in social cognitive theory. Self-efficacy can be assessed in three characteristics: Level, generality, and strength, throughout activities and contexts. The level of self-efficacy refers to the degree of difficulty of a given task. Generality, relates to the transferability of self-belief among activities. The strength of the efficacy is measured by the amount of certainty of carrying out a given task. Despite a general self-efficacy structure defined for everyone, Bandura states that self-efficacy is peculiar to a task and domain. Therefore, there are different kinds of self-beliefs, including social self-efficacy, emotional self-efficacy, and academic self-efficacy. The current study focused on academic self-efficacy (science self-efficacy), which concerns the individual's beliefs about his ability to reach the goals in the school context on his own. (Muris, 2001).

Academic self-efficacy is essential for learning and academic performance (Zimmerman, 2000). It is a positive predictor of academic achievement in different courses such as mathematics, reading, and science (Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008). In a meta-analysis study by Multon, Brown, and Lent (1991), it was stated that self-efficacy is a significant predictor of achievement and motivation in different population and environments. Similarly, low self-efficacy has been reported from low-performance students, while high-performance students has reported high self-efficacy and given greater value for their learning (Zusho, Pintrich, & Coppola, 2003).

The academic self-efficacy of the students is tried to be measured by determining their self-confidence levels based on a specific area or subject. It is important that the characteristics measured in cross-cultural studies indicate the same structure for each country. Although the concept of general self-efficacy has a universal structure, it is likely to be influenced by culture like any psychological variable. Therefore, the scale that has been used must be proven to measure the same structure and to be equivalent before any cross-cultural comparisons are conducted. Scholz, Doña, Sud, and Schwarzer (2002)'s study conducted in 25 countries, assesses whether self-efficacy has a universal structure or not. According to a relevant research, many intercultural differentiations have been determined although the general self-efficacy structure is found to be a universal concept. However, such differentiations have not been discussed in details. For example, it is determined that Japan has the lowest self-efficacy level while Costa Rica has the highest. The researchers state that this may arise from any intercultural differences as well as from uncontrollable conditions for data collection or from the fact that the sample is not selected properly.

Current study focuses on academic self-efficacy rather than general self-efficacy, and the sample includes Asian, Middle Eastern and European cultures with different languages and cultural backgrounds. It includes Singapore from Asia, Turkey from the Middle East, and Spain from Europe. Lifestyle, the way of cultivation and the differentiation in their language can also differentiate the self-efficiency context in which students upload their academic self-efficacy. In the research, the validity of the self-efficiency scale specified in the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2015 for these countries is tested by the measurement invariance. When the literature is examined, the number of studies which evaluate the academic self-efficacy structure based on cross-cultural studies is determined to be limited. Ansong, Eisensmith, Masa, & Chowa (2016) tested the measurement invariance of the self-efficacy scale adapted for Ghana by emphasizing the differentiation by gender but not tested for different cultures. Teo and Kam (2014) tested measurement invariance of the general self-efficacy scale for Germany and Singapore as different cultures. Kıbrıslıoğlu Uysal and Akın Arıkan (2018) did not examine the intercultural comparison, but only tested the measurement invariance of PISA 2015 and PISA 2006 self-efficacy scale by years for Turkey sample.

PISA is a large-scale assessment, which reveals what students learn and how they can use mathematics, science, reading literacy in their daily life. PISA collects information about the characteristics of students, teachers, and schools which are related to performance (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2017a). Around 70 countries participate in the PISA and these countries guide their own education policies based on the results obtained. However, such international measurement and assessment practices also inevitably bring along like a league of skills. After the explanation of the results of each test, the rankings of the countries draw attention. Performance and characteristics of the students are compared by country. Although PISA is developed by the specialists, any students from different cultures are subject to this test, and this causes the question of whether the tests in PISA measure the same structures in each country or not. There is uncertainty about whether the differences in the scale mean scores can be attributed to actual differences between countries or to differences in measurement between countries due to cultural biases in response, translation errors or cultural differences in understanding the underlying structure (Rutkowski & Svetina, 2014). Without any evidence supporting measurement equivalence, any claim or conclusion on comparative differences will necessarily remain weak (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). An important criterion for intercultural comparison of scores from a scale is to understand and measure the latent variable in all cultures in the same way. This characteristic is often called as measurement invariance (Meredith, 1993), the absence of differential item functioning (Hambleton & Rogers, 1989; Swaminathan & Rogers, 1990) or lack of bias (Lord, 1980). The measurement invariance relates to whether the items in a measurement tool state the same construct for the individuals in different groups or not. Generally, measurement invariance surveys focus on whether the latent variable (self-efficacy, etc.) can be compared between heterogeneous groups (Rutkowski & Svetina, 2014).

Method

Sample

In this study that aims at a comparison of the academic self-efficacy structures between the students from different cultures; a group of 15-year-old students, who study in Singapore, Spain, and Turkey, constitute the research group. When the PISA 2015 technical report (OECD, 2017a) is examined, it is understood that the sample is selected by stratified sampling method by taking any characteristics such as schools, regions, etc. into consideration. This scale is applied to 6115 students from Singapore, 6736 students from Spain and 5895 students from Turkey. The outliers are removed from the data to make the data suitable for analysis. After the outliers are removed, the research is carried out with the data of 5521 students from Singapore, 5260 students from Spain and 4633 students from Turkey.

Data Collection

PISA 2015 data which obtained by OECD is used for the analysis. PISA is a large-scale test conducted every three years since 2000. It aims basically at measuring the science, mathematics, and reading literacy of the students, and moreover, the surveys are conducted on the students, households, families, and schools. In current research, the science self-efficacy scale included in the student survey is used. This survey aims at showing how easy it will be for them if the students perform the tasks related to science. Accordingly, the survey contains eight items as follows (OECD, 2017b: 38):

How easy do you think it would be for you to perform the following tasks on your own?

1. Recognize the science question that underlies a newspaper report on a health issue.
2. Explain why earthquakes occur more frequently in some areas than in others.
3. Describe the role of antibiotics in the treatment of diseases.
4. Identify the science question associated with the disposal of garbage.
5. Predict how changes in an environment will affect the survival of certain species.
6. Interpret the scientific information provided on the labelling of food items.
7. Discuss how new evidence can lead you to change your understanding about the possibility of life on Mars.
8. Identify the better of two explanations for the formation of acid rain.

For the items, there is a four-answer category: *I could do this easily, I could do this with a bit of effort, I would struggle to do this on my own, and I couldn't do this*. For Singapore, Spain, and Turkey, Cronbach alpha coefficients of internal consistency are calculated for the answers given to the self-efficacy scale and in turn .88, .89 and .91 values are obtained.

Data Analysis

Before the analysis is conducted, the data is prepared for the analysis and assumptions have been tested. After PISA 2015 data is downloaded for this, all the data of Singapore, Spain, and Turkey is selected and data of other countries are removed from the data set. Then, to determine the outliers, the Mahalanobis distance coefficients are calculated and the persons with $p < .001$ are deemed as the outlier (Mertler & Reinhart, 2016) then removed from the data set. The study has been carried out with the data of 5521 students from Singapore, 5260 students from Spain and 4633 students from Turkey.

The multivariate statistics are used for testing the measurement invariance. Therefore, any particular assumptions must be met. Multivariate normal distribution of data is tested to this end. For this, R 3.5.1 (R Core Team, 2018) is used as the statistic software and the Henze-Zirkler tests are conducted by MVN 5.5 software package (Korkmaz, Goksuluk, & Zararsiz, 2014). For three countries, the result of the Henze-Zirkler test is calculated as $p < .01$. This shows that the data doesn't meet multivariate normality assumption (Mecklin & Mundfrom, 2003). Therefore, the Robust Maximum Likelihood method is used in all estimates.

The semTools 0.5-1 (Jorgensen, Pornprasertmanit, Schoemann, & Rosseel, 2018) and semPlot 1.1 (Epskamp & Stuber, 2017) software packages are used for determining the measurement invariance. For this, firstly measurement model has individually tested via the confirmatory factor analysis for Singapore, Spain, and Turkey. Kline (2005) states that χ^2/df ratio must be equal to or less than 3.00, and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) state that the values equal to or less than 0.80 are acceptable for RMSEA. The values less than 0.08 indicate a good fit for SRMR (Hu & Bentler, 1995), and the values larger than 0.95 indicate a good fit for CFI and TLI (Brown, 2006).

After the confirmatory factor analysis, to determine whether the measurement invariance is met or not for three countries, "configural invariance (equal form); metric invariance (equal factor loadings), scalar invariance (equal indicator intercepts) and strict factorial invariance (equal indicator error variances) are tested in turn. Brown (2006, p.268) stated that "Number of factors and pattern of indicator-factor loadings is identical across groups" for the configural invariance. Only the factor loadings are equal between groups in the metric invariance, and it's mean that respondents attribute the same meaning to the latent construct for all groups (van de Schoot, Lugtig, & Hox, 2012). Scalar invariance means that "the regression equations of the observed variables on the latent factors are equivalent across groups" (Schmitt & Kuljanin, 2008, p.212). And the strict invariance would be met if the indicator residuals are equal (Brown, 2006).

In the invariance study, $\Delta CFI \leq .01$ is recommended as a criterion by Cheung and Rensvold (2002) and Chen (2007). Meade, Johnson and Braddy (2008) state that ΔCFI and ΔNCI may be used and if ΔCFI value is equal to or less than .002, the measurement invariance is acceptable. In the TALIS technical report, OECD (2010) uses the criterion as $\Delta CFI \leq .01$ and states the criterion value may be flexed if the groups more than two are compared. Rutkovski and Svetina (2014) estimate that the criterion may be flexed approximately up to $\Delta CFI \leq .02$ in the measurement invariance study conducted with 10 and 20 groups. Since three groups are compared in this research, it is seen that $\Delta CFI \leq .01$ is suitable to be used as a criterion while determining the measurement invariance. The tested measurement model is given in Figure 1.

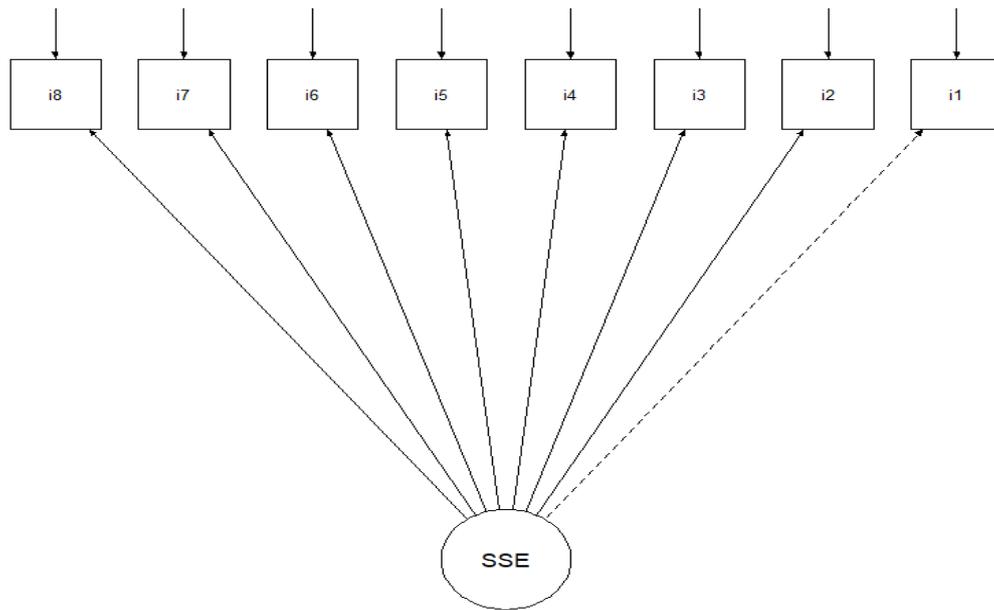


Figure 1. Tested measurement model

Results

Findings on Testing of the Measurement Model

Firstly, the measurement model shown in Figure 1 for Singapore, Spain, and Turkey is examined by the confirmatory factor analysis. The goodness of fit indexes obtained for confirmatory factor analysis is given in Table 1.

Table 1. Confirmatory factor analysis parameters for countries

	χ^2/sd	RMSEA [90% CI]	SRMR	CFI	TLI
Singapore	21.161	.060 [.056 - .065]	.030	.970	.959
Spain	19.041	.059 [.054 - .063]	.025	.976	.966
Turkey	25.776	.073 [.069 - .077]	.034	.958	.941

When Singapore, Spain, Turkey, and three countries are considered together (All-Data), according to table 1, the RSMEA, SRMR, CFI and TLI values show that the unidimensional structure is verified. Only χ^2/df value is out of the acceptable limits but χ^2 statistics depend on the sample size (Kline, 2005). As a result of the analysis, it is determined that the model is compatible with the data because the other fit indices are within acceptable limits. All the parameters obtained according to the confirmatory factor analysis results are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Robust maximum likelihood estimates for self-efficacy scale

	Singapore				Spain				Turkey			
	UFL	SE	SFL	z	UFL	SE	SFL	z	UFL	SE	SFL	z
i1	1.000		.709		1.00		.716		1.000		.681	
i2	.994	.022	.620	44.065	.928	.019	.674	48.894	1.082	.021	.736	51.286
i3	1.237	.025	.721	48.551	1.103	.018	.737	60.830	1.197	.026	.744	45.706
i4	1.223	.024	.765	50.181	1.030	.017	.736	60.282	1.217	.027	.795	45.662
i5	1.155	.024	.755	48.372	1.095	.019	.760	58.250	1.212	.028	.789	43.568
i6	1.214	.025	.758	49.372	1.025	.019	.722	55.050	1.219	.028	.773	43.947
i7	1.212	.026	.691	46.766	1.057	.020	.708	53.529	1.164	.029	.688	40.815
i8	1.063	.024	.660	43.562	1.103	.020	.730	54.766	1.230	.028	.756	43.498

UFL: Unstandardized factor loadings; SFL: Standardized factor loadings; SE: Standard error

When the unstandardized factor loadings for the items and z values for these factor loadings are examined, it is observed that the factor loadings obtained for all items are significant. The goodness of fit indexes shown in Table 1 and the Robust Maximum Likelihood Estimates given in Table 2 are considered, it is understood that the science self-efficacy is measured unidimensional for all of the countries.

Findings on Testing of the Measurement Invariance

After the measurement model is verified for the countries, the invariance of the structure to be measured by the science self-efficacy scale between the countries is tested. For this, the configural, metric, scalar and strict invariance are tested in turn. As a result of the analysis, the fit indexes and Δ CFI values are examined. The findings on the analysis of the measurement invariance are given in Table 3.

Table 3. Findings on testing of the measurement invariance

Measurement invariance	df	χ^2	RMSEA	SRMR	TLI	CFI	Δ CFI
Configural	60	1337.121	.064	.027	.955	.968	
Metric	74	1556.188	.062	.036	.961	.966	.002
Scalar	88	3766.122	.090	.059	.922	.919	.047
Strict	90	4074.569	.093	.079	.918	.912	.007

When Table 3 is examined, it is understood that the self-efficacy scale provides the configural invariance ($CFI > .95$; $RMSEA < .08$). In other words, the science self-efficacy scale has the same factor structure for all three countries. Furthermore, the other findings provide additional evidence for configural invariance.

When the findings obtained for metric invariance are examined, it is observed that Δ CFI value is less than 0.01. Thus, the science self-efficacy scale also provides the metric invariance. In other words, the science self-efficacy scale shows invariance between the countries in terms of factor structure and factor loadings.

However, when the scalar invariance findings are examined, it is determined that Δ CFI value between the metric and scalar invariance models is larger than 0.01. Namely, the indicator intercepts and indicator error variances doesn't show invariance between the countries. Therefore, it is concluded that the PISA 2015 science self-efficacy scale has a partial invariance between Singapore, Spain, and Turkey.

Discussion and Conclusion

In the research, the structure and measurement invariance of the science self-efficacy scale, used in the PISA 2015 assessment, tested for Singapore, Spain and Turkey which have a different culture and language. The findings of the measurement invariance studies have important effects on the use of the scale in different cultures. A validated scale should be sensitive to measure changes in self-efficacy independent of cultural characteristics (Bialosiewicz, Murphy, & Berry, 2013).

The measurement models are tested by CFA for each country. According to the results obtained from the measurement model, the scale measures a unidimensional structure for all three countries. The unidimensional self-efficacy structure shown in the PISA 2015 report is verified. The researchers support that self-efficacy structure must be discussed in unidimension. Bandura et al. (1999) developed a scale to measure the general self-efficacy level of children. The scale measures three main areas of self-efficacy: Social self-efficacy, academic self-efficacy, and self-regulatory self-efficacy. Here, the academic self-efficacy structure is a dimension discussed under general self-efficacy latent variable. The general self-efficacy scale developed by Jerusalem and Schwarzer was tested by Sholz et al. (2002) for 25 countries and they found it as unidimensional. Ansong et al. (2016) also tested the unidimensional structure of the academic self-efficacy scale developed by Muris (2001) for Ghana and emphasized that the academic self-efficacy structure is a property measured in unidimensional. The researchers, who use the PISA data, may accept the academic self-efficacy as a unidimensional structure. Thus, the scale indicates how much confident the students feel in conducting their tasks related to science. However, this finding is not sufficient to make cross-cultural comparisons.

At the second step of the research, the measurement invariance of the scale is tested. The scale provides the configural invariance structure. The fit indexes are at the acceptable level. If the configural invariance structure is provided, it is pointed out that students adopt the same conceptual perspective for the science self-efficacy in Singapore, Spain, and Turkey. The metric invariance is also provided between the countries. Metric invariance is achieved when different groups respond in a similar way to the same item. This means that the strength of the relationship between item and structure is the same among groups. When metric invariance is achieved, the scores obtained from the items can be compared between groups, and the variation observed in items may indicate differentiation between the groups in terms of the measured structure (Milfont & Fischer, 2010). As a result of the study, it can be said that the relationships between the characteristics of the scale items and the self-efficacy structure are similar for the countries. It is generally seen as satisfactory when the configured invariance is met (Sholz et al. 2002). The metric invariance is a prerequisite for testing scalar invariance analysis. The scalar invariance of the self-efficacy structure is not provided between the countries. Scalar invariance must be ensured to compare mean scores. The observed scores are related to the latent variable and individuals have the same score mean that they have the same score of structure regardless of group membership (Milfont & Fischer, 2010). If you do not have proof for scalar invariance, the latent structure cannot be compared among groups. Failure to provide scalar invariance also indicates that items can show bias relative to countries and in this case, it is not possible to make comparisons among countries (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). Students who are in the same population and are members of different groups may differ in their tendency to correctly answer a question or to endorse a category. This situation is associated with item bias (Yavuz, Dogan, Hambleton, & Yurtcu, 2018; Zumbo, 1999). When examining item properties, it is important to examine item bias depend on many different group characteristics (gender, language, socio-economic status, culture, etc.) (Millsap & Everson, 1993).

When the items listed in the self-efficacy scale are also reviewed, it is observed that the items are written by considering the natural events that may be encountered by the students in their life. For example, "Explain why earthquakes occur more frequently in some areas than in others" and etc. The context imposed by the student on the relevant event may differentiate by cultures, this can also lead to inter-group differentiation. The item properties must be discussed and the item bias must be reviewed in a separate study.

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