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Acta Educationis Generalis
Volume 11, 2021, Issue 1

DOI: 10.2478/atd-2021-0001

The Attitude of University Students with Special Educational Needs to the Inclusive Environment at Their University

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Received: April 28, 2020; received in revised form: August 17, 2020;
accepted: August 19, 2020

Abstract:
Introduction: In order to build a quality inclusive environment (not only in education) it is not enough to have material and personal capacity. The students themselves also need to be included via quality assessment of this environment. Research focused on the attitudes of university students with special educational needs (SEN students) towards the inclusive environment quality at a specific educational institution in Slovak conditions has never been done before.
Methods: The research team aimed to identify SEN students' attitude (N=20) to the quality of inclusive university environment. To maintain anonymity, university will not be specified; as for students, only their degree of study and gender will be listed instead of their age (65% were females). An attitudinal questionnaire developed by the authors was used to identify how the respondents perceived the quality of inclusion in the respective university environment.
Results: SEN students' attitudes show the highest score in emotional components (AM=3.607; SD=0.602). Additionally, there is a statistically significant relation between their attitudes and the coordinator's work quality. A statistically significant difference was measured between the attitudes of those SEN students who were satisfied with the work of their coordinator and those who were not (p-value 0.008). We noted a strong deviation in favour of the satisfied students.
Discussion: SEN students generally perceive the inclusive environment at the faculties at which they are currently studying as positive, which can result from the fact that coordinators are appointed specifically to cater to

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their needs. A distance course has also been created to improve the inclusive environment for students; it helps to improve the effectiveness of communications between coordinators and students, and quickly resolve any issues related to education.
Limitations: Both the size of the research sample and the fact that the survey was conducted at only a single university were limiting factors. Thus, we cannot generalize our findings to the entire university SEN student population nor to all Slovak universities.
Conclusions: In the conditions of the institution in question no research of this nature has ever been done before. In order to increase the internal quality of the school environment a reflection on the inclusive environment quality from SEN students is necessary. Looking forward, we recommend carrying out a more detailed observation of the inclusive environment quality in relation to the coordinator for students with special educational needs (hereinafter SSEN coordinator), their work quality and expertise.

Key words: SEN students, inclusive environment, university, attitude.

Introduction

Usage of terms "person with disabilities" and "person with specific needs" is specified in two Slovak laws, specifically Act No. 317/2010 Coll. ratifying the UN convention on the rights of persons with disabilities and Section 100 of Act No. 131/2002 Coll. on Universities. In accordance with the valid laws in force, the two aforementioned terms are considered synonymous. Internal university regulations are legally required to use the term "person (applicant/student) with special educational needs". Integration of students with specific (education) needs into university environments and, at the same time, improving the inclusive environment quality in the Slovak Republic (SR) stems from Act No. 57/2011 which amends Act No. 131/2002 Coll. on Higher Education. The latter was passed as a consequence of all processes and conventions that apply to university education in the European Area (in particular the Bologna process, 1999, 2015 and the Lisbon process). In these documents, the notion of quality is understood as a result of numerous interactions mainly between students, teachers and the overall institutional environment within which learning opportunities, content and spaces are harmonised. The aforementioned Act No. 131/2002 Coll. on Higher Education prescribes the creation of appropriate conditions that correspond to the special educational needs of special need students (SEN students) without lowering the academic performance requirements as also prescribed by Decree No. 458/2012 on the minimum requirements of students with special needs. The implementation of inclusive education requires development of new assessment tools. Schädler and Dorrance (2012) present the concept, methodology, and preliminary results of a European research project focused on inclusive education for persons with disabilities

performed in ten EU countries. In terms of this project, a barometer tool has been developed.

1 The inclusive environment at the researched university

Focused and organised institutional care for SEN students began in AY 2012/2013 when the first internal document entitled Study Guide for SEN Students was prepared for students with special educational needs (including the registration terms). Deans at the respective faculties appointed the SSEN coordinators for the given academic year - SSEN coordinators are university teachers who provide special care to SEN students.

The coordinators' function was determined in AY 2014/2015. Student volunteers also provide effective (social) help. (Financial) support is provided to students through a variety of different scholarships, while the students are required to meet certain academic conditions specified by the respective faculty and its internal documents. The goal of the researched university was to increase the availability of study for all applicants including SEN applicants with somatic and sensory disabilities. Despite all the measures implemented by the university and its faculties, it is necessary to find out what students think about the inclusive environment quality. Being aware of students' opinions that stem from their educational experience helps the institutions and educators acquire a more appropriate and useful view on the current state of inclusive education that could contribute to its improvement (Vlachou & Papananou, 2018).

The problem of inclusive environment quality was tackled by many foreign authors from different perspectives. Järkestig Berggren et al. (2016) carried out a qualitative comparative analysis of disabled students' experience in university education in selected countries: The Czech Republic, the USA, Sweden. In their study they point out, among other things, the necessity for cooperation and support from SSEN coordinators and teachers too. The results show that the students in Czechia and some students from the USA state that it was the coordinator who helped them to meet their specific needs. Also, when they struggled with issues regarding teachers it was the coordinator who mediated the cooperation between them (Järkestig Berggren et al., 2016).

Meyers and Lester (2016) examined the attitudes of 117 university students towards disabled students in the beginning and at the end of the semester. They assumed that providing information about disabilities would improve their attitudes. Students from the experimental group received systematic education in specific types of disability during the semester. They also interacted with disabled persons. Even though the study did not show an increase in the positive attitudes towards disabled persons (73% of students in the experimental group had disabled high school classmates, a disabled family member, worked with a disabled person or attended a class on disabilities compared to 80% of students in the control group) the authors state that it is necessary to affect the students' personality in a complex manner (holistically) - not only in the cognitive

domain. Universities should also offer classes that provide a complex view on individuals with SEN.

In Slovakia research in the area of inclusive environment was carried out by Sabo et al. (2018) who focused on examining the social representation of inclusive schools among Slovak teachers. They identified 5 factors representing a closer specification of ideas about inclusive schools. Most respondents associated the idea of school with inclusion. Inclusion was also perceived as the natural principle of satisfying the children's needs (inclusive school description A). The number of integrated children and pupils in Slovak schools has been rising during the last 10 years as pointed by the results of the "To dá rozum" (Learning Makes Sense) project (MESA10, https://todarozum.sk). Our research was inspired by both foreign and Slovak studies of inclusive school environments. Our interest was piqued by the questionnaires and items that inclusive schools must pay attention to, such as:

a) Index for Inclusion by Booth and Ainscow (2007, p. 50) which contained many useful questions like: "Is anybody asking the students for their opinion on how to improve the school? Can students' opinions influence what goes on in the school? Do students have options for addressing school matters? Do students help school employees if asked? Do students offer help if they see that it is needed? Do school employees and students take care of the school environment? Do students know who to talk to if they have a problem? Can students be sure that their problem will be addressed efficiently?"
b) Slovak translation of the MATIES questionnaire (Mahat, 2008) - the Slovak adaptation was used in measuring inclusion among teachers in the National Project for Increasing the Quality of Education at Primary and High Schools with the use of computer-based testing. Selected aspects of school quality along with the pupils' and teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education were examined. We found inspiration in the following questions: "I think that an inclusive school is a school that allows any student to advance in their studies regardless of their ability. I think that the inclusion of SEN pupils in common schools helps instil socially acceptable behaviour in all pupils. I am willing to encourage SEN pupils to participate in all social activities of the class" (Valovič, 2015, pp. 16-17).
c) Self-reflection tool (EASIE, 2017, pp. 7-24) which emphasises environmental factors that influence the participation of each child. It consists of eight sets of questions that correspond with the following aspects of inclusion (here is a selection): 1. Overall friendly atmosphere, 2. Inclusive social environment, 3. Child-oriented approach, 4. Child-friendly environment, 5. Materials for all children, 6. Opportunity to communicate for all, 7. Inclusive teaching and educational environment - and specifically questions like: "Are the premises (external and internal) available to all children? Do all children have the opportunity to participate? How do you facilitate every child's participation in the activities..."

2 Methodology

2.1 Objective

The objective of the research study was to map the attitudes of students with special educational needs towards the inclusive environment quality at their university and faculty.

2.2 Research questions

RQ1 What is the attitude of students with special educational needs towards the inclusive environment quality at their university/faculty?
RQ2 Do level of study and type of disability have any effect on SEN students' attitudes?
RQ3 Do attitudes differ between study levels?
RQ4 Do attitudes differ between students with special educational needs who were satisfied with the coordinator's work and those who were not?

2.3 Research methods

We used the survey method to map SEN students' attitudes towards inclusive environment quality at the university. An original attitudinal survey was used. Items in the survey were related to the inclusive environment quality at the university and were tied to the following aspects: physical environment, SSEN coordinator's work, students' with special educational needs academic obligations, their awareness of the need to fulfil these obligations and willingness to participate in university/faculty life. The attitudinal survey consisted of 22 items (8 related to cognitive components, 7 to both affective and conative components). The level of agreement with the items was measured on a 5-point Likert scale (1 - strongly disagree up to 5 - strongly agree). The anonymous survey contained an informed consent, demographic data collection, the items of the survey and, finally, an option for the participants to express their opinion in an open response. The survey contained 5 reverse-scored items and was conducted online. The reliability of the survey as well as the internal consistency were confirmed by Cronbach's alpha which reached a score of 0.806. To estimate reliability, the survey was split in half according to the split-half method. The results were used to calculate the Spearman-Brown coefficient. Its value of rxx=0.82 can be considered fully acceptable and it is proof of adequate internal consistency of both parts of our research tool.

2.4 Selection of participants and data collection procedure

The basic research file consisted of 48 SEN students studying at the same Slovak university. The students with officially recognized special educational needs in AY 2017/2018 were contacted through the faculty SSEN coordinators appointed to serve their needs. The students were sent an invitation to take part in an online survey as well as the survey form (Google Forms). Response rate was 41.66%.

Thus, the research sample consisted of 20 respondents from different programmes of full and part-time study (undergraduate 55%, postgraduate 45%, to preserve anonymity we did not record their age, only their level of study). In terms of gender the research sample consisted mainly of women (65%).

3 Research results

To begin with, we present the descriptive indicators of the attitudinal survey from the whole research sample. Having considered the indicators of normal distribution of data it can be concluded that research sample data in Table 1 exhibit normal distribution.

Table 1

Descriptive indicators of SEN students' attitudes towards inclusive environment quality

	(AM)	SD	Med	Skewness	Kurtosis	Min	Max
Cognitive components	3.538	0.787	3.563	-0.599	-0.396	1.88	4.63
Emotional components	3.607	0.602	3.786	-0.859	0.069	2.14	4.29
Behavioural components	3.464	0.628	3.643	-0.524	0.452	2.00	4.71
Overall attitude	3.536	0.549	3.659	-0.697	-0.202	2.36	4.36

AM - arithmetic mean, SD - standard deviation, Med - median, Min - minimum, Max - maximum

Table 2

Descriptive indicators of SEN students' attitudes towards inclusive environment quality according to level of study

		(AM)	SD	Med	Skewness	Kurtosis	Min	Max
Undergraduate N=11	Cognitive components	3.830	0.605	4.000	-0.277	-1.568	3.00	4.63
	Emotional components	3.766	0.466	3.857	-1.071	0.424	2.86	4.29
	Behavioural components	3.455	0.432	3.571	-0.608	-0.931	2.71	4.00
	Overall attitude	3.690	0.373	3.773	-0.607	-0.142	2.95	4.18
Postgraduate N=9	Cognitive components	3.181	0.866	3.500	-0.278	-1.224	1.88	4.25
	Emotional components	3.413	0.716	3.429	-0.414	-0.552	2.14	4.29
	Behavioural components	3.476	0.839	3.714	-0.536	-0.208	2.00	4.71
	Overall attitude	3.348	0.685	3.364	-0.109	-1.225	2.36	4.36

AM - arithmetic mean, SD - standard deviation, Med - median, Min - minimum, Max - maximum

Analysis of data from Table 2 shows that research sample division based on level of study does not present a normal distribution. Consequently, we used the Mann-Whitney test for statistical verification of differences in students' attitudes towards inclusive environment quality according to level of study. Statistical testing of differences in attitudes of undergraduate and postgraduate students did not confirm significant differences (p-value fluctuated between 0.091 and 0.619). Considering the size of the sample we decided to carry out a qualitative comparison of differences in the attitudes. According to Table 2, the biggest median difference was reached in cognitive components in favour of undergraduate students. We also note that undergraduate students reached a higher score in all attitudinal components as well as in the overall attitude towards inclusive environment quality except for the behavioural components where postgraduate students achieved a higher average score.

Table 3

Selected descriptive indicators (AM, SD, Med) of SEN students' attitudes towards inclusive environment quality according to type of disability (6 respondents did not state type of special need)

	Overall attitude			*Cognitive components*			*Emotional components*			*Behavioural components*		
	(AM)	*SD*	*Med*	*(AM*	*SD*	*Med*	*(AM)*	*SD*	*Med*	*(AM)*	*SD*	*Med*
Total research sample N=20	3.54	0.55	3.66	3.54	0.79	3.56	3.61	0.60	3.79	3.46	0.63	3.64
Lower limb disability N=3	3.38	0.64	3.73	3.29	1.08	3.50	3.05	0.93	3.00	3.81	0.08	3.86
Upper limb disability N=2	4.02	0.10	4.02	4.06	0.62	4.06	4.14	0.20	4.14	3.86	0.20	3.86
Chronic disease N=3	3.47	0.14	3.50	3.17	0.29	3.00	4.00	0.38	4.14	3.29	0.43	3.29
Weakened health N=1	2.64	-	-	2.50	-	-	2.86	-	-	2.57	-	-
Mental illness N=1	4.11	-	-	4.44	-	-	4.07	-	-	3.79	-	-
Autism N=2	4.11	0.10	4.11	4.44	0.27	4.44	4.07	0.30	4.07	3.79	0.30	3.79
Specific learning difficulty N=2	3.36	0.00	3.36	3.56	0.09	3.56	3.29	0.61	3.29	3.21	0.71	3.21

AM - arithmetic mean, SD - standard deviation, Med - median

When we look at students' attitudes towards inclusive environment quality according to the type of disability, we note that respondents with upper limb disability (AM=4.023; SD=0.096), autism (AM=4.114; SD=0.096) and mental illness scored the highest. Under the stated conditions the lowest score was achieved by a respondent with weakened health (2.636) and respondents with specific learning difficulties (AM=3.364; SD=0.000).

Given that we consider the coordinators' work an important part of inclusive environment quality, especially the work of faculty SSEN coordinators who work with such students directly, we wondered how much influence it has on students' attitudes. One item of our survey was dedicated to satisfaction with the coordinator's work. We considered those students who responded with a 4 or 5 on the Likert scale to be satisfied with the coordinator's work and those who responded with a 1 or 2 as dissatisfied. Three student groups emerged from such a distribution - satisfied (N=15), dissatisfied (N=3) and neutral (N=2). By running the differences through the Mann-Whitney test we wanted to confirm whether there is a distinction between satisfied and dissatisfied SEN students. The results can be found in Table 4.

Table 4

Attitude comparison in relation to the coordinator's work between satisfied and dissatisfied students

	(AM)	*SD*	*Med*	*Skewness*	*Kurtosis*	*MIN*	*MAX*	*Mann Whitney sig.*	*CLES*
Satisfied (N=15)	3.682	0.351	3.773	-0.507	-0.504	2.96	4.18	0.008	1
Dissatisfied (N=3)	2.545	0.157	2.636	-1.732	-	2.36	2.64		

AM - arithmetic mean, SD - standard deviation, Med - median, Min - minimum, Max - maximum, Mann Whitney sig. - significance level of Mann Whitney test, CLES - common language effect size

Statistical testing through the nonparametric Mann-Whitney test shows a statistically significant difference between the attitudes of those students who were satisfied with the faculty coordinator's work and those who were not. The differences were major. This result applies to the overall attitude (p-value=0.008; shown in Table 4), cognitive components (p-value=0.007) and emotional components (p-value=0.028). No statistically significant difference was measured in behavioural components (p-value=0.094). We can conclude that our research sample contains a statistically highly significant difference between the attitudes of those students who were satisfied with the SSEN coordinator's work and those who were not.

4 Discussion

The objective of this research was to examine university SEN students' attitudes towards the inclusive environment quality at their university. Our research evidence suggests that students of the university in question have an overall positive attitude towards the inclusive environment quality at their faculties. The highest score was achieved in the emotional components of their attitude (AM=3.607; SD=0.602). We consider this to be a good indicator because emotional components express the relationship between the individual and the object of their attitude. Thus, we can conclude that students of our research sample are happy with the inclusive environment quality at their faculties and the university generally.

A comparison between the attitudes of undergraduate and postgraduate students disproves the assumption that a higher level of study would improve students' attitudes towards the inclusive environment quality because undergraduate students achieved higher score values. We assume this to be related to the length of study because:

1. undergraduate students' educational experience in inclusive conditions could go far back (primary and high school) where the increase in integrated pupils due to education mainstreaming enhanced the visibility of this issue and, as stated by the "To dá rozum" project (MESA10, https://todarozum.sk), the pupils may perceive it as something more common.
2. postgraduate students have spent several years in the inclusive environment of their current school and thus have higher expectations for cooperation and school quality regarding students.

The coordinator's work is one of the aspects of students' attitudes towards the inclusive environment quality at their university. University coordinators fulfil several functions - personal consulting about possible study challenges and ways to tackle them, taking a tour of faculty premises with full-time students and staying in contact with the students to consult potential problems. SSEN coordinators fulfil this informative function with respect to the academic community as well. It is desired that SSEN coordinators contact and inform the heads of departments, teachers, credit coordinators and librarians about possible ways of supporting students. In this respect, the coordinators' work is very time consuming and especially knowledge intensive. Consequently, not every coordinator fulfils their mission and thus satisfies the students' needs on their faculty. Considering that the SSEN coordinator at the university in question and on the respective faculties is a university teacher, not all teachers (given their education but also professional and scientific work on the faculty) have the necessary knowledge and experience working with students. Our findings confirm this fact. Students with special educational needs who were satisfied with their faculty coordinator's work exhibited statistically significant more positive attitudes towards inclusive environment quality at their university compared to dissatisfied students. This fact is also confirmed by research from

Järkestig Berggren et al. (2016) where they point out the cooperation quality between the coordinator and students, their teachers and their satisfaction with the inclusive environment.

Conclusion

In the conditions of the institution in question no research of this nature has ever been done before. We consider examining students' attitudes towards the inclusive environment quality at a given institution to be an important part of fulfilling the strategic challenges at the European level. In order to increase the internal quality of the school environment, reflection on inclusive environment quality from experts but also from those who are directly affected by inclusion - students - should become the norm. Increasing the inclusive environment quality is, according to our findings, also related to the SSEN coordinators' work quality and expertise. They should be adequately prepared for their work, which is not always possible under today's conditions. Looking forward, building a student centre at the university in question seems ideal. It would cover university-wide focused professional assistance and consulting for students. This issue merits not only research efforts but practical ones as well. Looking ahead, we recommend carrying out a more detailed observation of the inclusive environment quality in relation to the SSEN coordinator's work quality and expertise.

Acknowledgement
The study was supported by KEGA 046UMB-4/2018 project. How do we understand Inclusive Education? Creating an optimal Learning Model.

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Acta Educationis Generalis
Volume 11, 2021, Issue 1

DOI: 10.2478/atd-2021-0002

Parents' Perceptions of School Climate as a Predictor of Parents' Participation in Their Children's Education

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Received: May 3, 2020; received in revised form: June 21, 2020;
accepted: June 23, 2020

Abstract:
Introduction: Parent involvement, which is defined as the attitudes, values and behaviors of parents supporting their children's learning and education outcomes, has an important place in the education process of children. Many researchers acknowledge the important role that the strong positive link between home and school plays in children's development and education. However, many factors affect the participation of parents. School climate is one of these factors. Parent support and participation are considered important in a positive school climate. Thus, in schools with a healthy and open climate, school members can express their views more easily and contribute more actively to the educational process. Based on these thoughts, in this study, the extent to which parents' participation in their children's education is predicted by their perceptions of school climate.
Methods: The research participants comprised 513 parents in Turkey, 413 women (80%) and 102 men (20%). Parental Participation Scale and Parents' Perception of School Climate Scale were used in the study. Descriptive statistics, correlation and multiple regression (stepwise) analysis were used to analyze the data.
Results: Findings obtained from the study showed that the level of parents' participation in the educational processes of their children and their perception of school climate is high. As a result of the correlation analysis, it was found that only the Parent Participation Scale's "supporting child's socio-cultural development sub-dimension", and School Climate Scale's "safety climate and academic climate" sub-dimensions had a significant and moderate relationship. In addition, as a result of the stepwise regression analysis, it was found that the safety climate and academic climate sub-dimensions significantly predicted the sub-dimension of supporting the socio-cultural development of the child. It was found that there were significant but low level relationships among the other sub-dimensions of the scales.
Discussion: School climate refers to the social, physical and academic environments of the school, and in terms of school climate, activities in the

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school encourage students to feel comfortable and realize the learning process. In this respect, it is important that safety, and academic climate sub-dimensions are a significant predictor of the child's socio-cultural development support dimension.
Limitations: The data in this study were collected from parents whose children are studying in primary schools in Pendik district of Istanbul/Turkey. In addition, variables with medium and higher correlation values were included in the regression analysis.
Conclusion: School administrators and teachers should organize activities that will involve the parents in the education process in order to get the support of the parents during the education process. School administrators should create an open and healthy school climate while administrating the school, and should never ignore the impact of this climate on stakeholders.

Key words: school climate, parent participation, parent, education process.

Introduction

Families are the first educators of their children (Brannon, 2008; Barnová, Tamášová, & Krásna, 2019; Trianah & Pranitasari, 2019) and have a significant impact on their learning (Thomas et al., 2019). However, when the child reaches a certain age, it enters the formal education system and continues the educational process from there. Thus, school is added to the educational process of the child as well as the family.

Schools help children to socialize, learn about communication, and improve their academic skills (Wulandary, 2017). The success of children in these educational processes in schools depends on the fact that parents, teachers, and school management come together and support each other to achieve a common goal, that is, effective teaching and learning (Maluleke, 2014). For that reason, it's expected from parents to actively participate in the educational processes of their children and to provide support when it's needed. As a matter of fact, parental involvement in children's education seems to be related to positive educational results (Zellman & Waterman, 1998; Deringöl, 2019).

Recently, the participation of the families in the educational process of their children has become one of the most controversial areas of education (Jeynes, 2017). In this context, governments all over the world are working to increase the level of family participation in children's educational processes (Campbell et al., 2017), and in many countries, the participation of families in their children's education at school is regulated by relevant laws (Reparaz & Sotés-Elizalde, 2019).

Parents' participation in the education of students begins at home with a safe and healthy environment, appropriate learning experiences, support, and a positive attitude about school (Đurišic & Bunijevac, 2017) and continues at school

(Abdurrahman & Madugu, 2014). Parent involvement is seen as a shared responsibility among families, schools, and communities (Field, 2015). Therefore, although most of the research on parents' involvement was directly related to the parents' involvement in a child's school activities (Dor & Rucker-Naidu, 2012), the involvement of parents in education is seen as a multi-dimensional structure of their attitudes and beliefs about their education at home and school (Englund et al., 2004). For that reason, parents can participate in the educational process of their children in many different ways to encourage academic success (Wang & Cai, 2017). For example, helping children with their homework is one of the most typical forms of parental involvement that are supposed to contribute to children's success and motivation in school lessons (Pezdek, Berry, & Renno, 2002).

Parent participation is a concept that attracts the attention of academicians, educators, politicians, and families. Because the participation of parents in the education process is seen as a valuable effort and it has been demonstrated by several types of research that it has many potential benefits in terms of education (Gonzalez-DeHass & Willems, 2003). In this context, it has been shown by many studies that many factors affect parents' participation in the education process (Reparaz & Sotés-Elizalde, 2019). One of these factors is the school climate, which is an organizational feature affecting all stakeholders in the school (Calik & Kurt, 2010).

School climate is a concept that expresses the quality and character of school life, norms, values, social interactions, and organizational processes within the school and corresponds to the situation (Bakhshaee & Hejazi, 2017, Tamášová & Barnová, 2011) that occurs as a result of the school's relations with each other, such as administrators, teachers, students, and parents (Kepenekci & Nayir, 2014). Therefore, it is thought that the school climate, which is a concept related to the perceptions of school members about their schools, is also effective on the participation of parents in their children's educational processes and their opinions should be obtained from their parents when evaluating a school (Bugay, Avci, & Ozdemir, 2018). As a matter of fact, parents' participation in children's education is important for children's educational success, and the factors affecting it should be identified and improved. Based on this idea, it has been seen that there are many studies on parents' participation in education (Pavalache-Ilie & Ţîrdia, 2015; Đurišic & Bunijevac, 2017; Lal, 2019; Keceli-Kaysili, 2008; Ahmetoglu et al., 2018) and school climate (Cocoradă & Orzea, 2017; Mucherah et al., 2018; Gaias et al., 2019; Burušić, 2019; Calik et al., 2009; Ozdemir et al., 2010; Bektas & Nalcaci, 2013) in the literature, but few studies are analyzing the relationship between these two variables (McKay et al., 2003; Pourrajab et al., 2015; Berkowitz et al., 2017). Therefore, it is important to examine whether there is a relationship between parents' perceptions of school climate, and parental participation, and the impact of school climate on parents' participation in their children's education. Based on this idea, this research was

carried out to analyze the effect of parents' perceptions of school climate on parents' participation in their children's education.
The aim of this research is to examine the extent to which parents' participation in their children's education is predicted by their perceptions of school climate. To this end, answers to the following questions were sought:

1) What are the parents' level of participation in the education of their children and their perception of school climate?
2) Do parents' perceptions of school climate predict parents' level of participation in their children's education?

1 Method

1.1 Model of the research

This study, which examines the impact of parents' perception of school climate on parents' participation in the educational processes of their children was designed in relational survey model, which is among quantitative research models.

1.2 Population and sample

The population of the research consists of 47 803 parents who live in Pendik districts of Istanbul in 2019-2020 academic years. Yazıcıoglu and Erdogan (2004, p. 50) report that it is sufficient that the sample, which can represent the population within the range of 25 000-50 000 with 5% error rate on the sample determination sample is within the range of 378-381. 515 parents selected from this population using the simple random sampling method constituted the sample of the study.

Table 1

Frequency and percentage values of participants' demographic features

Variable	*Groups*	*Frequency (f)*	*Percent (%)*
Gender	Women	413	80
	Men	102	20
	Total	515	100
Educational Status	Primary school	228	44
	Secondary school	103	20
	High school	117	23
	University	67	13
	Total	515	100
	One child	123	24
Number of children	2 or 3 children	346	67
	4 or more children	46	9

As can be seen in Table 1, there are 515 parents in the sample group, 413 (80%) women, and 102 (20%) men. 228 (44%) of the parents who participated in the study are a primary school, 103 (20%) are a secondary school, 117 (23%) are high school and 67 (13%) are university graduates; 123 (24%) have one child, 346 (67%) have 2 or 3 children, 46 (9%) have 4 or more children.

1.3 Data collection tools

In the research, the Parent Participation Scale developed by Gurbuzturk and Sad (2010a,b), the Parents' Perception of School Climate Scale, which was developed by Schueler et al. (2014) and adapted to Turkish by Ertem and Gokalp (2017) were used. The psychometric properties of the data collection tools are presented below.

1.3.1 Parental Involvement Scale

Parental involvement scale, which aims to measure the level of participation of parents in their children's educational processes, is a 5-point Likert type scale consisting of 8 sub-dimensions and 39 items. The 39 items, the factor loads of which range from .442 to .807, explain 60.86% of the total variance. The goodness of fit values obtained as a result of confirmatory factor analysis regarding the eight-factor structure of the scale are as follows: X2=1334.85, sd=636 (X2/sd=2.09), GFI=.90, AGFI=.88, NNFI=.92, CFI=.93, RMSEA=.042, RMR=.057, SRMR=.043 (Gurbuzturk & Sad, 2010a; Sad & Gurbuzturk, 2013). Cronbach's Alpha internal consistency coefficients calculated for the sub-dimensions of the scale were found to be .914 for the communication with teacher/school sub-dimension, .825 for the helping with homework sub-dimension, .817 for the supporting personality development sub-dimension, .810 for the volunteering sub-dimension, .828 for the communication with child sub-dimension,.807 for the creating enabling home setting sub-dimension, .685 for the supporting child's personality development sub-dimension, .617 for the supporting child's socio-cultural development sub-dimension. In addition, the stability coefficient of the scale calculated using the test-retest method was found to be r = .910.

1.3.2 Parents' Perception of School Climate Scale

The Parents' Perception of School Climate Scale, which aims to measure parents' perception of school climate levels, is a 5-point Likert-type scale consisting of 3 sub-dimensions and 16 items. The validity and reliability tests of the scale were developed by Schueler et al. (2014) and adapted to Turkish by Ertem and Gökalp (2017). The 16 items explain 56 % of the total variance. The goodness of fit values obtained as a result of confirmatory factor analysis regarding the three-factor structure of the scale are as follows: X2=139.48, df=86, X2/df=1.62, RMSEA=.056, CFI=.963, NNFI=.950. Cronbach's Alpha internal consistency coefficients were found to be .91 for social climate sub-

dimension, .87 for academic climate commitment sub-dimension, .75 for safety climate sub-dimension, and .94 for the overall scale.

1.4 Procedures and data analysis

Data collection tools were distributed to 600 parents who voluntarily participated in the research by the researchers. 27 scales that were found to be missing or incomplete from 542 scales filled by the participants and returned were not included in the analysis. Thus, 515 scales were included in the analysis. Data collected from 515 teachers were analyzed using SPSS 25.0 program. Firstly, it was examined whether the data met the one-way and multi-faceted normality assumptions. In line with this purpose, the skewness-kurtosis values and Q-Q graphs of the data set were examined. It was concluded that scores are within the limits of normal distribution. George and Mallery (2003) and Kunnan (1998) state that the data show normal distribution in case the skewness and kurtosis coefficients are within the range of ± 2. In addition, it was seen that the expected and realized values of the data formed on Q-Q graphs were distributed close to a line with a slope of 45 degrees. Therefore, this situation shows that the distribution of the data will be accepted as normal (Can, 2014). Since multivariate analyses were used in the study, it was also examined whether there is a multiple connection problem between variables. In line with this purpose, the correlation values between the variables were examined. Among the predictor variables, a correlation above .80 indicates that there might be a multiple connection problem, and a correlation above .90 indicates that there may be an important multiple connection problem (Buyukozturk, 2011). Based on this information, as can be seen in Table 1, there is no multiple connection problem between sub-dimensions. In the analyses, the significance of the difference between mean scores was found to be at the level of .05. In the interpretation of arithmetic mean, the range 1.00-1.79 was considered “very low”, the range 1.80-2.59 “low”, the range 2.60-3.39 “medium”, the range 3.40-4.19 “high” and the range 4.20-5.00 “very high”. Additionally in the interpretation of the correlation analysis the range .00 -.19 was considered “very weak”; the range .20 -.39 “weak”; the range .40 -.59 “moderate”; the range .60 -.79 “strong” ; and the range .80 - 1.0 “very strong”. Descriptive statistics, correlation and stepwise regression analysis were used to analyze the data.

2 Findings

Regarding the sub-dimension scores of the scales used in the research, the relations between arithmetic mean, standard deviation, and skewness-kurtosis values and the sub-dimension scores of the scales used in the study are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Descriptive statistics of the variables and correlation analysis findings

	Skewness	Curtosis	$\bar{x}$	Sd	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	-,391	-,401	3,936	0,773	1									
2	-,233	-,304	3,689	0,672	,493**	1								
3	-,340	-,577	3,938	0,799	,685**	,523**	1							
4	-,442	-,024	3,713	0,914	,451**	,311**	,592**	1						
5	-,270	-,431	3,672	0,766	,511**	,604**	,554**	,426**	1					
6	-,283	-,475	3,892	0,762	,514**	,534**	,563**	,458**	,644**	1				
7	-,748	,888	3,844	0,869	,124**	,216**	,122**	,283**	,212**	,349**	1			
8	-,158	-,722	3,989	0,683	,492**	,272**	,502**	,527**	,374**	,466**	,381**	1		
9	-,233	-,224	3,907	0,566	,197**	,187**	,174**	,194**	,111*	,240**	,332**	**,417****	1	
10	-,307	-,863	3,979	0,814	,259**	,172**	,289**	,262**	,154**	,194**	,270**	**,492****	,679**	1
11	-,211	-,630	3,872	0,615	,226**	,068	,222**	,166**	,137**	,138**	,139**	,297**	,211**	,318**

*p<0.05, **p<0.01

1- Communication with teacher/school; 2- Helping with homework; 3- Supporting personality development; 4- Volunteering; 5- Communication with child; 6- Creating enabling home setting; 7- Supporting child's personality development; 8- Supporting child's socio-cultural development; 9- Academic climate; 10- Safety climate; 11- Social climate

As can be seen in Table 2, the descriptive statistical values of the variables analyzed in the study, the arithmetic mean values ($\bar{x}$) ranged between 3.672 and 3.989, while the standard deviation values (sd) ranged between 0.566 and 0.914. As a result of the correlation analysis, there are positive and significant relationships between the school climate subscale scores and the parental participation subscale scores. However, there has been no significant relationship between the dimension of supporting the child's homework and studies and the dimension of the social climate. It has been observed that other significant correlation values ranged between .111 and .492. Considering the correlation values indicated by Evans, it can be seen that the relationships between the variables are not very strong. Therefore, the predictive power of the correlation between the predictive variables that have a significant correlation of .40 and above and the predicted variables (the relationship between child's socio-cultural development and the social climate and academic climate) was analyzed by regression analysis. Regression analyzes were not performed between these dimensions since there were low-level relations between the other sub-dimensions of the two scales. Since the relationship of the two scales

between the other sub-dimensions was weak, regression analysis was not performed between these dimensions. Based on this information, the stepwise regression analysis regarding the safety climate and the academic climate as a predictor of supporting child's socio-cultural development, which is the eighth sub-dimension of parent participation scale, is presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Results of stepwise regression analysis on the prediction of supporting child's socio-cultural development

Model	*B*	*Std. Error*	*β*	*t*	*p*	*R*	R^2	*F*	*p*
1. (Constant)	2,347	,131		17,927	,000				
Safety C.	,413	,032	,492	12,800	,000	,492	,242	163,840	,000
2. (Constant)	1,969	,182		10,823	,000				
Safety C.	,325	,044	,387	7,456	,000				
Academic C.	,186	,063	,154	2,968	,003	,505	,255	87,573	,000

The ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) table regarding the stepwise regression analysis showed that the described regression model was statistically significant. Supporting child's socio-cultural development sub-dimension explains 24% of the total variance regarding safety climate [$F(1,513)=163,840$; $p<0.001$]. With the addition of the academic climate sub-dimension to the analysis, the total variance explained regarding the supporting child's socio-cultural development increased to 26% [$F(2,512)=87,573$; $p<0.001$]. When standardized regression coefficients are examined, supporting child's socio-cultural development is found to be firstly significantly predicted by safety climate sub-dimension ($\beta=.387$), and secondly by academic safety sub-dimension ($\beta=.154$). According to Cohen (1988), the effect size results are as follows (R2)= .0196 is stated as small effect value, .1300 as moderate effect value, and .2600 as large effect value. Therefore, it can be said that the R^2 value (R^2 =.26) obtained in this analysis has a large effect size.

3 Discussion

In this study, the effect of school climate on the participation of parents in their children's education was examined in line with the opinions of 515 parents whose children are studying in official primary schools in Pendik district of Istanbul province in 2019-2020 academic years. In this section, the findings obtained from the research are discussed and the results are presented, and finally, some suggestions are given to both researchers and practitioners.

Research findings showed that parents participated from sub-dimensions of parent participation scale at the highest level in the sub-dimension of "supporting the child's socio-cultural development" and at the lowest level in the

sub-dimension of "communication with the child". It is thought that the highest level of participation of parents in supporting the child's socio-cultural development sub-dimension is due to the fact that parents want their children to grow up as individuals who are ready for life by gaining the socially and culturally necessary skills at the highest level. Comert and Gulec (2004) stated that parental involvement has several benefits in adapting the child to her society and increasing her academic success. However, although the parents state that they want their children's socio-cultural development so much, it is quite remarkable that the communication with the child sub-dimension is the least participated sub-dimension. This situation shows that unfortunately, parents are not communicating with their children sufficiently. It is thought that the underlying reason for such a finding is that parents are not able to allocate the necessary time to their children with the effect of today's intensive working conditions. In their research using the same measurement tool, Gurbuzturk and Sad (2013) found that parents participated from sub-dimensions of measurement tool for the level of participation of parents to their children's education at the highest level in the sub-dimension of "communication with the child" and the lowest level in the sub-dimension of "volunteering in curricular and extracurricular activities".

It was observed that parents participated in the safety climate sub-dimension of the school climate scale at the highest level, followed by academic climate and social climate, respectively. The school climate which is expressing the social, physical, and academic environment of the school (Branch, Hanushek, & Rivkin, 2013), has recently been considered an important asset to promote safer and supportive schools (Brand et al., 2003). While the positive school climate is generally found in supportive environments, it is stated that a school with a problematic climate can be found in environments that prevent efforts to improve the climate (Rudasill et al., 2018). In this context, high academic success expectations from students, teachers' openness to new ideas, and a sense of safety among the employees are among the characteristics of a healthy school (Özdemir et al., 2010). Therefore, the security climate which is the sub-dimension that parents participate most is supported by the literature. In the research, the sub-dimension that parents participated second most has been the academic climate. One of the goals of creating a positive school climate is to maximize the students' academic success (Piskin, Ogulmuş, & Boysan, 2011). In this regard, Sezgin, Sirin, Karip, and Erkan (2010) stated that academic development and learning are important in a positive school climate; positive relations were built between students and teachers. The sub-dimension that parents participated in the least has been the social climate sub-dimension. Parents' perception of school climate affects the teacher-parent relationship, parents' interest in school, teacher, and student motivation, as stated by Bugay, Avci, and Özdemir (2018). Therefore, it is thought that parents' perceptions of school climate are important in preventing negative situations such as violence,

school absenteeism, dropout, substance use. However, it is thought-provoking that the social climate sub-dimension, which covers the situations mentioned in the research, is the lowest. Because in a negative school climate, hostile attitudes can be seen, teachers can be uninterested in their students and colleagues, administrators may not consider teachers' needs, and arbitrary and dictatorial decisions can be made (Canli, Demirtas, & Ozer, 2018). Based on this finding, research designed in a qualitative pattern can be carried out, which allows analyzing the subject in more depth to reveal the reasons for the social climate sub-dimension being the lowest.

As a result of the correlation analysis, it has been found that only the "supporting the child's socio-cultural development sub-dimension of parent participation scale" and "safety climate and academic climate sub-dimensions of school climate scale" have a significant and medium level relationship. In addition, as a result of the stepwise regression analysis, it has been observed that the safety climate and academic climate sub-dimensions of school climate scale predicted the supporting the child's socio-cultural development sub-dimension of parent participation scale. When the effect size results (R2) obtained as a result of the multiple regression analysis were examined, it has been seen that the safety climate explains 24% of supporting the socio-cultural development of the child and this value increased to 26% by including the academic climate in the analysis. Humans are social beings. Schools are also places where students gain experience in social life and improve themselves in human relations, and learn the cultural values of the society they are in. In this context, it is noteworthy that this sub-dimension, which is related to supporting the child's participation in cultural, artistic, and social activities, is significantly meaningful for the safety climate and academic climate sub-dimensions of school climate scale. School climate is a complex and multidimensional structure that includes culture, values, resources, and the school's social network (Bakhshaee & Hejazi, 2017). One of the biggest features of an open organizational climate is a high level of safety. In schools with such climate, the school principal shows leadership behaviors on the axis of safety, provides appropriate guidance and necessary support depending on the situation (Özdemir et al., 2010). Gonzalez-DeHass and Willems (2003) highlighted voluntary active participation by emphasizing parents' desire to participate in the education process. In this regard, Ramdass and Lewis (2012) stated that an effective school with a positive climate has an important place in parental participation. As a matter of fact, in the schools where a positive school climate is created, the positive relations between students and teachers are reflected in all units of the school, in these schools, respect is essential, a fair and consistent discipline understanding is dominant and parental support is prioritized (Özdemir et al., 2010). In this respect, it can be said that the relevant literature is supported by the fact that safety climate and academic climate sub-dimensions of school climate scale predicts supporting the child's socio-cultural development sub-dimension of parent participation scale.

Conclusions

As a result, this study showed that parents' level of participation in education and perception level of school climate are high. Also, the safety climate and academic climate sub-dimensions of the school climate scale has predicted supporting the child's socio-cultural development sub-dimension of parent participation scale.

In accordance with the results obtained from the research, the following suggestions can be made for the practitioners; school administrators and teachers should organize activities that will involve parents in the education process in order to get the support of the parents during the education process, school administrators should create an open and healthy school climate while managing the school and should never ignore the impact of this climate on stakeholders. Also, according to the results, the following suggestions can be made to the researchers; this research was carried out with parents whose children are attending primary school, and a similar study can be carried out with parents whose children attending secondary and high school. In addition, qualitative research can be made to collect more detailed data on the subject of the research, thus, the effects of variables on each other can be analyzed in-depth look.

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Acta Educationis Generalis
Volume 11, 2021, Issue 1

DOI: 10.2478/atd-2021-0003

Examining Socio-Demographic Factors in Workplace Deviance among Selected University Workers

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Received: September 4, 2020; received in revised form: November 30, 2020; accepted: December 2, 2020

Abstract:

Introduction: Despite studies on workplace deviance globally and in an emerging country like Nigeria, the role of socio-demographic factors on dimensions and overall workplace deviance have been largely neglected in the literature. This lacuna hopes to be filled by this present study through examining the role of socio-demographic factors (gender, staff category and university type) on dimensions and overall deviance among university workers in Southwest, Nigeria.

Methods: The study adopted a cross-sectional survey design and a sample size of 384 university workers whose ages range from 22 to 63 years with a mean of 46.88 (SD=9.36) were conveniently selected from four universities. Data were sourced through the Workplace Deviant Behaviour scale and selected demographics which was analyzed using t-test for independent samples.

Results: The results found that there was no gender difference in workplace deviance among university staff [$t(382)=-0.37$, $p>.05$]. The study also found that academic workers have a higher tendency to engage in workplace deviance than their non-academic counterparts [$t(382)=2.38$, $p<.05$]. Finally, workers from private institutions reported significantly higher workplace deviance than workers from public universities [$t(382)=-2.20$, $p<.05$].

Discussion: We can deduce from the study that gender did not have any influence on work deviance as reported by previous study. Also academic staff has higher work deviance than non-academic staff which could be as a result of academic autonomy. Also, staff from private university has higher work deviance than public university which could be as result of the poor job security of private university in Nigeria.

Limitations: One limitation of the study is that some respondents might fake their responses and not disclose their true feeling about the subject matter.

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Conclusion: Based on these findings, we concluded that there was no gender difference on work deviance, also there was staff category difference on work deviance and finally, employee from private universities exhibited higher work deviance than their counterpart from public universities.

Key words: workplace deviance; socio-demographic factors; workplace; university workers.

Introduction

The university is expected to be an ethically inclined environment where all critical stakeholders are expected to behave in an acceptable manner that will act as a role model to the students, colleagues and the society at large, and also promote the value and reputation of the university in the right direction. Sadly, this is not the case as there have been increasingly reported cases of university workers engaging in behaviour that is different from the university norms, which is harmful to the achievement of university goals and objectives. This kind of behaviour is referred to as workplace deviance in the literature (Bennett & Robinson 2000; Robbins & Judge, 2007). According to the foremost scholars in this area, Robinson and Bennett (1995) defined workplace deviance as a situation where an individual or group of workers violates organisation's customs, policies which tend to disrupt the wellness of the organisation or its workers. In the definition given by Agboola and Salawu (2011), they conceptualised deviant behaviours as oppositions that are aggressive, temperamental or unfriendly manifestation of opposition to change.

According to Robinson and Bennett's (1995), workplace deviance occurs as interpersonal and organisational deviance. Interpersonal deviance refers to a deviant act shown to senior or junior colleagues at work. Example of this deviance ranges but not limited to gossiping, verbal abuse, withholding information among colleagues, workers refusing to help colleagues etc. Organisational deviance refers to a deviant act targeted at the organisation. This behaviour includes but not limited to stealing organisational property, absenteeism and tardiness, embezzlement, and falsification of vital documents. Interpersonal or organisational deviance can occur at the same time, alone, or even sequentially. In any dimension that this illicit behaviour occurs, it has a lot of cost implications yearly on the organisation as well as negative and psychological consequences for employees (Fagbohungbe Akinbode, & Ayodeji, 2012; Baharom, Sharfuddin, & Iqbal, 2017).

Globally, it has been reported that the Canadian economy lost around $16.6 billion in 2012 as a result of absenteeism, an example of workplace deviance (Nguyen, 2013). Also in the United States of America, nearly $6 to $300 billion was lost annually to absenteeism, theft and reduced productivity (Brown &

Mitchell, 2010). Research evidence has also established that workplace deviance has been prevalent among the staff of Nigerian universities (Ukertor, 2011; Caroline, 2015; Igbe, Okpa, & Aniah, 2017; Obalade & Arogundade, 2019); it involves behaviour not limited to extortion of money, tardiness, abuse of office, sexual harassment, gross insubordination, age falsification, bribery, distortion of staff records and manipulation of students' grades for financial gain (Igbe, Okpa, & Aniah, 2017). These behaviours undermine the integrity of the university globally and in an emerging country like Nigeria. Due to the destructive nature of workplace deviance in the realisation of organisational goals and employee wellbeing, scholars such as Oge, Ifeanyi and Gozie (2015) asserted that continuous research is urgently needed in understanding some of the factors that influence workplace deviant behaviour in diverse workplace, towards the realisation of adequate interventions. Based on this premise examining socio-demographic factors as they possibly influence workplace deviance among university workers is important and timely.

Previous studies have found variety of factors that has been linked with workplace deviance across categories of organizations and countries. For example, stress and job satisfaction (Omar et al., 2011); organizational formal control (Kura, Shamsudin, & Chauhan, 2013); perceived organizational support, organizational justice, organizational ethical climate, and trust in organization (Aliasa & Rasdi, 2015); organizational deviance, interpersonal deviance, leader-member exchange, and corporate culture (Wang, Chen & Li, 2018); Transformational leadership and psychological empowerment(Ahmad et al., 2019) have all be linked as possible factors predicting workplace deviance among employees. Furthermore, past studies in Nigeria on workplace deviance revealed some psychological variables such as organisational injustice and abusive supervision (Onuoha & Ezeribe, 2011); absenteeism, favouritism, and tardiness (Uwannah, 2015); perceived organizational justice (Olabimitan & Alausa, 2014); surface acting and distress tolerance (Amazue, Onyishi & Amazue, 2014) as factors associated with workplace deviance among diverse kinds of employees. Other studies view deviant behaviour with perceived religiosity and job status (Akanni, Omisile & Oduaran, 2018); perceived competence and discrimination (Olasupo & Fagbenro, 2018). In recent time, Fagbenro and Olasupo (2020) investigated the role of quality of family life and workplace deviant behaviour with perceived competence as a mediator among university staff. Even the scanty studies (Adeoye, 2014; Lawal, Babalola & Ordu, 2019; Obalade & Arogundade, 2019) done on university employees have focused on non-academic staff ignoring academic staff as well as the role of socio-demographic factors on the dimensions and overall deviant behaviour. This gap in the literature is hoped to be filled by this present study through investigating important socio-demographic factors such as gender, university staff and university type influencing workplace deviance including its dimensions in Southwest, Nigeria. Drawing upon the Equity (Adams, 1963) and

the General strain (Agnew, 1992) theories. The equity theory state that when workers perceive that their input at work is not in agreement with their output or with their co-workers' in the same or similar organizations in terms of salary, promotion, they become emotionally down in such a way that negative feeling may make them engage in deviant behaviour. General strain theory (GST) on the other hand, states that when an employee feels strained at work it could enact negative behaviour, such as anger, frustration, and depression and in a bid to respond to this negative behaviour trigger deviance among employees. We, therefore, argue that university workers who feel strained at work and also perceived inequality could engage in interpersonal or organisational deviance. Practical implication of the study will contribute to the body of knowledge on workplace deviance in the university system, global context as well as an emerging country like Nigeria. The results in this study are expected to help researchers and practitioners through understanding the role socio-demographic factors have on workplace deviance for possible enactment of all-inclusive steps toward diminishing the menace of workplace deviance at public and private universities as well as organisations.

Sex is a natural biological endowment qualifying an individual as either male or female. It is general notions that females are more ethically inclined than their male counterpart. Existing studies regarding gender and workplace deviant behaviour have yielded controversial result in the literature. For instance, Lawal, Babalola, and Ordu (2019) in their study found no influence of gender on counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) among university support staff. Balogun, Esan and Ezeugwu (2016) found no connection between gender and workplace deviant behaviour. In the study done by Uche, George and Abiola (2017) among maritime employees, found that gender is one socio-demographic factor that predicts counterproductive work behaviour. Spector and Zhou (2014) also found that gender moderated the relationship between job stressors and personality on CWB. Balogun and Komolafe (2016) found male reported higher workplace deviance than their female counterparts. Olabimitan and Alausa (2014) in their own study found that male nurses demonstrated increased deviant behaviour than their female counterparts. Anwar, Sarwar, Awan, and Arif, (2011) found that male teachers exhibit deviance at the workplace than their female counterpart. In the study of O'Fallon and Butter field (2005) also found that females are more ethical than males. Thus, more empirical study is required about the aforementioned relationship to fill this research gap especially among university workers.

Another factor considered important in this study is the staff category. In this study, staff category refers to the distribution of university staff into academic (teaching) and non-academic (support) staff members. The academic staff engages in teaching and research within and outside the university while non-academic staff deals with the administrative duties of the university. These two categories of employees work hand in hand and they remain vital to the smooth

running of the university system; hence their behaviour can improve or decrease the university goal and objectives. There are scanty studies on staff category on deviant behaviour, for example, Kalejaiye and Adeyemi (2013) found that workplace misbehaviour is more dominant among non-academic staff of Nigerian universities. Also, Adekola (2010) and Ukertor (2011) found that counterproductive work behaviour is more prevalent among non-academic staff. Based on the scanty study on staff category in workplace deviance, there is a need for more empirical evidence on these variables.

University type is another socio-demographic factor linked to workplace deviance. In this study, university type is categorised into public and private universities. Public universities are owned by the government while the private universities are owned by individuals, groups or religious organisations. The mode of operation in public and private universities differ, hence it is expected that workers' behaviour in these two kinds of universities could differ in a bid to actualise the goal and objective of the university. Also, scanty studies have been done on how the type of university could influence workplace deviance. For instance, Obalade and Arogundade (2019) found that employees in public universities exhibit higher deviant behaviour than those in private universities. Also, Andreoli and Lefkowitz (2008) found that ethical climate has influence on deviant behaviour in government institution. Based on the foregoing, the study examines the separate role of socio-demographic variables (sex, staff category and university type) on workplace deviance among selected workers in Nigerian universities. Based on the above literature, the following hypotheses were proposed:

H1 There is a significant gender difference in workplace deviance among university employees.

H2 There is a significant staff category difference in workplace deviance among university employees.

H3 There is a significant university type difference in workplace deviance among university employees.

1 Materials and methods

1.1 Design

Cross-sectional survey was used to assess data on socio-demographic factors (gender, staff category and university type) and workplace deviance. The design is ideal because the researchers did not manipulate any variable of interest but just observe the variables as they occur in the study. The predictor variables are gender which has two levels: male and female, staff category with two levels of academic and non-academic; and university type also measured as public and private. The criterion variable is workplace deviance which has two dimensions (organisational and interpersonal).

1.2 Setting and population

The study was carried out among university employees working in Obafemi Awolowo University, University of Ibadan, Lead City University and Oduduwa University. These universities are located in the South-western part of Nigeria. The populations of workers according to the Establishment Department of the four universities are 4,733, 4,235, 332 and 297 respectively as at April 2018.

1.3 Sample size and sampling technique

A convenience sampling was utilised to select proportionately 169 respondents from the University of Ibadan, 132 from Obafemi Awolowo University which are categorised as public universities; 49 respondents from Lead City University and 34 respondents from Oduduwa University which are categorised as private universities.

1.4 Participants

Three hundred and eighty-four (384) university workers comprising 229 males and 155 females were used in the study. Participants' ages ranged from 22 to 63 years ($\bar{x}$=46.88; SD = 9.36). Staff category revealed that 165 (43.0%) were non-teaching staff while majority 219 (57.0%) were non-teaching staff members Furthermore, the distribution of respondents by university type showed that majority of the respondents 251 (65.4%) were from public universities while 133 (34.6%) respondents were from private universities.

1.5 Instruments

The following instruments were used to collect data information. It comprised socio-demographic profile such as age, sex, staff category, university type. One standardized scale that tapped the variable of interest follows:

Workplace deviant behaviour was assessed by a 19-item Workplace Deviance (WPD) propounded by Bennett and Robinson (2000). The scoring was done on a Likert response scoring of Never (1); several times a year (2); monthly (3); weekly (4); daily (5). The scale has two dimensions of interpersonal and organisational deviance which was adopted for use in the study. Items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 13, 14, 15, and 16 captured the dimension of organisational deviance while items 9, 10, 11, 12, 17, 18, and 19 measured the dimension of interpersonal deviance. The authors of the scale reported reliability of 0.81 and 0.78 respectively for the two dimensions of the scale. To validate the scale among the participants of the study; a pilot study was conducted using factor analysis. The Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) revealed that items loaded significantly on their constructs ($p<.001$), with weights ranging from 0.45 to 0.87. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was 0.92 which yielded sampling adequacy for the scale. Cronbach's alpha (α) 0.97 was reported for the overall

scale while 0.96 and 0.95 were reported for organisational and interpersonal deviance in this present study.

1.6 Procedure

Institutional-based approvals were obtained from the four universities used for this study. Informed consent was sought from all the respondents and they were guaranteed of privacy and confidentiality of their information. Respondents who agreed to participate in the study signed an informed consent form. A self-report questionnaire was given to consented participants in their offices at a different point in time at the four universities during their break period with the aid of two research assistances. The filled questionnaires were subjected to statistical analysis using the IBM-SPSS (v24). Hypothesis one, two and three was tested using t-test for independent measure all at 0.05 level of significance.

2 Results

The first hypothesis which stated that there is a significant gender difference in workplace deviance among university employees was presented in the Table below:

Table 1

T-test summary of the gender difference in dimensions and overall workplace deviance of university workers

	Gender	*N*	$\bar{x}$	*SD*	*t*	*Df*	*p*
Organizational deviance	Male	229	28.03	13.41	- 0.37	382	.738
	Female	155	28.54	13.09			
Interpersonal deviance	Male	229	16.43	8.56	0.46	382	.460
	Female	155	16.79	8.49			
Workplace deviance	Male	229	44.46	21.58	0.67	382	.674
	Female	155	45.33	21.25			

Note: N = number of participants; $\bar{x}$ = Mean; SD = standard deviation; t = t-value; Df = degree of freedom; p = probability-value
Source: Authors' work 2018

The result shows that there were no significant variance in organisational deviance between male and female university employees $t(382)=-0.37$, $p>.05$. The result also showed no significant variance in interpersonal deviance between male and female university employees $t(382)=0.46$, $p>.05$. Finally, there is no significant difference in overall workplace deviance between male and female university workers $t(382)=0.67$, $p>.05$.

The second hypothesis which stated that there is a significant staff category difference in workplace deviance among university employees was also presented below:

Table 2

T-test summary of the staff category difference in dimensions and overall workplace deviance of university workers

	Staff category	*N*	$\bar{x}$	*SD*	*t*	*Df*	*p*
Organizational deviance	Academic	165	30.08	13.23	2.38	382	.018
	Non-academic	219	26.84	13.16			
Interpersonal deviance	Academic	165	17.72	8.45	2.28	382	.023
	Non-academic	219	15.72	8.50			
Workplace deviance	Academic	165	47.80	21.28	2.38	382	.018
	Non-academic	219	42.56	21.31			

Note: N = number of participants; $\bar{x}$ = Mean; SD = standard deviation; t = t-value; Df = Degree of freedom; p = probability-value
Source: Authors' work 2018

The result on the table above shows that there was a significant difference in organisational deviance between academic and non-academic university employees $t(382)=2.38$, $p<.05$. It was observed from the table that academic workers ($\bar{x}=30.08$) reported significantly higher organisational deviance than non-academic workers (($\bar{x}=26.84$). It also showed that there was a significant difference in interpersonal deviance between academic and non-academic university workers $t(382)=2.28$, $p<.05$. The result implies that academic workers ($\bar{x}=17.72$) reported significantly higher organisational deviance than non-academic workers ($\bar{x}=15.72$). Finally, there is also a significant difference in the overall workplace deviance between academic and non-academic university employees $t(382)=2.38$, $p<.05$. This means that academic workers ($\bar{x}=47.80$) reported significantly higher overall workplace deviance than non-academic workers ($\bar{x}=42.56$).

The third hypothesis which stated that there is a significant university type difference in workplace deviance among university employees was presented below:

Table 3

T-test summary of the university type difference in dimensions and overall workplace deviance of university workers

	University type	*N*	$\bar{x}$	*SD*	*t*	*Df*	*p*
Organizational deviance	Public	251	27.23	13.23	-	382	.043
	Private	133	30.12	12.23	2.03		
Interpersonal deviance	Public	251	15.83	8.70	-	382	.018
	Private	133	17.99	8.02	2.37		
Workplace deviance	Public	251	43.07	22.08	-	382	.028
	Private	133	48.11	19.80	2.20		

Note: N = number of participants; $\bar{x}$ = Mean; SD = standard deviation; t = t-value; Df = Degree of freedom; p = probability-value
Source: Authors' work 2018

The result on the table above shows significant variance in organisational deviance between university employees from public and private universities t(382=-2.03, p<.05. It was observed from the table that academic workers from private universities ($\bar{x}$=30.12) reported significantly higher organisational deviance than workers from public universities ($\bar{x}$=27.23). The result also showed that there was a significant difference in interpersonal deviance between workers from public and private university t(382)=-2.37, p<.05. The result implies that academic workers from private universities ($\bar{x}$=17.99) reported significantly higher organisational deviance than workers from public universities ($\bar{x}$=15.83). Finally, there is also a significant difference in the overall workplace deviance between university employees from public and private universities t(382)=-2.20, p<.05. This means that workers from private universities ($\bar{x}$=43.80) reported significantly higher overall workplace deviance than workers from public universities ($\bar{x}$=42.56).

3 Discusssion

The study examined the role of socio-demographic variables (sex, staff category and university type) on workplace deviance among workers in Nigerian universities. In view of this, the first hypothesis found that there was no gender difference in the dimensions and overall workplace deviance among university employees. This implies that both male and female employees have the same level of organisational and interpersonal deviance and overall workplace deviance. This finding is line with the result of a study conducted by Balogun, Esan and Ezeugwu (2016) who found that there was no relationship between gender and workplace deviance. The study does not collaborate the finding of Balogun, and Komolafe (2016) who found that male local government employees reported higher workplace deviance than their female counterparts. The study finding did not collaborate with Uche, George and Abiola (2017) who found that gender is one socio-demographic factor that predicts

counterproductive work behaviour. The study was also not in accordance with Spector and Zhou (2014) who found that gender moderated the link among job stressors and personality on CWB. Meanwhile, the study's finding was not in line with Olabimitan and Alausa (2014) who found that males reported increased deviant behaviour than their female counterparts. The justification for this finding was premised on the fact that in recent time both male and female university workers are exposed to the same level of socialization process which could predispose them to the same level of deviant behaviours. Also, the same level of working conditions exposed to both genders in the university could be another reason for such findings.

The second hypothesis found that there was a significant variance in organisational, interpersonal and overall workplace deviance among university employees based on staff category. The study found that academic staff has higher organisational, interpersonal and overall workplace deviance than non-academic staff. This study finding was not in agreement with that of Kalejaiye and Adeyemi (2013) who found that workplace misbehaviour is paramount among the non-academic staff. Also, the study's finding was not in line with that of Adekola (2010) and Ukertor (2011) who both found that counterproductive work behaviour is more prevalent among the non-academic staff. The probable reason why the finding was because academic staff enjoys more academic freedom than any other staff in the university which predisposes them to engage more in deviant behaviours. This is often seen when academic staff come to offices very late or engage in tardiness.

The third hypothesis found that there was a significant difference in organisational, interpersonal and overall workplace deviance among university employees based on the university type. The study found that workers who are in the private universities have higher organisational, interpersonal and overall workplace deviance than staff in the public universities. The study finding was not in line with the study done by Obalade and Arogundade (2019) who found that employees in the public universities exhibit higher deviant behaviour than those in private universities. Also, the study's finding did not agree with that of Andreoli and Lefkowitz (2008) who found that ethical climate influence deviant behaviour in government institution. The reason could be the job insecurity associated with getting employment in private universities in Nigeria where most employees are not sure when they can be sacked or relief of their job, hence these workers are more prone to deviant act as a form of retaliation.

Conclusion, recommendations, research limitations and future studies

This study has been able to highlight the individual influence that socio-demographic factors (gender, university type and staff category) have on the menace of workplace deviance among university workers in Nigeria. Based on

these findings, we concluded that gender has no significant influence on organisational, interpersonal as well as overall workplace deviance. The study also concluded that academic workers have higher organisational, interpersonal and overall workplace deviance than non-academic staff. Lastly, the study concluded that workers who are from private universities have higher organisational, interpersonal as well as overall deviance than workers from public universities. Based on these summations, the study recommended that university management should devise strategic means such as counselling, and behavioural modification advocacy that will encourage ethically decent behaviour among academic staff in a way that it will meet the goals and objectives of the university system. We also recommended that private owned universities should make the employment of their staff more lucrative and attractive in such a way that staff will be motivated to stay longer, and engage in positive behaviour that will achieve the mission and vision of such institution. Theoretically, this study provides more support to equity and strain theory which reduces the menace of deviance in the university and organisation as a whole, adequate reward from time to time must be given to employees to cushion any strain that would encourage workers to engage in deviant behaviour. Despite the relevance of the present study to workplace deviance literature, it still has some limitations. Firstly, because the study used only four universities in Nigeria, generalising the study results to other university staff in all universities might be challenging. Secondly, because of the sensitive nature of the problem addressed, some respondents might fake their responses and not disclose their true feelings about the subject matter. Thirdly, the cross-sectional nature of this study, make it difficult to establish a causal effect among the variables investigated. Based on these limitations, we suggested that future studies should increase the sample size for better results generalisation. It is also suggested that the mixed-method approach be used by future studies as this will enrich and bring better result findings. Experimental study of variables affecting deviance can also be initiated by future studies to establish causal inference. Lastly, more psychological variables should be investigated on workplace deviance in a bid to reduce the counter-productive habits that have negatively affect business and organisation settings.

Acknowledgements
We thank all the university staff who participated in this study.

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Acta Educationis Generalis
Volume 11, 2021, Issue 1

DOI: 10.2478/atd-2021-0004

Exploring Turkish EFL Instructors' Perceptions on Learner Autonomy through Metaphor Elicitation Technique

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Received: May 25, 2020; received in revised form: June 26, 2020;
accepted: June 30, 2020

Abstract:
Introduction: This study analysed Turkish instructors' metaphors identifying learners in terms of learner autonomy.
Methods: In the present study we proposed a mixed methods approach to the investigation of the images created by the participants.
Results: The metaphors produced by the participants showed that instructors see both themselves and learners as active agents in teaching and learning process.
Discussion: The variety of metaphors grouped into eight categories reflected the broad range of perception of instructors have for learners.
Limitations: 80 non-native English-speaking Turkish instructors were the participants of the study. Their qualifications were varied from graduate degree to doctoral degree on ELL or ELT and their teaching experience varied from recent graduates with one year of experience to considerable veteran instructors with 27 years of experience in teaching English.
Conclusion: We observed that instructors perceive learner autonomy in many perspectives while they assign themselves some main roles in teaching and learning process. The findings also revealed a variety of teacher conceptualization of learner metaphors such as sponge, tree, traveller, puppet, cone, and empty canvas most of which are positive. The information may shed light on the attempts to promote learner autonomy, to understand teachers in practice better and to support teacher development.

Key words: teacher cognition, learner autonomy, metaphor, metaphor elicitation, mixed methods.

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Introduction

In the turn of the new century, one of the paradigms which attracted attention was cognitive studies in language teaching and learning. In resonance with the growing interest in the cognitive side of language education, the study of teacher cognition (hereafter TC) has also become a recent trend in the field of language education (Freeman, 2002). The term "teacher cognition" attributes to teachers' beliefs, thought, attitude and knowledge (Burns, Freeman, & Edwards, 2015) are commonly used. Borg, (2003, p.81) defines it as "unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching". The factor in the surge of interest in teacher cognition research has been the realization of teachers' new roles in teaching in the new century. Moving away from the traditional teacher roles, the focus in language studies is now in the teaching activity itself regarding the inter relatedness between professional development, teachers' beliefs and the contexts that teaching and learning take place (Freeman, 2002). Consequently, teachers as participants and active decision makers in shaping classroom events are under the influence of their mental lives, therefore their knowledge and beliefs about language teaching and learning have a crucial role in determining their teaching behaviour (Borg, 2015).

Thus, in order to understand teachers' instructional strategies, we need to investigate what teachers know, how they get to know and how they draw on their knowledge (Borg, 2003). Similarly, in order to highlight the importance of teacher cognition on language teaching, it is necessary to reveal what language teacher think and believe. Teachers' background, experience, and social context they teach in were considered as potential factors on their work (Freeman, 2002). In recent years, the investigation of language teachers' cognition as a complex subject has aroused a great deal of interest in language teaching with a diversity of topics in relation to various aspects of teaching including teachers' cognition of learner autonomy (LA). In this study the aim is to investigate the cognition of Turkish instructors on LA through metaphors they created for learners.

1 Conceptual framework

1.1 Learner autonomy

Learner autonomy (LA) was first framed by Holec (1981) as an ability to take charge of one's own directed learning and to control the learning process (as cited in Palfreyman & Smith, 2003). It is learners' using their cognitive and meta-cognitive resources to shape their own learning (Little, Dam, & Legenhausen, 2017). Benson (2013) regards autonomy as a capacity to control important aspects of one's language learning. So, it is not a single behaviour, but a complex and multidimensional state. As a specific form of personal autonomy, LA may take different forms related to person and contextual factors. The

worldwide popularity of LA in language learning and teaching has made it become a globally important notion. It has aroused considerable interest in language teaching studies from different perspectives.

1.2 Metaphor as a tool to investigate perceptions

The word metaphor is defined as "a figure of speech in which a word or phrase literally denoting one kind of object or idea is used in place of another to suggest a likeness or analogy between them" (Merriam-Webster Online). Once considered as a stylistic issue and rhetoric device, metaphor has been regarded as a phenomenon in language, thought, cognition and communication. According to Cognitive Linguists "metaphors are cognitive devices essential not only in our understanding of a large number of concepts but also determining the way in which we think and communicate." (Krzeszowski, 2020). Lakoff and Johnson (1980) define metaphor as "understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another" and consider metaphors to be at the centre of all our cognitive processes. They have highlighted that metaphor is not only something about poetic imagination, but also a widely used concept in daily life related to thoughts and actions. The similarities between the entities enable us to link them and to see a phenomenon from another point of view. By likening something to another thing we conceptualize the world by metaphors (De Gurrero & Villamir, 2002).

The use of metaphors to analyse beliefs is not recent in the field of education. The examination of metaphors used by teachers to express their ideas on various topics is well documented in the literature. Metaphors help to reveal the subconscious side and implicitly held beliefs of teachers and learners. Similarly, studies investigated the process of language teaching and the role of language teachers using this tool (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999; Oxford et al., 1998; De Guerrero & Villamil, 2002). De Guerrero and Villamil (2002) distinguish nine conceptual metaphors for English language teachers. Oxford (et al., 1998) provides a typology for teaching upon some perspectives driven from the metaphor analysis of various literature reviews. The figurative language the teachers use is central to understand their knowledge, perception, or beliefs since all these images in their figurative language are constructed from their personal experiences. Kagan (1990) states that metaphors represent cognitive and affective sides of teachers' beliefs.

Using this valuable tool, researchers have explored a range of different teaching aspects, such as teachers and their beliefs about teaching (Seferoğlu, Korkmazgil, & Ölçü, 2009), how teachers view their roles (Oxford et al., 1998), how teachers see themselves (Saban, Kocbeker, & Saban, 2007), how teachers changed their conception of teaching over time (Alger, 2009), students' perception of distance education (Bağrıaçık Yılmaz, 2019), pre-service language teachers' role identities (Yesilbursa, 2012) teachers' role in the use of educational technology (Bağcı & Çoklar, 2010). However, studies utilizing

metaphors to determine teachers' or learners' perception of learners is quite limited. One of the most comprehensive studies was carried out by Inbar (1996). The researcher gathered metaphorical images from student participants and educators in regard to some basic perceptions about learners besides teachers, principals and schools. The findings indicate a significant difference between the perception of students and teachers on the mentioned topics. Similarly, Bozlk (2002) asked 49 first year college students in a general education cluster course in the Unites States to create metaphors for themselves as learners at four points during an academic year. In this longitudinal study, the metaphors created showed that they came to higher education as passive learners to absorb teachers' knowledge. This indicates learners' being lack of taking the control of their learning. On the other hand, Saban (2010) investigated the images prospective teachers generated for learners by the popular prompt "a student is like … because…" too with a high number of participants from a university setting in Turkey. The investigation of the data revealed 12 conceptual categories developed for the perception of prospective teachers of learner. Similarly, Kalra and Baveja (2012) investigated pre-service and in-service teachers' beliefs about learning and learners. They investigated metaphors participants created for learning, learner, and knowledge. In most of these metaphors learners were considered as someone who is helpless, needs support and care. De Guerrero and Villamil (2002) investigated how ESL teachers conceptualize themselves, learners, and teaching and learning to identify the assumptions and theories underlying these conceptions. They found out that ESL teachers' mental framework is culturally constructed. Teachers perform classical roles such as leader, provider of knowledge, and artist while learners carry a role at different degrees of being active.

In all of above mentioned studies mentioned teacher is mostly considered as the leader of teaching and learning while leaving learners as the senior agent in learning. Teachers are manufacturers, entertainer, mind and behaviour controller (Oxford et al., 1998), sun, gardener, explorer (De Guerrero & Villamil, 2002), or carpenter, ship captain, road map (Saban et al., 2007). All these images indicate that it is not learners, but teachers who own more power and authority in learning process.

From an overall view, a vast amount of research have investigated how pre-service teachers perceive teaching and learning related topics, and their beliefs that they bring to the teacher education programmes (Bullough & Stokes, 1994; Farrell, 2006; Saban et al., 2007). Only few studies have investigated in-service teachers' ideas on teaching and learning (Inbar, 1996). Moreover, the studies in literature mainly examined how teachers or learners perceive teachers and their roles (Tobin, 1990; Yeşilbursa, 2012; Xiong & Qu, 2015). However, teachers' perception of learners in terms of LA, which can help the shift from teacher-centred classes to learner-centred classes, has not been much investigated in Turkish context (Dogan & Mirci, 2017). How teachers perceive learners can

pave to what kind of approaches, methods, materials, and technology they will be using to correspond with their students' needs to promote LA. In keeping with the premise that metaphors are windows to cognition, the current study has an impetus to discover how language teachers see learners in terms of their being autonomous. Based on the cognitive theory of metaphor, this study intended to investigate learner images of Turkish instructors teaching English at a Turkish university which may shed light on to what extent teachers are as an effective agent in promoting autonomy in and out of class and see learners as autonomous with the research questions:

- What are the images generated by Turkish EFL instructors for students?
- What do these images imply on teachers' cognition of LA?

2 Method

2.1 Research design

We adopted a mixed methods research approach to reveal teacher cognition of learners. As Creswell and Creswell (2017) state mixed methods research designs look at a phenomenon from different perspectives converging both quantitative and qualitative data to provide a complete and comprehensible understanding of a research problem. Considering the methodological pluralism, we aim to provide a more effective research design for the investigation of teacher cognition of learners (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2006). Qualitative data support researchers with in-depth understanding and the frequencies display the prevalence of each image among the participants in percentages. Shortly, this study investigated teachers' cognition of learners both with teachers' words and numbers.

2.2 Research settings and participants

According to Burns (1996), the institutional culture has effect on teachers' beliefs. With regard to this idea, the present study was administered at three different departments of Erciyes University to investigate teacher cognition on LA in different contexts. Erciyes University is one of the biggest state universities situated in middle Anatolia in Turkey. The three departments as for the sites of the study were the Department of English Language and Literature (ELL) at the Faculty of Arts, the Department of English Language Teaching (ELT) at the Faculty of Education, and the School of Foreign Languages (SFL). We selected these departments as they are the only three departments teaching English at this university. The ELL and ELT departments train student teachers during four years providing them with courses on language teaching, English language, and English literature. SFL provides undergraduate students of engineering, economics and civil aviation faculties with a one-year English preparatory program before they enrol their chosen departments for an undergraduate course.

In terms of approaching the study from a pragmatic view, we pursued convenience sampling strategy regarding the willingness and availability of the participants to gather useful information (Creswell, 2012). The total population of the informants limited within the three teaching contexts; ELL, ELT, and SFL. All of the participants, 80 in total, were both male and female non-native English-speaking Turkish instructors. The participants' qualifications were varied from graduate degree to doctoral degree on ELL or ELT. Consonantly, their teaching experience included a vast spectrum; from recent graduates with one year of experience to considerable veteran teachers with 27 years of experience in teaching English.

2.3 Data collection

By the considerable interest of cognitive views in language teaching, metaphor analysis has been recognized as a valuable tool in applied linguistics, in education as a reflective research tool in teaching contexts (Tobin, 1990) and also in cognitive studies (Xiong & Qu, 2015). In this study, which was conducted in the spring semester of 2017-2018 academic year, we tried to bring out the immediate images the participants had for learners in their minds by metaphor elicitation method. A prompt response provides first and immediate thought that comes to their mind (Kalra & Baveja, 2012). By this instant interview, the participants were encouraged to use metaphors as a means to reveal how they see learners. The widely used question template to elicit metaphors in numerous researches so far has been "What is ….. like?" (De Guerrero & Villamil, 2002; Saban et al., 2007; Saban, 2009). Some reasons behind the frequent use of metaphor elicitation method are its being economical in terms of the time required and it is being standardized allowing easy comparisons (Seferoğlu et al., 2009). Many studies utilized this question in writing via the prompt "X is like … because …" (Bas & Gezegin, 2015; Seferoğlu et al., 2009; Saban, 2010). However, we preferred the oral code by means of on-the-spot interview to reveal the participants' immediate reactions rather than their best answers. Considering all, we used the question of "What is a learner like?" to dig out metaphors to combine the spontaneous everyday conceptions about learners. As a result, the participants' metaphors illuminated the hidden figure of a learner in their mental lives as a stereo type.

In order to eliminate the possible loss of meaning in translation from Turkish to English, the participants created images in English. Yıldırım and Şimşek (2013) argue that metaphors alone cannot fully unveil the descriptive and visual power. In order to confirm and clarify the metaphor the participants created and to ensure the validity of the results, the interview was closed with an open-ended question, "Why do you think so?" which allowed the participants to be more creative and clear with their metaphor choice. The metaphorical reasoning by explaining the rationale for choosing each metaphor helps make the participants' implicit belief explicit. We noted down the replies of the respondents for both

questions immediately on the spot to eliminate the effect of the psychological constraint of recording on the answers. The analysis of the images created by the instructors showed insight about the way they saw learners while investigating their cognition on LA. Identifying, evaluating and critiquing instructors' images helped to reveal how teachers conceptualize a learner.

2.4 Data analysis

In order to analyse the data gathered in the metaphor elicitation interview, we followed content analysis method and identified the linguistic metaphors supplied by the participants for learner in the form of similes. We recorded them into an excel file with the entailments telling the reasons of their choice. Entailments guide us safely as Sfard (1998) states "…implications of metaphors are a result of contextual determinants not less than of the metaphor itself". For Low and Cameron (1999) some metaphors are fuzzy, which means that they may fit more than one conceptual category. Similarly, an exemplar metaphor may appear in different conceptual categories at the same time since they represent different reasons. We are also aware of the fact that the way we have categorized the metaphors may not reflect the intention of the participants. Hence, the follow up question in the metaphor elicitation interview helped us to find the best category. In order to make generalizations, the entailment of each metaphor was examined iteratively and the images were categorized into themes according to their referent. The categorization of the images was done by one of the researchers and checked by the other. The differences appeared in the categorization phase were discussed to reach a consensus. Through this coding process, we detected 50 different linguistic metaphors. Finally, the metaphors were clustered under eight conceptual categories. These categories identified the role of learners in learning with respect to LA.

In the investigation of participants' cognition of LA regarding the metaphors they created for learners, we utilized the term active agent in order to define the role teachers and learners take in teaching and learning. Active agent is a term mainly used in chemistry illustrating an agent producing chemical reaction (https://www.vocabulary.com/). In our context active agent is the person who is active and takes the responsibility of learners learning.

3 Results

In the present study, the analysis of the data yielded a total of 50 different metaphors on learner. The most recurrent metaphors among these miscellaneous images are child (x7) and sponge (x6). The next most frequently used metaphor is baby (x5). Plant (x4) and tree (x4) appear as the following frequent metaphors. After blank sheet (x3) and receiver (x3); audience (x2), fish out of water (x2), flower (x2), hungry person (x2), and mirror (x2) come as less frequent examples. The least frequent ones appearing only once are bell glass, bucket, butterfly, camera, clock, cone, copy machine, cricket, empty canvas, evil, food difficult to

make, friend, glass, hungry child, inquest of knowledge, lady, machine, mathematician, me in my school life, mobile phone, music without lyrics, notebook, penguin, person in a desert looking for water, open box, play dough, pot on the fire, puppet, seed, school backpack, slave, snowball, spectator of a film, tourist without a map, traveller, vacuum, wall, wanderer, and worker. All the metaphors created are 80 in total.

The qualitative analysis of the metaphors generated by the participants in the research show that the images created varied and included both living organisms (animate entities - such as butterfly, friend, traveller) (x24) and objects (inanimate entities - such as glass, music without lyrics, wall) (x29). In almost all of these images participants have a positive perception of learners. However, 12 images out of 50 images embodied a diverse description of learner comparing a learner to a negative entity, such as evil, fish out of water and slave. Some metaphors were literally one word such as audience and mirror whereas some others were elaborated with some details in wording, such as tourist without a map and a person in a desert looking for water. Some adjectives were also utilized by the participants for learner metaphors like hungry child and hungry person. The adjective hungry indicates learners' need to survive. The entailments show that the hunger is for knowledge. However, who is the active agent to fulfil this need: Learner, teacher, or somebody else? In hungry child metaphor, since a child cannot maintain food for him/herself, it needs to be fed. The metaphor suggests that learners are passive and need somebody to provide them knowledge. In hungry person metaphor, the entailment does not maintain information about how to be fed, but it mentions about what the hunger is for.

The result of the content analysis revealed 50 kinds of metaphors could be grouped into some categories. Upon the examination of the metaphors which participants generated, eight themes emerged (Table 1). Consequently, we created eight conceptual categories. These categories and their percentages are: learner as a developing organism (30%), learner as a recipient (21.25%), learner as a tabula rasa (8.75%), learner as a constructor of knowledge (6.25%), learner as a container (6.25%), learner as a knowledge reflector (6.25%), learner as an observant (5%), and learner as a defective being (16.25%). It should be noted that the last category conveys a different perspective of the perception of instructors on learners from the other categories in terms of viewing learners from a negative window.

For the examination of participants' metaphors in terms of their perception of LA, the data display a great variety. As De Gurrero and Villamir (2002) states metaphors participants produce do not truly represent their way of thinking, but their verbalization of some notions. Taking this idea into consideration, the follow up question of the metaphor elicitation interview searching why they think so about learners enlightens the choice of the metaphors. In our study almost all of the repeated metaphors are similar both for the image created and the reason the participants gave in the entailments. Only the metaphor sponge is

an exception. It is one of the vivid metaphors with similar entailments, but one of them has a different entailment which leads it to a different attribute. The metaphor sponge is mainly classified in learner as a recipient category. However, in one of the entailments it displays a different reason and also appears in learner as a knowledge reflector category. Table 1 offers a summary of 8 conceptual categories as well as exemplar metaphors and entailments for each. The metaphors about English language instructors' perception of learner are discussed under each conceptual category as follows:

Table 1

Conceptual categories, active agents, and metaphors

Conceptual category f (%) Learner as a(n) ...	*Active Agent(s) Teacher (T) Learner (L)*	*Exemplar metaphors(f) (A learner is like a(n)...)*	
developing organism 24 (30.00%)	T & L	child (7) baby (5) plant (4) tree (4)	flower (2) butterfly seed
recipient 17 (21.25%)	T & L	sponge (5) audience (2) hungry person (2) receiver (3) cone	friend mobile phone spectator of a film worker
untaught state (tabula rasa) 7 (8.75%)	T	blank sheet (x3) empty canvas music without lyrics	notebook play dough
constructor of knowledge 5(6.25%)	L	clock good mathematician machine	school backpack snowball
container 5 (6.25%)	T	bell glass bucket glass	open box pot on the fire
knowledge reflector 5 (6.25%)	T & L	mirror (x2) sponge	copy machine camera
observant 4 (5.00%)	L & T	inquirer of knowledge person in a desert looking for water	rraveller wanderer
defective being 13 (16.25%)	---	cricket evil	penguin puppet

fish out of water (x2)	slave
food difficult to make	tourist without a map
lady	vacuum
me in my school life	wall

3.1 Learners as a developing organism

Learners are most frequently represented in child metaphor by the participants. For five of these metaphors, the common entailment is a learner's learning being similar to a child's learning by asking questions, looking around, experiencing new things, imitating others, and also learning some social skills. One of the entailments carries the notion of being aware of the fact that they do not know. This indicates the capacity learners have. Four of the child metaphors associate learner as an active agent, who asks the questions, looks around, imitates, and experience new things. These entailments carry learners to be more autonomous while leaving teachers passive. In two of the child metaphor, child indicates a gap. Thus, learners have to be filled. However, it is not clear who should be active agent to fill this gap. Learners, teachers, or somebody else to complete this gap was not stated. In one of the entailments the participant consider teacher as a counsellor (Saban et al., 2007) by saying "trusting teacher" and for one of the child metaphors learner has an attribute to a social agent learning social skills reminding Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory.

As one of the most frequent metaphors baby has some common entailments. Learning as a time span process like in the life of a person as a child is the main attribution of this image. Learning is an on-going process that continues through life. However, "exploring" and experience" are the two notions presenting a difference. These two entailments attribute the learner the motivation for learning and the capability of making decisions to learn new things which indicates self-directed learning. Yet, baby metaphor also carries some diverse entailments in one of the participant's explanation. Learners are like babies exploring, but at the same time they are not aware of what they are doing. The lack of consciousness indicates learners' not having any predetermined aims, not being aware of their learning, or not taking the control of the learning process. The other diverse entailment for baby image is its being "closed". It indicates the lack of social interaction in learning process. They are "enthusiastic to explore", but they are "closed" so that they learn on their own. What is hidden in the baby metaphor is mostly learners' being the active agent in learning, however in isolation.

The metaphor plant was used four times with a common entailment of growing. The entailments of two metaphors associate learner owning a capacity to become developed. This is similar to the entailment of metaphor child, which indicates the same attribute namely the capacity. Besides this entailment, the other two directly connect the development of learner to teacher with the entailments

"…grow up according to the information teachers give" and "…you [teachers] should give shape to it". Within these two examples the active agent is teacher whereas the learner is the receiver to get the information teacher gives. The kind and amount of information are under the control of teacher. Learner as a plant is stable waiting to be fed with information or waiting to be given shape, the teacher is the gardener caring the plant and having the responsibility.

Tree image includes different entities. The conceptualization of learner as a tree mostly associates it as a living creature with an attribution of possessing the capacity of growth. The other entailment regards the capacity of growth while presenting teacher as the gardener to look after them in order to keep them safe not to get faded as well as to shape them. Teachers are the active agents as the instruments to give shape and protect trees by influencing them.

Conveying a unique entailment, the image flower associates learner as a living organism in need of attention and caring. Teacher is expected to take care of learner while learner is expected to get blossomed. The flower metaphor as well as child, baby, plant and tree metaphors regards learner having the capacity of growth, while assigning the responsibility to teachers as the active agents. Similarly, butterfly carries an entailment of having capacity to develop and in the image seed they need time to learn.

3.2 Learners as a recipient

In these metaphors, language knowledge is transferred from the source (teacher) to recipient (learner). The image sponge is the other recurrent metaphor after child. The key attribute of sponge is absorbing. This image implies that learner is an active entity absorbing the knowledge given. Similarly, the entailments define the source of the knowledge as teacher and associates teacher as the other active agent in terms of providing knowledge. The comparison of these two active agents indicates teacher being more influential and effective than learner as carrying the role of decision maker.

The audience metaphor displays a passive mood for learners. The entailments also highlight the learners not being active in learning. The entailment "…they just listen" draws a picture where learners are listening or watching the performance on the scene. The scene is the classroom and the actors/actresses are the teachers teaching. In the audience metaphor for learners, the teachers are the ones who carry the responsibility of teaching whereas the learners are given any responsibility or participation duty. They are consent with what teachers present and how much they teach.

Hungry person metaphor refers to a person who is in need of acquiring knowledge, but it is again not the learner who is gaining it. The entailment "… needs to be fed" leaves the learner passive without indicating who the active agent is.

Audience as an animate metaphor and receiver as an inanimate metaphor resemble each other in terms of the passive mood attained to learner. In receiver

metaphor, this time, learner gets the messages sent by somebody else. One of the entailments clarifies it as "… receives signal from the satellite". What a learner does is waiting these messages to be sent. Learners do not have any right to choose or any opportunities to be involved in the decisions on the message such as time, amount, and content of it. In this metaphor again learners possess a passive role and the sender of the message, probably teacher is the main active agent. However, the entailment "[it is] open" indicates that learners are ready to get the message sent. So, both teachers and learners are active in sending and receiving regarding the fact that learners can receive only the amount teachers sent, but teachers possess vast knowledge to choose among.

Friend metaphor presents a mutual relationship between teachers and learners working in harmony. The entailment indicates a desire to be like friends with learners in order to collaborate with them effectively. Otherwise, they will feel like a stranger. Although the active agent is not directly stated, it can be inferred that teachers creates the friendly atmosphere to facilitate the communication in the class.

The image cone reflects learners as a recipient open to be filled. It has a wide edge at the top, but down the cone it has a small hole to pass the received material. The entailment "…[learner] gets only what she understands well" illustrates learners passively receiving what is presented and only acquiring the part which they understand well, but not displaying an effort to get all. On the other hand, although not stated, the verbal illustration displays that it is the teacher who is filling the cone as the active agent.

Similar to audience metaphor, spectator of a film image illustrates learners sitting and watching passively what is on, however the entailment of spectator of a film "…they produce something with their experience" carries learners to the active side of learning. Learners as workers are not free, "… they do what the teacher tells them" and learners as mobile phones receives the signals sent.

3.3 Learners as an untaught state (Tabula Rasa)

This conceptual category reinforces learning as recording and keeping. Blank sheet is the image participants generated with two different entailments. The active agent differs in these two entailments. In one of them the learner is considered as a blank sheet "to be written on". On this blank sheet "you can also draw whatever you want". Although who writes or draws on the sheet were not stated, it implies that the active agent is the person who teaches not the one who learns. The other representation of blank sheet for learner carries an entailment in which the learner is the active agent. Learners are like blank sheet because learning is easy for learners since they have space in their minds to store new things.

Similar to blank sheet image, notebook and empty canvas images are the two other metaphors assessing teachers the task of completion or adding colour. In both metaphors the active agent is again teachers.

The other image created in this category is music without lyrics. It indicates the capacity learners have as the metaphors in the learner as a container theme. The entailment points teacher as the one who writes the lyrics of the music. Play dough reflects teachers being the active agent while learners behave according to the attitudes of teachers.

3.4 Learners as a constructor of knowledge

The images good mathematician and snowball are the two conveying a unique notion of learner different from the rest of the metaphors generated by the participants. The entailments of these metaphors attribute responsibility to learner. For good mathematician, the learner is associated to a person who is aware of the difficulty of teaching somebody. Snowball metaphor gives learners responsibility of gathering information to grow up by their own attempts. In both metaphors the active agent is learner carrying the self-responsibility of self-growth. The clock image describes learner as somebody working continuously without stopping with the entailment "… they know their responsibility". Like clock metaphor, machine metaphor also represent learner as an object "…function[ing] all the time without stopping".

With school backpack learners are represented as full equipped and owning all the knowledge and sources to learn. This metaphor gives all the function of being active agent to learners as in machine metaphor.

3.5 Learners as a container

Open box is the other image with the attribution of container indicating the capacity to store. Teachers represent a transmitting role (Alger, 2009) by putting something into that box as the active agent. Carrying the notion of container, pot on the fire metaphor leads us to consider learner possessing the ore, but not having the ability to open the cover with the entailment "…waiting somebody to open it". Bell glass is the image indicating learner being closed with the entailment "… they are not autonomous". Glass and bucket are alike giving the teacher responsibility to fill them with knowledge with the entailments "you put something in it" and "teachers pouring knowledge into" as the active agent.

3.6 Learners as a knowledge reflector

Similar to sponge, in mirror image, learners reflect teachers. Both of them as active agents have roles. Teachers perform something and learners reflect it. So, the properties of the reflection such as amount and content of it is related to the properties of teachers' performance. Consequently, teachers as the active agent are more dominant in mirror image. Also, copy machine indicates a similar kind of refection. The entailment of it attributes teachers as the source of knowledge and the duty of learner is to reflect the knowledge given. The state of being like a camera attains learners a skill of keeping information stored with the entailment "…recording is a good way to use the data later."

3.7 Learners as an observant

All the images collected under this category attain an active role to learners. For the wanderer image, the entailment indicates that no one can resist changing as stated in one of the entailments "… while wondering, they find new advantages". The person in a desert looking for water image also implies the need of learning all along life. Inquirer of knowledge entails curiosity which motivates learners to reach knowledge with self-attempts. Traveller displays both teacher and learner as the active agent with the entailment "… everywhere they are travelling the teacher creates."

3.8 Learners as a defective being

Diverse metaphors have appeared in some studies. In Bas and Gezegin (2015), English learning process was described as torture in a disturbing, harming, and dangerous way. In this study one of the diverse metaphors used for learner by the participants is fish. Normally, the daily use fish does not contain any negative attribution, but the entailments of this image presents learners from a view in which they are taken out of their protected life into an unprotected life which indicates school life in this context. This perception presents learners as not being able to do things for their own sake since they do not have power to direct their own life. Thus, they need to be parented, protected, and fed.

The other diverse metaphor is appeared in teacher participants' mind is vacuum. This image reminds us of the sponge metaphor which indicates the absorption of all knowledge teachers provide. The entailment of vacuum image attributes learner the function of absorption. However, this time it is the absorption of all the energy teachers have to teach. In that sense learners are the active agent in negative sense.

Similarly, lady image presents a negative attribution although the notion of being a lady does not have any negative implications in general sense. In the entailment, learner as a lady is somebody who does not show any effort to learn, they expect everything done for them.

One of the most striking diverse metaphors is evil with an entailment of learners being bad. The other one is slave considering teachers as the land lords/ owner of learners in their own territory; classroom. Learners owning any rights to choose or decide have to obey what teachers want or plan. The hegemony of teachers does not leave any space for learners to have a voice in learning in other words to have autonomy. Wall metaphor exhibits a diverse image of learner with the entailment of being closed. Learners are conceptualized as a closed entity without giving any way out and into.

Tourist without a map image attains learners a negative position regarding them lacking of capacity to find their own way. The entailment of the metaphor regards the new language learnt as a new and strange place visited. It is not possible for learners to find their own way to get to know the place because they

do not have any guidance. Penguin illustrates how lonely learners are in a cold environment. Puppet implies hypocrisy with the entailment "they pretend to listen, but only some of them listen". The cricket metaphor reminds us the story of cricket and ant resembling learners' lack of motivation for studying to the mood of cricket singing all summer instead of collecting food for winter as ant does. The image of learner as food difficult to make entails a reason that learners are not motivated enough to learn a foreign language because they do not believe in the necessity of it for them. The image reflecting learner as the participant in his school life has a negative sense with the entailment "young, inexperienced, and not aware." The metaphors in this category visualise learners in a negative way so the active agent does not represent learners or teachers in the same way as in the other categories in terms of investigating LA. Thus, active agent was not searched in this category.

4 Discussion

This study aims to metaphorically determine the cognition of Turkish instructors. Some major understandings emerged how teachers perceive learners in terms of LA out of the study. According to the results, the participants have produced 50 metaphors for learners. Most of the metaphors have been identified to be positive. The metaphors were grouped into eight categories. This variety of metaphors reflects the broad range of perception of language teachers have for learners.

The distribution of metaphors among categories is uneven. Moreover, when the participant number and the number of metaphor kind compared, the higher number of the participants and the less number of the metaphor kinds indicate the invention of some common metaphors by different participants. Categorizing metaphors under eight categories indicates the teachers are under the influence of the same socio-cultural reality (Kalra & Baveja, 2012). This is similar to what Celikten (2005) explains as the unique culture each institution has. Otherwise, more different metaphors and more categories must have appeared. Consequently, it can be inferred that the professional culture at a university setting shape how teachers regard learners.

Although some metaphors were context specific reflecting Turkish culture, such as bell glass, camera, pot on the fire, snowball, some others displayed similarities with the literature on metaphors and teachers' and learners' roles. Most of the metaphors produced reflected conventional metaphorical conceptualizations in education such as, learner as a container, teacher as a gardener, and teaching as transmission of knowledge (Martínez, Sauleda, & Huber, 2001; De Gurrero & Villamir, 2002). Learner as a developing organism mostly gives teachers the role of feeding (Yeşilbursa, 2012) while learners have a passive role waiting to be fed or looked after. Similar to this category, categories of learner as a tabula rasa (Martínez et al., 2001), learner as a container and learner as a reflector put learners in a passive mood and give the

active role to teachers. This can be combined to the authority role attached to teachers in literature (Yeşilbursa, 2012). In that sense teachers have more autonomy in teaching learning process than learners. In some metaphors both teachers and learners are active such as receiver. Music is an area in the conceptualization of learners and teachers similar to movie and theatre (De Gurrero & Villamir, 2002). One of the vivid metaphors is sponge with a frequent use in literature (Bozlk, 2002). Although a structural reform initiated in Turkish educational system in 2004 (Aksit, 2007), the effect of conventional education system promoting passive learning is still apparent. Accordingly, university students display a tendency towards being passive in learning waiting somebody to present the knowledge to be absorbed for them (Martinez et al., 2001).

Diverse metaphors have appeared in some studies (Yeşilbursa, 2012; Buchanan, 2015). In Yeşilbursa (2012) the frustration category which illustrates teachers' role in terms of the metaphors hamster and ant as working hard while learners do not have any motivation which may be the result of learners' lack of autonomy. Buchanan (2015) comments on the creators of the diverse metaphors and regards them arguably as possessing more advanced thinking and understanding than their counterparts since they face the realities of their institution.

In the investigation of the active agents within the categories displayed some differences. The investigation of the categories revealed that out of eight categories only in one category which presents learner as "constructor of knowledge" carries the notion of LA in terms of learner's attempts, responsibility and using his/her capacity in learning by reflecting learner as the active agent for all of the images. Another category presents learners as an "observant" and mostly regards learners not teachers as the active agent. However, related to the nature of being observant, learners get into a less active mood in a state of observing not into an active mood of constructing as appeared in "constructor of knowledge" category.

As an overall consideration of active agent the images created in the two of the categories considering learners as "tabula rasa" and "a container", the absolute active agent of teaching and learning process is the teacher. In the other two categories which regard learners as "a recipient" and "a knowledge reflector", both teachers and learners interpret a role while teachers are more predominant. In the categories considering learner as "a developing organism" and a "tabula rasa", the prevailing image is a learner's having the capacity to learn, but viewing teacher as the agent, who develops this organism or who adds colours to tabula rasa, the autonomy is granted to teachers. Similarly, in learner as "a container" category, learners are passive waiting to be taught without any involvement in the teaching process lacking autonomy.

The last two categories display a similarity assigning both teachers and learners a role in teaching learning process. For the categories learner as a "recipient" and learner as a "reflector", learners seem to be active agents in terms of

receiving and reflecting, however teachers are also active while providing the knowledge for them to receive and reflect.
This choice of the participants may appear as a result of their own professional education they modelled in their own practice. However, the cognition of learner as a less active agent than teachers might not appear as much of a surprise when considered the granted power and authority of teachers in traditional education system operating since the establishment of Turkish republic even some revisions were applied to upgrade educational system (Aksit, 2007).

Conclusions

This paper is the initial part of an on-going doctoral study with mixed methods approach on the investigation of the cognition of Turkish instructors of English on LA. It attempts to investigate the conceptual metaphors of instructors of English in regard to their perception of learner in terms of autonomy. Metaphors produced by the participants showed that instructors see both themselves and learners as active agents in teaching and learning process.
This study provided some main outcomes: (i) during metaphor elicitation interview instructors gain self-awareness about how they think about learners, (ii) Turkish instructors of English do not always consider learners' autonomy in their teaching contexts and assign themselves the main roles in teaching and learning process, (iii) Instructors in Turkish context should assign more responsibility to learners for their own learning decisions to help learners develop autonomy, (iv) the findings revealed that school administrations should review their lesson content to leave more space for learners, (v) education programmes for pre-service English teachers should be reviewed to consider the ways to provide more opportunity for learners to be autonomous. Future research should include more participants who are more representative of the Turkish instructors at different university contexts. The following studies may also search for the correlation between what they say about LA and what they do to promote LA in the class.

Acknowledgement
We would like to express our thanks to Turkish instructors at Erciyes University, who provided full support to this study despite of their busy schedules.

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Acta Educationis Generalis
Volume 11, 2021, Issue 1

DOI: 10.2478/atd-2021-0005

Appearance and Development of Short-Term Higher Education Vocational Training in Hungary

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Received: September 28, 2019; received in revised form: May 1, 2020;
accepted: May 4, 2020

Abstract:
Introduction: This article examines the first level of the European higher education system, namely the short-cycle higher education trainings related to the ISCED 5 whose Hungarian characteristics, and its historical changes were described.
Methods: We examined participation rates among OECD countries. As there are large differences in the short-cycle higher education trainings in Europe, we have relied on data that makes the different systems comparable.
Results and discussion: The interpretation, definition and practical orientation of the trainings varies from country to country, we presented the Hungarian form in connection with the results of international comparative studies and data. To understand the role of trainings, it is essential to get to know their history, especially because short-term higher educational trainings were transformed in several European countries.
Conclusions: Prioritising or effacing the social-political role of short-cycle higher education trainings depending on the political orientation of the government and as a part of this, prioritising the disadvantaged regions instead of the disadvantaged students.

Key words: short-cycle higher education, vocational education and training, tertiary education, ISCED 5.

Introduction

The growth in the number of students in higher education meant a challenge for higher education politics over Europe. After the Second World War, there was an increased demand for education. It has a key role in national development (Coombs, 1971). First, it was the elementary education which was the centre of

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interest and then the whole public education was affected. By the third of the 20th century, higher education had been reached and this tendency seems to continue even in the beginning of the 21st century (Kozma, 2004). As for the gratification of the increased need, there were typically two types of answer: establishing short-term higher education trainings and regionalism. The costs of short-term higher education trainings were cheaper than the former ones of the universities and colleges and students could obtain their degrees in a significantly shorter time period. In the institutions having short-term trainings, the necessity of the extension could be detected since the 1970s. Kavak (1998) summarized the reasons for this extension: On the one hand, short-term training is the answer for the increased social need and tension. On the other hand, it is a device for assuring equal opportunity (by the evolution of the network, and this connects with regionalism and with regional development, as well). Last but not least, the establishment of adult education and innovation serve several communities (Kavak, 1998). In the study of Kavak, short-term training and regionalism move together. The spread of short-term trainings supplies regionalism by the fact that institutions form a network and higher education can be reached by those who did not have the possibility earlier. However, regionalism is not only involved in short-term trainings but it also means widening the missions of modern universities. The spread of regionalism in higher education is the consequence of the intensification of its role in the third mission of the higher education institutions by which the institutions obtained a highlighted role in closing up socially and economically. In connection with regionalism, economically underdeveloped regions were paying attention to, as well as disadvantaged, atypical students. In the case of these students, the possibility of their admittance to degrees and higher qualifications was supported by the appearance of short-term and part-time trainings. The phenomenon of regional university or college cannot separate from the history of the European education. Regional university is a specialty of the political systems of continental higher education so the dynamics of the institution come from it, as well. From the middle of the 19th century, several vocational training institutions gradually latched on to higher education (e.g. technical colleges in Germany). So higher education has become dual by the closing up of vocational trainings. From the end of the 1960s, European universities reached the maximum of their capacity, due to the increase of the number of students, so they could not receive further masses. Dual trainings were strengthened by the education politics - which process was led by conservative governments -, and they were introduced in countries where there hadn't been these type of trainings (e.g. the United Kingdom). Welfare (socialist, social-democratic and leftist) governments tried making reforms of higher education. This resulted in e.g. the comprehensive college created based on the model of the American community college and later, the extension of the institution network of these colleges (Kozma, 2004). In the literature of education research, the attribute

"comprehensive" is used for those elementary and secondary schools where both excellence and fairness are present and where the institutions try balancing the diverseness of the social and the economic backgrounds of the students (Schleicher, 2014, p.61). As for us, we used this attribute for colleges created based on the model or the impact of the American community college because their goals are similar to the comprehensive secondary schools. Regional universities are connected tightly with their immediate social environment, and according to the regional studies of the 1960s (mostly in German and French speech areas), they functioned excellently: the supply of higher education trainings was built based on the possibilities of the region and by this, economic and social development could be seen there (Teichler, 2015). Also, a social-political principle was connected to the comprehensive colleges namely that in underdeveloped regions, the same possibilities should be provided for higher education than in developed regions. However, by 1980 it had turned out that these institutions can remain only in countries where they are integrated perfectly into the higher education system (Kozma, 2004). The ideal of regionalism and comprehensive college is determined in politics, even nowadays since economic functionalities remained unfilled after eliminating community colleges in underdeveloped regions. In Hungary, Community Higher Education Centre might be the latest form of this intention (hereinafter: CHEC).

1 Research

1.1 Problem of research

Due to Slantcheva-Durst (2014), Tamášová (2015) in order to understand the role of trainings, it is essential to get to know their history, especially because short-term higher educational trainings were transformed in several European countries, e.g. Belgium, Denmark, Spain, the Netherlands, Portugal (Kirsch & Beernaert, 2011).

The evolution and development of the training were examined in international levels (Brine, 2008; Furth, 1973; OECD, 1973; Schneider, 2008; Teichler, 1998), and besides them, several comparative works dealt with the characteristics of European countries (Kirsch et al., 2003; Dobbins & Knill, 2009). In the last 20 years, several studies were led in this topic in Hungary, as well. We noticed that the researches between 2002-2012 were performed on the one hand about the composition, socio-cultural backgrounds, scholastic results and the motivation of the students (Hrubos, 2002; Karsai, 2011; Kassó & Farkas, 2012; Pusztai et al., 2003; Szemerszki, 2012) and on the other hand, certain researchers - using similar questions - studied the acceptance of the labour-market, value and future prospects, too (DUF, 2009; Fehérvári & Kocsis, 2009; Pénzes et al., 2011; Szemerszki, 2006). Moreover, there were comparative examinations, studying international aspects, as well as those reflecting to the

Hungarian situation (Gibson & Dobay, 1997; Farkas É., 2009; Farkas P., 2009; Kazarján, 2013; Sediviné et al., 2003) in the last few years.

1.2 Research focus

The laws of Hungarian higher education have used the notion of short-term higher education training since 1995 which was called higher vocational training then higher education vocational training (since 2011). These forms of education were only partly integrated into the world of higher education. By Act CCIV of 2011 On National Higher Education, 15.§ (2), the higher education vocational training: "A higher education degree may be obtained in higher education vocational training, which is certified by a diploma. The diploma awarded for completing higher education vocational training shall not be considered an independent degree. A minimum 120 credits need to be completed in higher education vocational training. Program and outcome requirements include crediting credits completed in higher education vocational training for the Bachelor course offered in the same field of education. A minimum 30 and maximum 90 credits may be credited. The minimum duration of education is 4 semesters." (Act CCIV of 2011 on National Higher Education, 15§). In the latest translative, the number of credits countable in can be followed better and so the criterion that credits can be counted only in the same Bachelor course.

From the 1990s, the development (or rather the historical transformation) of the Hungarian short-cycle higher education training has four periods:

- The first one started at the act of 1996, after the regime change and lasted till the half of the first decade. It is the period of a considerably slow evaluation when education politics tried to encourage the reluctant institutions - based on the increased demand of individuals in higher education and the assumed demand of the labor market - to start and develop short-cycle higher education trainings (hereinafter: SCHE).
- The time between 2005 and 2011 is the period of an intensive development of the Hungarian SCHE training when education politics clearly made the training be a part of the vocational training but kept the imputability into higher education, as well. The access to the improvement sources of the vocational training made also the institutions of higher education be interested in extending SCHE trainings. The education political motivation of the training continued to gratify the demand of individuals for higher education and the demand of labor market.
- After 2011, the function of the vocational training of the Hungarian short-cycle higher education training finished and become a preparatory section of the Bachelor training. Both institutions and students having aimed at higher education lost their interest in the training.
- In 2015, education politics - by establishing the CHEC institution construction - turned the SCHE training towards gratifying the regional demands which resulted in the increase of the interest towards it again.

It is worth mentioning that Hungarian education politics didn't really utilize short-cycle higher education trainings properly, regarding their roles in social mobility and equal opportunity. Yet, due to several researches, Hungarian SCHE is a popular form of higher education among disadvantaged students (e.g. Polónyi, 2004) and the ceasing of the vocational training characteristic of the Hungarian SCHE (2011) involved a decreased rate of disadvantaged students.

2 Methodology of research

2.1 General background for research

Our research is based on OECD statistics. We examined participation rates among OECD countries. As there are large differences in the SCHE trainings in Europe, we have relied on data that makes the different systems comparable.
For the sake of international comparison, in order to know the characteristics of the countries, we can study the trainings regarding the European Qualification Framework (EQF). The framework compares distinct qualifications, competencies obtained in several educational and training systems of the EU countries. It helps us to understand better the education in higher education institutes and in similar institutes, as well as in vocational trainings (European Parliament and European Council, 2008).

2.2 Data analysis

Short-cycle higher education training has distinct participation rates among OECD countries. The participation rates of the training - compared to those in the tertiary trainings - are about 10% in the OECD countries. In the case of Hungary, it was almost a uniform increase in the proportion of participants in the training in the beginning of the 2000s. Compared to the post-socialist countries, it can be said that since 2000, the participation rate of the Polish SCHE has given 1% of that of tertiary education. The proportion of participants of the Czech Republic is quite similar to that of Hungary, but on the whole, in post-socialist countries, the proportion of the SCHE lags behind compared to the OECD average. In the United Kingdom, there is an exceedingly high participation rate of short-cycle higher education trainings, but Spain and Turkey produce a rate above the OECD, as well.

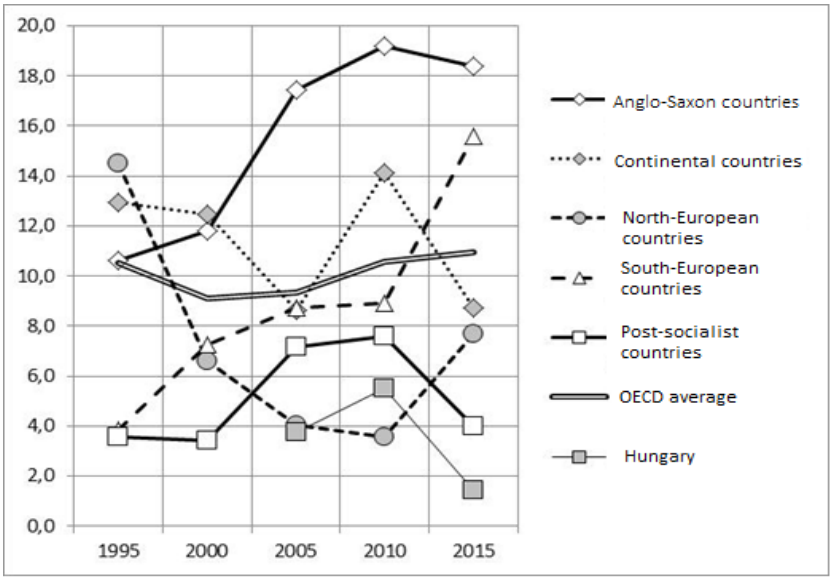


Figure 1. Participation rate in SCHE trainings (Trends in tertiary graduation rates - Tertiary-type B).[1]
Source: Education at a Glance 2012 Table A3.2. Trends in tertiary graduation rates (1995-2010) and Education at a Glance 2017 Table A3.3

Short-cycle higher education trainings partly wanted to gratify the increasing demand of students entering into higher education in every country. In 1995, SCHE trainings already functioned in Turkey and Poland and also in some member countries of the OECD. Short-cycle higher education trainings seemed to strengthen actually in the 2000s, in contrary to the fact that the participation rate of the students in OECD SCHE trainings decreased (but then remained) to 11%.

[1] Remark: the averages of the groups of countries are the averages of the numbers of the given countries:
Post-socialist countries: Czech Republic, Hungary, Latvia, Poland, Slovak Republic, Slovenia
Continental countries: Austria, Germany, Luxembourg, Switzerland
North-European countries: Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, Sweden
South-European countries: Greece, Italy, Portugal, Spain, Turkey
Anglo-Saxon countries: Australia, Canada, Ireland, New Zealand, the United Kingdom, the United States.

Table 1

Participation rate in SCHE trainings.[2]

	1995	*2000*	*2005*	*2010*	*2015*
Average of Anglo-Saxon countries:	10.6	11.8	17.4	19.2	18.4
Average of continental countries:	12.9	12.5	8.7	14.1	8.7
Average of North-European countries:	14.5	6.6	4.0	3.5	7.7
Average of South-European countries:	3.9	7.3	8.7	8.9	15.6
Average of post-socialistic countries:	3.5	3.4	7.1	7.6	4.0
OECD average	10.5	9.1	9.3	10.6	11.0
Hungary			3.8	5.5	1.4

Source: Education at a Glance 2012 Table A3.2. Trends in tertiary graduation rates (1995-2010) and Education at a Glance 2017

As for short-term higher education trainings, based on a research of CEDEFOP (2014), it could be assumed that the rate of students is far higher in the countries where there is the highest number of students and there are great traditions regarding the training. In French and Ireland, one fifth of students of higher education studies in the training. As for the rate of sexes, among the 28 member states of the EU, female students (53.4%) are the majority in the short-term higher education training (this rate is similar to that in Hungary).

In Europe, there are great differences regarding the trainings. For the comparability and the understanding of the Hungarian system, we base on the research of the CEDEFOP (2014) in which several types of countries are examined.

After introducing and interpreting the notions of short-term higher education trainings and Hungarian higher education vocational training, it is worth studying them regarding international aspects, basically in connection with the European countries. We try to know and classify the ISCED 5 trainings of the European countries along the similarities and the differences.

[2] Remark: the averages of the groups of countries are the averages of the numbers of the given countries:
Post-socialist countries: Czech Republic, Hungary, Latvia, Poland, Slovak Republic, Slovenia
Continental countries: Austria, Germany, Luxembourg, Switzerland
North-European countries: Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, Sweden
South-European countries: Greece, Italy, Portugal, Spain, Turkey
Anglo-Saxon countries: Australia, Canada, Ireland, New Zealand, the United Kingdom, the United States.

3 Results of research

Higher educational vocational politics has become more and more important. It has an important role in social and economic development to which it contributes by four important missions: the role of human capital whose establishment it supports, the construction of knowledge bases through research. Moreover, the spreading and using of knowledge, the delivery of knowledge from a generation to another and maintaining knowledge are also the missions of the higher education (Santiago, 2008).

Furth (1973) emphasized first that the development of short-cycle higher education institutions (SCI) need to have a future. Based on this - by the system of institutions of the 70s - he created three models: multipurpose model, specialized model and binary model.

The "prototype" of the multipurpose model was the American Community College. In addition, Japanese and Canadian colleges can also be mentioned here. Furth noticed three essential characteristics related to this (1973). Firstly, these institutions have various curricula which emphasize not only the technical bases but also the university studies. Secondly, these institutions were connected to the universities with regard to administrative and interinstitutional mobility aspects. Thirdly, they formed a decentralized system, strong institutional autonomy characterised them, besides that they gratified local and regional needs.

Parallel with this, in the 1960s - mainly in the continental Europe - it could be observed that a special model evolved which has none or little connection with the university sector, it rather focused on the technical graduation for those students who couldn't get into higher education so they were confined to various areas of engineering, teacher training, social work. It was typically Belgium, French, Germany, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain and also Turkey who started to establish institutions based on this special model.

In his research, Furth (1973) separated a binary model, as well, which was characterized by a diversity regarding its training system. This could be seen in the United Kingdom. There was a concrete detachment from the university sector, the institutions were widely diverse. In the studies, various types and levels of trainings, forms of work and divisions were available. The technical trainings strengthened here, as well.

Certainly, these three models don't contain the details of their place in the educational structure of the country and the institutional characteristics but it is clear that the institution types existing, renewing and being established are based on these "historical models" (Furth, 1973).

We can study the trainings regarding the European Qualification Framework (EQF). Short-term higher education trainings are classified to the 5th level of the EQF. It is an increasing purpose - both in Hungarian and in European education system - that the training shall be syncretized with higher education studies so more and more steps are taken in order to make the trainings be consistent with

each other and to create permeability between them (Benkei-Kovács et al., 2015; Europe 2020 Strategy). In Europe, there are great differences regarding the trainings. For the sake of comparability and of understanding the Hungarian system, we are based on a study of the CEDEFOP (2014) whose national qualification level had been connected to the EQF till June 2012. The research examined and tried comparing several types of the countries.
Based on this, by their history, trainings having great traditions (France, England, Ireland, Austria) and trainings recently established (Czech Republic, the Netherlands, Portugal) is differentiated in the first classification (Table 2). As for the second one, by their permeability, there are automatic permeability, permeability depending on scholastic record and permeability without counting in credits. Switching between trainings is the easiest in the cases of French, Slovenia and the United Kingdom, in Belgium or Germany permeability is connected to the scholastic record, whereas in Poland, the previous studies aren't counted in when entering the Bachelor training.

Table 2

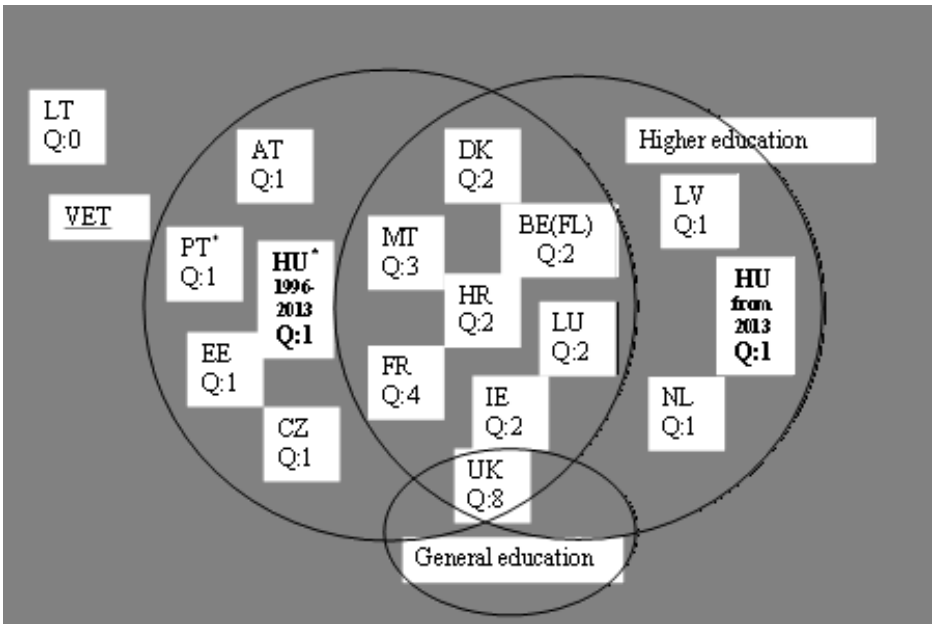
Systematization aspects of country typologies in higher vocational training

By the history of the training type	*By the permeability of the trainings*	*By the significance of the training level*	*By the connection with the education sub-sector*
Having great traditions French, England, Ireland, Austria	Automatic permeability French, Slovenia, the United Kingdom	Highlighted significance Austria, French	Mostly to vocational training Austria
Recently established Czech Republic, the Netherlands, Portugal	Depending on the scholastic record Belgium, Germany	Average significance Denmark, Luxembourg, Ireland	Mostly to higher education the Netherlands, Latvia
	Permeability without counting in credits Poland	Slight significance Belgium, Estonia, Latvia	Part of general public education the United Kingdom
		Not really significant Czech Republic, Croatia, the Netherlands, Portugal	

Source: private composition based on the CEDEFOP, 2014; Benkei-Kovacs et al., 2015.

In the third classification, by the significance of the training levels, European countries are labelled as of highlighted the significance (Austria, France), of average significance (Denmark, Luxembourg, Ireland), of slight significance (Belgium, Estonia, Latvia) and not really significant ones (Czech Republic, Croatia, the Netherlands, Portugal). The base of making classes is the participation rate of the training.

The fourth classification has classes based on the connection with the education sector. Trainings connected mostly to vocational training, mostly to higher education or mostly to the general public education can be seen. Figure 2 illustrates properly the labelling of examined countries, and by them, it can be seen clearly that in the case of most countries, higher educational vocational training has complicated connections with several levels (Benkei-Kovács et al., 2015; CEDEFOP, 2014).
In the research of the CEDEFOP (2014), based on the relation to the education sub-sector, the examined 15 countries were classified in the following way:



Q: number of qualifications types
PT (and HU between 1995-2013) - the qualification is governed by the system, but programmes are provided by higher and non-higher education institutions

Figure 2. Connection with SCHE education sub-sector in several countries (CEDEFOP, 2014).

Q denoted the number of qualification types. In Figure 2, it can be seen clearly that by the connection with education sub-sector, Austria, the Czech Republic, Estonia and Portugal are grouped rather into the vocational training. As for Portugal, the qualification is controlled by the vocational training system but the training itself is provided by non-higher education institutions. The training of the Netherlands and Latvia has been close to the higher education form, yet in the United Kingdom, there are trainings mostly like those of the general public education. In French, Belgium, Ireland, Denmark, Luxembourg, Croatia and

Malta, several education types can be noticed so their trainings are connected to all three education sub-sectors. In the case of Hungary, the training type was illustrated in Figure 2 according to the developmental periods of the SCHE training. It can be seen that between 1998-2013, it was mostly the vocational training to which the training was related to. The location and the trainers were basically related to it, as well. Then, in 2013, after a change of the law, the content and the name, the training was directed into the higher education. The trainers were exclusively teachers working in higher education, and the connection with the secondary education totally ceased.

During the study, there were serious differences regarding the denominations of qualifications, as well. On the one hand, there is higher education certificate, professional diploma, technological specialisation diploma, university diploma, undergraduate certificate and several variations of these. Moreover, by the study we can see that some trainings led to academic qualification, yet others led to a professional one (European Commission, 2015).

Conclusion

In the study, we dealt with the first level of the European higher education system, namely the short-cycle higher education trainings related to the ISCED 5 whose Hungarian characteristics, historical changes were described. The interpretation, definition and practical orientation of the trainings varies from country to country, we presented the Hungarian form in connection with the results of international comparative studies and data. Compared to the Western-European countries, the training can be considered new since it started in 1998 and it took its final place in 2006 after introducing Bologna Process in Hungary (Veres, 2006). Then in 2013 it was attached entirely to the higher education (it was part of the secondary and higher education at the same time). The latest reforms have not only been related to changes in denominations, but there were changes in the content of the training, in the group of teachers, in the practical material and in the degree of qualification, due to Hungarian education politics and economic intentions. However, parallel with the training being stabilized, the application rate and the number of training areas decreased significantly. In about 50% of the training areas, the number of applicants and accepted students lessened by 60% compared to the highest application rates of the history of the training.

The reasons for transforming Hungarian SCHE trainings were:

- the lobbies of the vocational training and higher education, the fight between the stakeholders of vocational training politics and higher education politics - behind which there is a fight for sources (sources of the stock of the vocational training),
- prioritising or effacing the social-political (social mobility) role of short-term higher education depending on the political orientation of the government and as a part of this, prioritising the disadvantaged regions (or rather, higher

education institutions supporting the closing up of the regions e.g. CHEC) instead of the disadvantaged students.

After the ripening of the reforms, these numbers are likely to start to increase. The latest engineering training areas are pointing forward at any rate, moreover, higher education trainings are starting in several areas (economics, IT, engineering) in the Community Higher Education Centre, as well, which is expectedly opening the door to students of disadvantaged regions to have ISCED 5 qualification.

In the future, our research is directed towards CHEC. We are examining whether it fulfills its social and economic hopes.

Acknowledgement

We would like to say many thanks to István Polónyi for his cooperative support and his readership.

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Acta Educationis Generalis
Volume 11, 2021, Issue 1

DOI: 10.2478/atd-2021-0006

Primary School Students' Performance Orientation - The Czech Republic Research

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Received: November 12, 2020; received in revised form: February 17, 2021;
accepted: February 18, 2021

Abstract:
Introduction: The current school is strongly focused on student performance. Each student faces a large number of learning tasks, which place considerable demands on them, arouse in them a different degree of interest, evoke a different degree of commitment to work, are associated with different expectations or have a different degree of attractiveness. Performance situations are associated with pleasant experiences but also with experiences of failure, which in their essence affect the activity or passivity of the student, and thereby affect the prioritization of the necessity to excel or the need to avoid failure. These needs are the basis of performance orientation, which is analysed in the paper. The aim is to verify whether the motivational orientation of students is related to their beneficial outcomes.
Methods: The quantitative nature of the paper made it possible to use both indicators of descriptive statistics (mean, median, mode, standard deviation) and inductive statistics (Mann-Whitney U test, Pearson's Chi-square test, Shapiro-Wilk normality test). The surveyed sample of 363 respondents consisted of an available selection of students from 14 primary schools in five regions of the Czech Republic in 2019. The data were collected physically at schools using a standardized questionnaire. Students were acquainted with its purpose and content. Statistical analysis of the data was carried out electronically, both in terms of methodology in accordance with the research design of Hrabal and Pavelková (2011).
Results: The analysis of the data of the sample of respondents revealed that the performance orientation of problem students differs statistically significantly from that of the performance motivation of non-problem students in two cases: 1) the need for successful performance, where differences were verified using hypothesis H1 and 2) in the ratio of performance needs, where the differences were verified using hypothesis

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H4. In other cases, no statistically significant difference was found between the two groups.
Discussion: The presented findings correspond to current domestic (Krykorková & Váňová, 2010) and foreign research (Weiner, 2000). They draw attention to the importance of a positive motivation of the student in terms of his degree of involvement in the development of his own dispositions, which affects the benefit of the student. Positively motivated students achieve better results with a comparable intellect than non-motivated students (Man & Mareš, 2005). The role of the teacher and his knowledge of motivational types of students is of paramount importance in this respect.
Limitations: The sample under examination of respondents does not bring a representative sample in terms of the representation of students according to school years, regions of the Czech Republic or according to the representation of so-called problem or non-problem students. The outcomes of the survey can thus be applied only to a given sample of respondents.
Conclusion: The benefitting for students in the sample showed lower positive motivation than their intellectually comparable non-problem classmates. It is a question of reserves, the use of which is a challenge not only for themselves, but also for the school and parents. The largest differences between the two groups were recorded in the specific ratio of positive and negative motivation 4: 2 within the T1 type and in the ratio 1: 3 within the T6 type. The attempt to determine the causes of this fact, especially proposing a remedy, is a topic for further research in this area.

Key words: performance orientation, the need for successful performance, positive tendencies, the need to avoid failure, negative tendencies, problem and non-problem students in terms of results.

Introduction

The development of a healthy self-esteem for each individual is related to performance motivation, which determines his aspiration level. Self-confidence and self-esteem are conditioned by personality characteristics, but they are also related to performance behaviour, which is generally reflected in the preference for goals and in the personal attitude to success and failure. Knowledge of performance needs is of paramount importance in the school environment, and teachers should be able to diagnose and measure the apparent performance needs of their students. Students' performance motivation is usually divided according to the inclination into one of two polarities: the positive include students who need to be successful and the negative those who need to avoid failure (Hrabal & Pavelková, 2010). Such positively or negatively oriented students show different behaviour in school situations and show different effectiveness in learning. They then place completely different demands on teachers, as these students react

differently and show a different level of aspiration. The task of the teacher is to create such conditions that strengthen the positive tendency of the students and minimize the negative tendency. However, teachers tend to have difficulty recognizing performance motivation and often attribute to students either increased intensity with both the tendencies, and none at all (Pavelková, 2009). Both motivational tendencies form the basis of the student's performance orientation, which depends on the predominance of one or the other tendency. The degree of attractiveness of performance activity for the student and the subjective probability of the expected result play a decisive role (Atkinson & Raynor, 1974). In accordance with the approach of Covington and Müeller (2001), the paper examines the performance orientation of a selected sample of students and their classification into motivational types according to the ratio of motivational tendencies. At the same time, it monitors differences in performance orientation according to achievement as an indicator of students' school success.

1 Research methods and sampling

The aim of the research was to analyse the performance orientation of lower secondary school students in the Czech Republic and to verify whether there are differences between them in connection with the required school level. These were students of ordinary primary schools with a comparable intellect, where no students with mild mental disabilities were apparent. The students were divided into two groups. The first group included those marked as problem students by teachers (P); the second group included those marked as non-problem students by teachers (N). The boundary between grouping was given by a classification rating better than "good" (inclusive) and a rating worse than "sufficient" (inclusive) in at least two educational areas. The research sample consisted of a total of 363 lower secondary school students from five regions of the Czech Republic. Of this, group P was represented by 248 students, i.e. 68%, group N by 115 students, i.e. 32%.

The motivational focus was determined and subsequently evaluated on the basis of data obtained in the school year 2019/2020 using the standardized School Performance Motivation of Students questionnaire (Hrabal & Pavelková, 2011), which contained 12 items. The structure of the answers to each of them was given by a five-point scale with a score of 1-5. The sum of points for items 1-6 expressed the level of the student's need for successful performance (NSP), the sum of points for items 7-12 expressed the level of the student's need to avoid failure (NAF). Each student could obtain a minimum of 6 and a maximum of 30 points in each section, which were then transferred to five zones - see Tables 1 and 2 (Hrabal & Pavelková, 2011).

Table 1

The NSP conversion standard

Sum of points	*NSP bands*
28 to 30 points	5 Very high need
25 to 27 points	4 High need
21 to 24 points	3 Average need
18 to 20 points	2 Low need
Up to17 points	1 Very low need

Table 2

The NAF conversion standard

Sum of points	*NAF bands*
25 to 30 points	5 Very high concern
25 to 27 points	4 High concern
21 to 24 points	3 Average concern
18 to 20 points	2 Low concern
Up to 17 points	1 Very low concern

Based on the ratio of NSP: NAF bands, students were assigned to individual motivational types T1-T6, see Table 3. Their knowledge by the teacher is a prerequisite for optimizing the pedagogical effect on various motivationally selected students.

Table 3

Types of students according to the ratio of the need for successful performance (NSP) and the need to avoid failure (NAF)

Type 1		*Type 2*		*Type 3*		*Type 4*		*Type 5*		*Type 6*	
NSP:NAF		*NSP:NAF*		*NSP:NAF*		*NSP:NAF*		*NSP:NAF*		*NSP:NAF*	
5	1	1	5	5	5	1	1	3	3	3	5
5	2	1	4	5	4	1	2	3	4	5	3
4	1	2	5	4	5	2	1	4	3	1	3
4	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	3	2	3	1
								2	3		

The basic characteristics of individual motivational types of students from Table 3 are as follows:
T1: High NSP and at the same time low NAF

These are students who are not hindered in their actions by the fear that they will fail. They see more difficult tasks as a challenge, as opposed to easy tasks, and accomplishing them gives them a strong sense of satisfaction. They are characterized by commitment and an adequate aspiration level, they trust each other. They like to compete and strive for success and recognition. They usually know how to learn from their mistakes. They happily analyse their successes and failures (Helus, 2015).

T2: Low NSP and at the same time high NAF

These are students who are motivated by fear and apprehension that they will not be able to do something, they will fail; they will make mistakes. They tend to avoid performance situations, do not trust each other and do not like competitions. Their aspirations are not adequate. They can also be excellent students with enormous ability but with a maximalist approach, which underlies the unpleasant experiences associated with performing tasks. For this reason, too, they tend to escape situations with a risk of failure (Göksoy, 2017). Unfortunately, they attribute this to the causes of their successes and failures.

T3: High NSP and at the same time high NAF

These are students who, on the one hand, want to "shine" and, on the other hand, suffer from the knowledge that they can completely "fail". Their great commitment is also associated with great anxiety and depends on their other personality characteristics (Heckhausen & Heckhausen, 2010) and the given task situation at hand, whether they will fulfil it anxiously or whether they will escape from it. They are quite unpredictable for teachers. They exhibit both inadequately high and inadequately low aspirations.

T4: Low NSP and at the same time low NAF

These are students who lack the absence of school performance motivation, who usually possess the ability potential, but school task situations usually do not appeal to them. They represent the most difficult group of students to motivate for teachers. It is necessary to find out whether the student shows a normal performance tendency at least outside the school, or whether he is so to speak non-performance oriented. It is impossible to do this without cooperation from the family, which may emphasize non-performance behaviour, as is the case with Roma students (Roth, Pop, & Raiu, 2013).

T5: Bilaterally ambivalent, i.e. both from the point of view of NSP and NAF.

These are students stemming from the non-winning type, whose ratios of performance needs (NSP: NAF) are around the average (3-3), or with whom weaker tendencies may appear than for the types of more distinct and stronger types, but in the same ratio (3-4, 4-3, 3-2, 2-3). For these students, performance motivation is usually not the most important source of school performance. As with type 4, the family's cooperation with the school is required.

T6: Unilaterally ambivalent, i.e. either from the point of view of NSP or NAF.

These are students who could not be included in any of the previous types. Their ratios of performance needs (NSP: NAF) always show an average (3) in one

value and a low (1) or high (5) need in the other value. In terms of capturing these students, the same applies as for the previous type.
The data obtained from the research survey was structured and analysed using indicators of descriptive and inductive statistics. Four basic hypotheses were tested, each with its own zero variant H0, based on the agreement of the medians of both groups of students:

H1: Non-problem students have a higher NSP than problem students,
H2: Non-problem students have less NAF than problem students,
H3: Motivational type is statistically significantly different for problem and non-problem students,
H4: Problem students differ statistically significantly from non-problem students in terms of the ratio of performance needs NSP:NAF.

2 Findings

Descriptive statistics indicators revealed that students in both groups differed more in terms of the need for successful performance - see Table 4 than in terms of the need to avoid failure - see Table 5.

Table 4

Basic descriptive characteristics of respondents in terms of NSP

		NSP					
Indicator	*Group of students*	*Question 1*	*Question 2*	*Question 3*	*Question 4*	*Question 5*	*Question 6*
Mean	Non-problem	4.05	3.61	3.47	3.50	3.86	4.23
	Problem	3.69	3.13	3.25	3.23	3.43	3.83
Median	Non-problem	4.00	4.00	3.00	3.00	4.00	4.00
	Problem	4.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	4.00
Mode	Non-problem	4.00	4.00	3.00	3.00	5.00	5.00
	Problem	5.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	4.00	5.00
Standard deviation	Non-problem	0.86	0.83	0.95	1.10	0.96	0.84
	Problem	1.12	0.99	1.17	1.35	1.08	1.03

Table 4 indicates that the need for successful performance is always lower on average than for non-problem students. Also, the standard deviation here reached higher values in all cases for problem students and thus indicates that the students in this group show greater differences than in the group of non-problem students. From the above it can be deduced that problem students in the sample are a more motivating group for teachers than their non-problem classmates. The median and mode differ only slightly between the two groups.

Table 5

Basic descriptive characteristics of respondents in terms of NAF

		NAF					
Indicator	*Group of students*	*Question 7*	*Question 8*	*Question 9*	*Question 10*	*Question 11*	*Question 12*
Mean	Non-problem	3.24	2.04	2.45	2.98	2.93	2.96
	Problem	3.19	2.12	2.64	2.95	3.16	2.85
Median	Non-problem	3.00	2.00	2.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
	Problem	3.00	2.00	2.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
Mode	Non-problem	3.00	1.00	2.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
	Problem	3.00	1.00	2.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
Standard deviation	Non-problem	1.25	1.02	1.06	1.26	1.17	1.13
	Problem	1.27	1.12	1.15	1.27	1.22	1.10

The indicators shown in Table 5 no longer demonstrate such convincing differences between the two groups of students. In the presented research survey, non-problem students acknowledged the effort to avoid school failure on average, in a similar fashion to their problem peers: in three of the six questions asked, they reached higher average values (questions 7, 10, 12), in the remaining three questions (questions 8, 9, 11), on the other hand, recorded lower average values than problem students. Standard deviation, with the exception of Question No. 12, pointed out, as in the previous case, to greater mutual differences in the group of problem students. The values of mode and median were exactly the same.

The results of inductive statistics in half of the tested hypotheses, confirmed the difference between the two groups of students. They supported the results of previous research, pointing to the need for a different approach of teachers in creating a motivational environment for differently oriented students (Asanova & Gagova, 2019). In the case of verification of hypotheses H1 and H2, it was a comparison between two ordinal values on a scale of 1-5. For this reason, we used the Mann-Whitney U test to compare the two groups. The one for H1: Non-problem students have a higher NSP than problem students showed $p=0.000523$ at $p<0.054$ ($U=11033$, $Z=-3.467$). In this case, it was possible to reject the zero hypothesis of identical medians at the 5% level of significance and state that there is a statistically significant difference between the two groups of students in terms of positive performance trend. This is also confirmed by the distribution of relative frequencies in Table 6.

Table 6

Representation of groups of students according to NSP bands

	NSP		
Standard score	*Problem students (%)*	*Non-problem students (%)*	*Difference P-N (%)*
1 Very low need	26.6%	10.4%	6.2% P
2 Low need	22.6%	19.1%	3.5% P
3 Average need	25.0%	34.8%	9.8% N
4 Higher need	18.5%	24.3%	5.8% N
5 Very high need	7.3%	11.3%	4.0% N

In the case of H2 verification: Non-problem students have less NAF than problem students, on the other hand, the p-level values found were higher than 0.05 (p=0.474. U=13594. Z=0.715). Thus, it was not possible to reject the null hypothesis about the difference between groups of students and it was maintained that there is no statistically significant difference between the examined groups in terms of negative performance trend. This also corresponds to a very similar distribution of relative frequencies in Table 7.

Table 7

Representation of groups of students according to NAF bands

	NAF		
Standard score	*Problem students (%)*	*Non-problem students (%)*	*Difference P-N (%)*
1 Very low concern	24.2%	28.7%	6.5% N
2 Low concern	22.2%	20.0%	2.2% P
3 Average concern	37.9%	37.4%	0.5% P
4 High concern	9.3%	9.6%	0.3% N
5 Very high concern	6.5%	4.3%	2.2% P

When verifying H3: Motivational type is statistically significantly different in problem and non-problem students, the data was not ordinal, and therefore the comparison Tn<Tn+1 did not apply. For this reason, Pearson's Chi-square test was used. The p-level value in this case reached p=0.138, i.e. it exceeded the 5% level of significance and it was not possible to reject the null hypothesis that the motivational types of students from different groups do not differ significantly. Table 8 also supports the above.

Table 8

Distribution of students according to motivational types

Type of students according to the needs ratio NSP:NAF	*Problem students (%)*	*Non-problem students (%)*	*Difference P-N (%)*
T1 (high : low)	18.1%	24.6%	6.5% N
T2 (low : high)	7.7%	3.5%	4.2% P
T3 (high : high)	3.6%	4.4%	0.8% N
T4 (low : low)	19.4%	17.5%	1.9% P
T5 (ambivalent on both sides)	33.1%	37.7%	4.6% N
T6 (unilaterally ambivalent)	18.1%	12.3%	5.8% P

When we focused (within the motivational types T) on the specific ratios of motivational needs (NSP:NAF) in the students of both groups, the conclusions were different, see Tables 9 and 10.

Table 9

Percentage of Problem students according to the ratios of NSP:NAF

Problem students																	
Type 1			*Type 2*			*Type 3*			*Type 4*			*Type 5*			*Type 6*		
NSP:NAF		*%*	*NSP:NAF*		*%*	*NSP:NAF*		*%*	*NSP:NAF*		*%*	*NSP:NAF*		*%*	*NSP:NAF*		*%*
5	1	4.4	1	5	0.4	5	5	1.2	1	1	6.0	3	3	11.7	3	5	2.4
5	2	1.2	1	4	1.6	5	4	0.4	1	2	6.0	3	4	2.0	5	3	0.0
4	1	7.7	2	5	2.0	4	5	0.8	2	1	2.4	4	3	4.0	1	3	12.1
4	2	4.8	2	4	3.6	4	4	1.2	2	2	4.8	3	2	5.2	3	1	3.6
												2	3	10.1			

Table 10

Percentage of Non-problem students according to the ratios of NSP:NAF

Non-problem students																	
Type 1			*Type 2*			*Type 3*			*Type 4*			*Type 5*			*Type 6*		
NSP:NAF		*%*	*NSP:NAF*		*%*	*NSP:NAF*		*%*	*NSP:NAF*		*%*	*NSP:NAF*		*%*	*NSP:NAF*		*%*
5	1	2.6	1	5	0.9	5	5	1.8	1	1	0.9	3	3	11.4	3	5	2.4
5	2	4.4	1	4	0.0	5	4	0.9	1	2	5.3	3	4	3.5	5	3	0.0
4	1	6.1	2	5	1.8	4	5	0.0	2	1	4.4	4	3	5.3	1	3	12.1
4	2	11.4	2	4	0.9	4	4	1.8	2	2	7.0	3	2	10.5	3	1	3.6
												2	3	7.0			

While verifying H4: Problem students differ statistically significantly from non-problem students in terms of the ratio of performance needs NSP: NAF, we worked with a ratio variable, and thereupon we at first verified the normality of the data. The testing of data normality was performed using the Shapiro-Wilk normality test (we tested against the null hypothesis that the assessed data has a normal distribution). Based on the normality test, the appropriate parametric and non-parametric methods of statistical analysis were then selected. The revealed values of p-weeds in these cases were $p<0.001$ (problem students) and $p<0.001$ (non-problem students). The non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test was again used to compare the two groups. Based on the values found $p=0.0007$ ($U=11092$. $Z=-3.405$), it was possible to state that there is a statistically significant difference between the specific ratios of students' performance needs NSP: NAF. Thereby, it was possible to reject H0 on identical medians at the one percent level of significance.

3 Discussion

Our expectation that the two groups of students will differ significantly in all four points of the formulated hypotheses H1 - H4 was confirmed in only two cases.

The first discrepancy is signalled by Table 6 - the NSP - where the biggest difference was in Band 1- very low need for successful performance. This difference was reflected in the verification of H1 in the demonstration of a statistically significant difference in the positive motivation of students' P and N. What could be the causes of the low need of P students to be successful? According to Hoeksem et al. (2014), the following causes must be taken into account: emotions (feeling embarrassed, experiencing feelings of shame, disgrace, humiliation, etc.), high probability of negative expectations (bad result, unpleasant activity, uncertainty emanating from a task situation, etc.) and thus low attractiveness of performance activity (lack of interest, reluctance, passivity). Of course, the student's personality characteristics (anxiety, self-confidence, self-doubt, etc.) and his or her social and cultural background determined by the family also play a role. On the part of the teacher and the school, it is especially the reasonable difficulty of learning requirements (Mitchell & Carbone, 2011) in relation to different groups of students, which is generally understood on the part of an individual´s approach to education. However, it is related to the teacher's knowledge of what students he/she has in front of him/her, especially in terms of the motivational type of student and in terms of his current level of development of dispositions (Machů & Lukeš, 2019). With this knowledge, it seems to be a strategic task for the teacher to strengthen the need for successful performance in students, i.e. to help positively change their motivation (Skinner, Edge, Altman et al., 2003).

In our case, the intervention of teachers should be reflected in a reduction in the number of students in zones 1 and 2 of the NSP, which concerns not only group

P but also that of N students (their representation was close to 30%). Another task, this time more of a school than that of a teacher, should be a change in evaluation associated with the introduction of the so-called individual relational norm (Ryška, 2009). Its favourable motivational effect is demonstrated especially for students with fear of failure, but also for weaker students. In general, they also have a weaker performance orientation (Kubíková, 2012), as our research has also confirmed. Interestingly, the need to avoid failure was not significantly different between the two groups of students. The sample we monitored showed practically identical results in terms of fears of failure. Concerns were most strongly represented in zone 3 of the NAF (more than a third in both groups). The total in bands 1 and 2 was just below 50% and the classically undesirable high and very high fear of failure in bands 4 and 5 oscillated around 15% for both N and P students. Our assumption that problem-free students do not suffer from great fear of failure has not been conclusively demonstrated. Indirectly, this confirmed the independence of the NSP and the NAF, i.e. the high need to be successful does not automatically mean that the student will not have the need to avoid failure (Atkinson & Raynor, 1974).

The second difference was confirmed during the H4 verification, which followed the differences within the motivational types T1-T6. A statistically significant difference between the group of P and N students was demonstrated in the specific ratios of students' performance needs NSP: NAF. This fact was mostly due to the discrepancy of representation in the ratio 4:2 (difference by 6.6% in favour of N students) in the motivational type T1 and in the ratio 1: 3 (difference by 10.3% in favour of P students) in the motivational type T6. It turned out that the specific ratios of positive motivational tendency to negative motivational tendency for each student, but also for the school class or school, have a greater informative value than the isolated observed need for successful performance or the need to avoid failure. It is also a figure specifying the classification into six motivational types of T1-T6 students.

For the motivational types themselves, no statistically significant difference was found between non-problem and problem students. However, certain differences need to be commented. Problem and non-problem students showed the most numerous representations in the T5 type, i.e. not gained on both sides in terms of their motivational tendencies. In this type, a higher proportion of N students (37.7%) than of P students (33.1%) appears to be a challenge for schools. It can be assumed that school education is uninteresting and uninspiring for these students (Čejková, 2014) and provides a considerable reserve in terms of their interest and involvement in the active process of self-development. For teachers, it places increased demands on the cultivation of performance motivation in these students. In the first place, it is the nature of the assigned learning tasks and the nature of the created school situations (Mareš, 2013). Methodologically, in this situation, it is recommended to prioritize cooperative teaching over competitive teaching (Kasíková, 2016).

Representation in other motivational types was interesting not only in terms of the frequency of representation, but also in terms of the difference between the group of P and N students. The largest difference was reported in the motivational type T1 (predominantly N students) and in the type T6 (predominantly P students). Type T1 represents a motivationally ideal student for teachers, who responds positively to success and failure. So it was no surprise that higher representation was achieved by non-problem students. The question remains as to their representation of about a quarter can be considered sufficient. Related to this is the question of who has the greatest reserves in this regard: whether the student, teacher, parents, and the system of education and assessment of students in the Czech Republic. Focusing on the use of these reserves opens up other topics for research, see e.g. Vodanovich (2003), Eren and Coskun (2015). Type T6 represents a one-sided non-achievement of a student: either the average need to be successful combined with low or high fear of failure, or the average need to avoid failure combined with low or high need to be successful. It was no wonder that problem students predominated in this type. As the subsequent analysis showed, this was due to the high frequency of representation in a ratio of 1: 3, i.e. low need for success and average fear of failure. Even in this case, the key problem is the activation of the student, his involvement in the development of his own dispositions and minimizing the feeling of disinterest and boredom (Nett, Goetz, & Daniels, 2010; Pavelková, 2010).

The proportion of students in type T4, with a small deviation in non-problem students, was close to one-fifth of the research sample. This is a high frequency of this motivationally problem type, which is basically a type of "indifferent" who does not care whether he will be successful or unsuccessful. Methodologically, it represents an even more problematic group for teachers than in the case of type T5 and T6. If teachers fail to find a platform for their positive motivation in cooperation with family or peers, e.g. outside school, the teacher usually resigns over time and devotes himself to students who show at least some interest and participation in school. The potential for development of students of this type of T4 in school practice in the Czech Republic usually remains internally ambivalent (hesitant or uncertain in his views). The area of initiation and activation of this group of students is a challenge for the future. It is also worth mentioning the difference in the representation of students in type T2, which was more frequent among P students. Compared to the previous type, it is more of an anxious and internally fluctuating type. Helping such a student build confidence in his or her own school skills (Zimmerman & Cleary, 2006) is a long and uncertain process for teachers, often without parental support. Weakening negative motivation means breaking down individual students' fears and apprehension of failure, which cannot be done without an accompanying positive climate on the part of the entire class (Mareš & Ježek, 2006). One of the most difficult tasks of a teacher in the strengthening of positive motivation is to

estimate the adequate form and content of the student's school workload and not to reduce the demands on him in the long run or in turn to increase the demands above the acceptable limit (Daučianskaitė & Žydžiūnaitė, 2020).

Conclusion

The research probe pre-supposed the requirement of the teachers´ individual approach to students at the lower secondary school in terms of their prevailing motivational tendency. The research sample of 363 respondents showed a difference between students with a predominant need for successful performance and students with a predominant need to avoid failure in connection with their school achievement. There was a statistically significant difference in the need for successful performance for non-problem students compared to their problematic counterparts. At the same time, there was a statistically significant difference between the group of problem-problem and non-problem-based students in terms of the positive need to achieve success and the negative need to avoid failure (NSP:NAF). Although both groups achieved the highest identical frequencies of representation in the T5 type (especially in the ratios 3: 3, 3: 2, 2: 3), problem students in the T6 type (ratio 1: 3) and non-problem students in the T1 type (ratio 4: 2) dominated.

Acknowledgement
The contribution was created by means of a research survey supported by the SGS 2019-43-009-3 grant at Jan Evangelista Purkyně University in Ústí nad Labem.

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Acta Educationis Generalis
Volume 11, 2021, Issue 1

DOI: 10.2478/atd-2021-0007

Vocabulary Learning Autonomy and Vocabulary Size of Turkish ELT Student Teachers: A Correlational Study

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Received: June 1, 2020; received in revised form: September 8, 2020;
accepted: September 9, 2020

Abstract:
Introduction: In the related literature, knowledge of vocabulary is mentioned to be crucial as one of the crucial parts of language learning. Measuring learners' vocabulary knowledge is regarded to be essential in that it provides both teachers and learners knowledge of the problematic areas and suggests some practical ways to improve the vocabulary learning process. It could be said that an autonomous learner is a leading actor in his own language learning process because, as stated by Nation (1998), learning is performed by the individual learner. Little (1995) asserts that learner autonomy should be set as an explicit goal in language learning contexts in that autonomy on the part of the learners plays a vital role in student success. So, we hypothesize that vocabulary learning autonomy has a significant influence on the learners' vocabulary size.
Methods: This study aims to investigate Turkish ELT student teachers' vocabulary learning autonomy, vocabulary size, and the potential relationships between these two variables. Ninety-five student teachers in an ELT teacher education program at a university in Turkey participated in the study. The data were collected via two quantitative data collection instruments: Vocabulary Learning Autonomy (VLA) questionnaire and The Vocabulary Size Test (VST). The data were analyzed using descriptive statistics and correlations. As for the VST, the correct answers were counted, and an overall score was found. The participants' scores were multiplied by 100 to get their total vocabulary size up to the 14th 1000 word-family level. As for the questionnaire, descriptive statistics (mean, frequency, standard deviation) were conducted.
Results: The findings revealed that student teachers held a moderate level of vocabulary learning autonomy. The vocabulary size mean score was 77.14, which means that the participants had approximately enough vocabulary to deal with unsimplified written texts, and enough vocabulary to deal with unsimplified spoken texts. Additionally, there were significant

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and positive relationships between the responsibility and ability dimensions of the VLA scale. However, the findings revealed non-significant correlations among all the VLA's dimensions and the vocabulary size.

Discussion: The findings regarding the participants' vocabulary learning autonomy showed that the participants held a moderate level of vocabulary learning autonomy. This finding is essential in that one of the most important goals of education is encouraging learners to work more independently both in and out of the classroom (Moir & Nation, 2002). There were significant and positive relationships between the responsibility and ability dimensions of the VLA scale. This finding, which is in line with Koller (2015), suggests that the participants feel capable of learning vocabulary items when they perceive themselves as responsible people instead of a teacher. Based on the results regarding vocabulary size, it is reasonable to conclude that the participants had approximately enough vocabulary for comprehension of unsimplified written texts and enough vocabulary for spoken texts based on Nation's (2006) research reporting that learners need 8000 to 9000 word-family vocabulary for comprehension of unsimplified written texts and 6000 to 7000 word-family vocabulary for unsimplified spoken texts.

Limitations: The research is limited to only first-year student teachers of English and the data consist of only quantitative data.

Conclusion: The findings of the present study imply the need to foster vocabulary learning autonomy of learners in teacher education programs. Student teachers hold two identities as learners and teachers of the future. It is crucial to examine their readiness because there is a bulk of evidence in the literature that teachers' readiness for autonomy affects their ability to foster their students' autonomy. The findings of the present study imply the need to foster vocabulary learning autonomy and utilizing some strategies to improve vocabulary size.

Key words: vocabulary size, autonomy, vocabulary learning autonomy, foreign language.

Introduction

Numerous studies on second or foreign language teaching and learning highlight the significance of learner-centeredness (see among others Dang, 2006; Harťanská et al., 2018). One of the significant effects of the learner-centered focus in education is the effort to encourage learners to work more independently both in and out of the classroom (Moir & Nation, 2002) or, to put it differently, ensuring learner independence in language learning teaching environment which is later also called autonomy in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT) (Lamb & Reinders, 2005; Smith, 2008). In a similar vein of argument, Macaro (1997) asserts that different concepts such as

independent learning, flexible learning and student-centered learning have been used to describe the notion of autonomy because of the different definitions and interpretations made by the researchers from different cultures. Nation (2001) stresses how important it is to have students who can take responsibility for their own learning.

The notion of learner autonomy has attracted considerable attention of researchers and teachers in the second and foreign language (L2) learning context (Balçıkanlı, 2008; Benson, 2003; Benson, 2007; Benson, 2009; Chik et al., 2018; Kartal & Balçıkanlı, 2019; Lamb & Reinders, 2005; Little, 2007a,b, 2016; Littlewood, 1996; Nation, 1998; Palfreyman & Smith, 2003; Teng, 2019). Little (1999) remarks that in formal education contexts, autonomy is based on taking responsibility for one's own learning and therefore can be regarded as a personal capacity for varying conscious behavior regarding both content and learning process. As stated by Balçıkanlı (2008), learner autonomy is a crucial factor in creating effective language learning and is an ability that should be considered starting from primary school. Little (2002) emphasizes that one of the pedagogical functions of The European Language Portfolio, which is one of The Council of Europe's educational projects, is fostering the development of learner autonomy, which also promotes lifelong learning.

Littlewood (1996) suggests a framework for developing autonomy in foreign language learning classes. According to this framework, autonomy in language learning is made up of two main components, namely ability which depends on the components of knowledge and skills and willingness which has the components of motivation and confidence. Also, communication, learning and personal life are presented as the three main domains of autonomy. Little (2007a) asserts that learner autonomy and the progress in language proficiency are the two constructs that are integrated with each other in terms of language learning autonomy.

In the related literature, knowledge of vocabulary is mentioned to be crucial as one of the essential parts of language learning (Nation, 1995, 2001; Schmitt, 2008). According to Webb & Nation (2017), vocabulary is of vital importance in terms of improving all four language skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing and is essential for communication. Also, it is known that learners regard vocabulary as a significant part of language learning (Nation, 2003) and, therefore, lack of enough vocabulary knowledge is considered as one of the main obstacles to a learner's use of the target language (Nation, 1998). Depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge have been recognized as the two aspects of a learner's vocabulary knowledge (Anderson & Freebody, 1979; Qian, 1998, 2002; Schmitt, 2008, 2014). Depth of word knowledge refers to the knowledge a learner has about a word (Qian, 2002). Breath of knowledge, also called as "vocabulary size" (Qian, 1998, p.1, Read, 2007, p.107), refers to the number of words a learner knows (Anderson & Freebody, 1979).

Measuring learners' vocabulary knowledge is regarded to be essential in that it provides both teachers and learners knowledge of the problematic areas and suggests some effective ways to improve vocabulary learning process (Webb & Sasao, 2013). The importance of increasing learners' vocabulary size is also emphasized in the vocabulary learning literature (Laufer et al., 2005; Nation, 1998; Nation, 2006; Schmitt, 2008; Schmitt & Schmitt, 2014). It has been indicated that due to the vital role of vocabulary knowledge in reading and listening, getting an idea about learners' receptive vocabulary size plays a crucial role (Beglar, 2010). Vocabulary size tests are used for estimating the total number of vocabulary items known by language learners (Nation & Beglar, 2007; McLean & Kramer, 2015; Schmitt et al., 2001). According to Read (2007), the purpose of estimation of vocabulary size for L2 learners is to analyze their vocabulary needs required for reading and other communicative activities. Similarly, Nation and Beglar (2007) indicate the reasons for measuring non-native speakers' vocabulary size as being the effort to know how close learners are to have enough vocabulary to perform specific tasks in the target language; following the improvements in students' vocabulary knowledge; and comparing non-native speakers with native speakers in terms of vocabulary growth. Regarding this issue, Nation (2001) specifies that language teachers pay great attention to native speakers' vocabulary size as it can reflect a goal for their students as a second or foreign language learners. Nation (2003) remarks that after graduation from university, an average native speaker knows at least 20.000 word-families. Hence, a L2 learner needs to know approximately 5.000 or preferably 10.000 words to be able to use the language appropriately.

The importance of learner autonomy for vocabulary learning has been emphasized explicitly in L2 literature (Laufer et al., 2005; Nation, 1998, 2003, 2011; Webb & Nation, 2017). Laufer et al. (2005) suggest that teachers should motivate and encourage language learners to take responsibility for their own vocabulary learning. One of Nation's (2003, 2011) guiding principles for teaching vocabulary is that teachers should help learners take responsibility for their own vocabulary learning, or in other words, encourage vocabulary learning autonomy as one of the important roles of the teacher in the language class.

In this sense, as emphasized by Nation (1998), it is not a realistic goal to pay attention to and teach all the words learners need in communication in the target language, so it is essential to help them to become autonomous vocabulary learners. Webb and Nation (2017) suggest that teaching vocabulary learning strategies can help learners become autonomous vocabulary learners, and therefore provide support for the learners to develop their knowledge of vocabulary outside the classroom while making it possible to put the necessary emphasis on vocabulary learning. It could be said that an autonomous learner is a leading actor in his own language learning process because, as stated by Nation (1998), learning is performed by the individual learner. Little (1995) asserts that learner autonomy should be set as an explicit goal in language

learning contexts in that autonomy on the part of the learners plays an essential role in student success. So, we hypothesize that vocabulary learning autonomy has a significant influence on the learners' vocabulary size.

In the L2 literature, numerous researches have been focused on language learning autonomy or, in other words, learner autonomy in L2 (Abadi & Baradaran, 2013; Bayat, 2011; Little, 1995, 2007a; Yalcin Tilfarlioglu & Sherwani, 2018). Also, there have been a high number of studies that focus on the vocabulary size of L2 learners. For example, there are some research studies available on the relationship between vocabulary size and depth (Akbarian, 2010; Nouri & Zerhouni, 2016), the effect of vocabulary size on reading comprehension (Laufer & Ravenhorst-Kalovski, 2010; Moinzadeh & Moslehpour, 2012; Nouri & Zerhouni, 2016; Qian, 2002; Şen & Kuleli, 2015), the relationship between vocabulary size and academic achievement (Milton & Treffers-Daller, 2013; Özönder, 2016), the relationship between vocabulary size and vocabulary learning strategies (Hamzah et al., 2009) and the relationship between vocabulary size and language skills (Llach & Gallego, 2009; Stæhr, 2008; Uchihara & Clenton, 2018). However, the research on vocabulary learning autonomy (Agustín-Llach & Alonso, 2017; Ibrahim, 2015; Korlu & Mede, 2018; Tuan, 2011) and the relationship between vocabulary learning autonomy and written receptive vocabulary size (Koller, 2015) is considerably limited. It is believed that examining the relationship between vocabulary size and vocabulary learning autonomy is of great importance in that it tries to shed light on the interrelation of the two crucial factors in L2 classes. So, the purpose of this study was to investigate Turkish EFL learners' vocabulary learning autonomy, written receptive vocabulary size and the relationship between vocabulary learning autonomy and written receptive vocabulary size. The following research questions were addressed to achieve this goal.

1. What is the vocabulary learning autonomy level of the Turkish EFL students?
2. Are dimensions of personal ability and autonomy related?
3. What is the vocabulary size of the Turkish EFL students?
4. Are there any relationships between vocabulary learning autonomy and vocabulary size?

1 Methodology

1.1 Participants

The participants were 95 first year pre-service teachers majoring in an English language teaching (ELT) program at a public university in Turkey. The ages of the participants ranged from 18 to 26. There were 70 female and 25 male students. Having been sampled conveniently out of the first-year students at the end of the fall term of 2019-20 academic year, the number of the participants corresponds to 98% of the whole first-year students studying at this program. When the whole population (1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th-year student teachers) is

considered, almost one-third of the enrolled students were included in the study. In this program, student teachers take language skills courses such as language structure, reading, listening, and pronunciation, oral and written communication. Additionally, they take courses on educational sciences, educational psychology, and educational sociology.

1.2 Instrumentation

The study utilized two scales for collecting the data. The first scale was a Vocabulary Size Test which was oriented towards measuring the vocabulary levels of the participants and to chart the growth of participants' vocabularies. Investigating the vocabulary size also aims at measuring the ability of participants to deal with a range of simplified spoken and written texts. The second scale was Vocabulary Learning Autonomy Questionnaire which allowed for revealing the responsibility and ability levels of participants in vocabulary learning.

The Vocabulary Size Test (VST), which was developed by Nation and Beglar (2007), is a measure of a learner's written receptive vocabulary size which included items from the 1st 1000 to the 14th 1000 word-families of English from the British National Corpus (BNC). The VST consists of 140 multiple-choice items (10 from each 1000 word-level) and tests written receptive vocabulary knowledge up to the 14th 1000 word-level. These 14,000 words cover all the most important English words (Nation & Beglar, 2007). Test developers have chosen the appropriate contexts to reflect the most frequent environments for each item in the test. Answering the test requires a moderately developed idea of the meaning of the word. The content, construct (content aspect, representativeness, substantive, structural aspects), generalizability and technical validity of the test was calculated by Beglar (2010) with 197 participants with four groups of participants. The VST has been used in some studies in Turkish context (Gümüş, 2017; Mutlu & Kaşlıoğlu, 2016). A sample item from the test is provided in Figure 1.

4.	scrub: He is **scrubbing** it.	
	a.	cutting shallow lines into it
	b.	repairing it
	c.	rubbing it hard to clean it
	d.	drawing simple pictures of it

Figure 1. An example item from the 3rd 1000 word level.

The second instrument was the Vocabulary Learning Autonomy (VLA), which is an adapted version of the learner autonomy questionnaire by Spratt et al. (2002). There were 42 items and three sections in the original one. The adapted version used in this study is a shorter one and the items are specific to

vocabulary. There were two sections in the adapted version, which was also used by Koller (2015). The VLA had a total of 32 questions and there were 16 questions in each of two sections: responsibility and ability. In the first section of this six-point Likert scale, the participants were asked to assess their own and their teachers' responsibilities in the vocabulary learning process. In section two, the participants' perceptions of their abilities in autonomous vocabulary learning. The whole scale had an alpha reliability coefficient of 0.85. The items ranged from - not at all to - completely. The scale was grouped into 5 categories: content, word knowledge, personal needs and goals, strategies, and assessment. The original version of the VLA questionnaire (i. e. general learner autonomy questionnaire) was adapted to Turkish context by several previous studies (see among others Karabıyık, 2008).

1.3 Data analysis

There were two sets of data to be analyzed, i. e. the VST and the VLA questionnaire. As for the VST, the correct answers were counted, and an overall score was found. The participants' scores were multiplied by 100 to get their total vocabulary size up to the 14th 1000 word-family level. As for the questionnaire, descriptive statistics (mean, frequency, standard deviation) were conducted. Additionally, Pearson correlations were run to find the possible correlation between respondents' perceptions of responsibility and ability. The normality of the data was checked by conducting Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests. As the data showed normal distribution, parametric tests were utilized.

2 Findings

2.1 Turkish EFL learners' vocabulary learning autonomy

The vocabulary learning autonomy of the participants was determined via descriptive statistics. Table 1 shows the mean scores received by the five dimensions of the vocabulary learning autonomy as well as the average score on the whole instrument.

Table 1

Results related to vocabulary learning autonomy (n=95)

		Responsibility		*Ability*	
Dimension	*Whose responsibility?*	*Mean*	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*
Content	Yours	4.53	.92	4.04	.83
	Your Teachers'	3.62	.96		
Word Knowledge	Yours	4.05	.94	4.35	.82
	Your Teachers'	4.57	.87		
Personal Needs and Goals	Yours	4.34	.95	3.84	.96

	Your Teachers'	3.56	1.17		
Strategies	Yours	4.38	.98	4.11	1.17
	Your Teachers'	4.09	1.14		
Assessment	Yours	4.16	1.06	3.87	1.00
	Your Teachers'	4.36	.86		
Total		4.21	1.03	4.06	.34

SD: Standard deviation

Table 1 shows the four top-rated items of the scale for their own responsibility belong to content (4.53±.92) and strategies (4.38±.98). Concerning the first two least rated items for their own responsibility part, the learners seem not to be holding excessively word knowledge (4.05±.94) and assessment (4.16±1.06), respectively. On the other hand, students give the responsibility to their teachers when it comes to word knowledge (4.57±.87) and assessment (4.36±.86). The dimensions that are considered least as teachers' responsibility are personal needs and goals (3.56±1.17) and content (3.62±.96).

The VLA used in this present study also included an ability part. The findings regarding the abilities are illustrated in Table 2.

Table 2

The percentages of perceptions on abilities

Items	*Not at all*	*A little*	*Somewhat not*	*Somewhat so*	*Mostly*	*Completely*	*Mean*	*Standard Deviation*
17. pick which words I need to learn	1.1	4.2	9.5	33.7	42.1	9.5	4.40	1.00
18. make sure I am making progress in vocabulary learning	1.1	4.2	22.1	28.4	35.8	8.4	4.19	1.07
19. plan my vocabulary learning	6.3	14.7	23.2	30.5	16.8	8.4	3.62	1.33
20. find out if an English word is common	1.1	9.5	8.4	12.6	46.3	22.1	4.60	1.25
21. decide which words will be most useful for me to learn	2.1	3.2	9.5	28.4	38.9	17.9	4.53	1.19
22. identify my English vocabulary needs	1.1	2.1	18.9	31.6	33.7	12.6	4.33	1.05
23. choose vocabulary words that are useful to me	0	6.3	11.6	27.3	41.1	13.7	4.44	1.06
24. decide which vocabulary strategies are best for me to use	4.2	8.4	13.7	30.5	27.4	15.8	4.16	1.32

25. test myself on vocabulary	10.5	22.1	15.8	18.9	22.1	10.5	3.52	1.55
26. know how much vocabulary I need to learn this semester	7.4	24.2	21.1	30.5	13.7	3.2	3.28	1.26
27. use appropriate strategies to help me remember the words I study	3.2	10.5	17.9	24.2	30.5	13.7	4.09	1.32
28. find information about a word (meaning, part of speech, pronunciation, how to use it…)	1.1	4.2	6.3	26.3	34.7	27.4	4.72	1.12
29. use learning strategies to study	4.2	8.4	18.9	25.3	27.4	15.8	4.11	1.34
Vocabulary								
30. set my vocabulary goals	7.4	14.7	23.2	28.4	20.0	6.3	3.58	1.33
31. evaluate my own vocabulary learning	3.2	10.5	23.2	26.3	27.4	9.5	3.93	1.26
32. keep an organized system of what I learn about a word	7.4	18.9	16.8	29.5	18.9	8.4	3.59	1.40

As shown in Table 2, the highest mean scores belong to finding information about a word (4.72±1.12), finding out if an English word is common (4.60±1.25), and deciding the words that will be most useful (4.53±1.19). On the other hand, the participants feel less capable in knowing how much vocabulary they need to learn in a semester (3.28±1.26), setting vocabulary goals (3.58±1.33), and keeping an organized system of what they learn about a word (3.59±1.40).

2.2 The relationship between learner perceptions of responsibility and personal ability

Table 3 shows the Cronbach alpha coefficients of the correlations between the question pairs in participants' assignment of responsibility for learning (section 1) and perceptions of their capabilities in vocabulary learning (section 2) and their significance level.

Table 3

Responsibility-Ability questions with significant correlations

	Correlation	
Category	*Same Category*	*Cross-Category*
1. Content (what and how much)	.28**	Personal needs= .36** Assessment= .25*
2. Word Knowledge	.18	Content= .25* Personal needs= .31**

3. Personal Needs	.21*	
4. Strategies	.25*	Word knowledge=.25* Personal needs= .24*
5. Assessment	.28**	Content= .25*

** Correlation was significant at the .01 level
* Correlation was significant at the .05 level

As Table 3 shows, the responsibility and ability perception levels of the participants are significantly correlated with each other. In other words, it is found that the students felt more responsibility for the categories that they felt capable of doing. The category that was highly correlated was students' perception of taking responsibility for deciding which words to learn and their ability to learn these words. As for the cross-category correlations, content and personal needs are more correlated than the others. The correlation level was the lowest between the categories of content and assessment.

2.3 The vocabulary size and its relationship with vocabulary learning autonomy

To calculate the participants' vocabulary size, the correct answers in the VST were counted, and an overall score was found. Then, the participants' scores were multiplied by 100 to get their total vocabulary size up to the 14th 1000 word-family level. The descriptive analysis findings regarding the VST scores are given in Table 4.

Table 4

Vocabulary size test scores

Vocabulary Size Test	*Mean*	*SD*
Correct Answer	77.15	13.95
The Score (Word Families)	7725.26	1395.27

SD: Standard deviation

As shown in Table 4, learners' vocabulary size mean score was 77.15±13.95, or 7725.26±1395.27 word-families. This word-family vocabulary size mean score suggests that the participants had approximately enough vocabulary to deal with unsimplified written texts, and enough vocabulary to deal with unsimplified spoken texts when the ideal coverage is taken as 98% in reference to the research by Nation (2006).

Table 5

Correlations between the vocabulary learning autonomy and the vocabulary size test

	Total autonomy	*Responsibility own*	*Responsibility teacher*	*Ability*
Size test score	-.07	-.08	-.12	-.03
Total autonomy		.81**	.06	.80**
Responsibility own			-.05	.30**
Responsibility teacher				.15

**Correlation was significant at the .01 level

The correlation between vocabulary size and vocabulary learning autonomy was also calculated. The findings yielded no statistically significant correlation between general vocabulary learning autonomy and the vocabulary size of the participants. Moreover, the correlations between the responsibility and vocabulary size as well as the correlation between ability dimension and vocabulary size were not significant.

3 Discussion

The findings regarding the participants' vocabulary learning autonomy showed that the participants held a moderate level of vocabulary learning autonomy. One of the most important goals of education is encouraging learners to work more independently both in and out of the classroom (Moir & Nation, 2002). So, it can be said that learner autonomy is an important factor in creating effective language learning and is an ability that should be considered starting from primary school (Balçıkanlı, 2008) and should be developed gradually with some degree of teacher guidance (Pawlak & Kruk, 2012). However, a recent study in the Turkish context found that Turkish ELT student teachers did not come from a learning environment in which autonomy was fostered (Kartal & Balçıkanlı, 2019). The findings of the present study regarding the vocabulary learning autonomy levels of the students are in line with this finding. The role of the vocabulary learning autonomy is well-established in the literature (see among others Laufer et al., 2005; Nation, 2011; Webb & Nation, 2017) and the importance of vocabulary learning autonomy in L2 learning is emphasized. Additionally, there were significant and positive relationships between the responsibility and ability dimensions of the VLA scale. This finding, which is parallel to the findings of Koller (2015), suggests that the participants feel capable of learning vocabulary items when they perceive themselves as the responsible ones instead of a teacher.

One of the important findings we found in this study was that the EFL learners' vocabulary size mean score was 77.14±13.95, or 7725 word-families. Based on this result, it is reasonable to conclude that the participants had approximately

enough vocabulary for comprehension of unsimplified written texts and enough vocabulary for spoken texts based on Nation's (2006) research reporting that learners need 8000 to 9000 word-family vocabulary for comprehension of unsimplified written texts and 6000 to 7000 word-family vocabulary for unsimplified spoken texts. In detail, it can be noted that the participants had enough vocabulary to understand spoken English and watch children's movies. However, they need to increase their vocabulary size up to 8000 to 9000 word-families to be able to read novels and newspapers with 98% of coverage (Nation, 2006; Nation & Beglar, 2007). Nation (2006) notes that the goal of around 8000 word-families is important for L2 learners who want to deal with a wide variety of written and spoken texts in English. So, based on the results of the VST in our study, we can say that the participants are close to this goal although they are freshmen and are expected to reach the goal of at least 10000 word-families, a minimum number for understanding academic texts as reported by Laufer et al. (2005). However, it should be noted that our results do not indicate students' ability to use the words in productive skills such as speaking and writing as the test only measures learners' written receptive vocabulary size. Although Webb & Nation (2017) indicate that few L2 learners can reach 9000 most frequent word-family level, the learners' vocabulary size mean score in this study was 7725±1395.27 word-families. This result can be explained by the fact that the participants in our study were freshmen majoring in the English Language Teaching program and had been studying English with a special focus on vocabulary and reading because of the university entrance exam they had taken before starting the program.

Different results have been reported in different research studies concerning the average vocabulary size of L2 learners, depending on the participants' characteristics. In a study performed in the Turkish context by Mutlu & Kaşlıoğlu (2016), the average vocabulary size of Turkish EFL senior high school students was reported to be approximately 8450 word-families. Kalajahi & Pourshahian (2012) found that pre-service teachers had an average vocabulary size to cope with advanced studies. Harkio & Pietilä (2016) found that the mean vocabulary size of the university students majoring in English at a university in South-West Finland was 8816 words, whereas that of the upper secondary school students was 5715. Thangaroonsin (2016) found that Thai EFL graduate students had a mean receptive vocabulary size of approximately 8100 word-families, which indicates that students are able to read English novels or newspapers adequately, and in line with our study, it is advised that students should know at least 10000 word-families in order to have sufficient vocabulary knowledge for reading academic texts. In another study by Fukuda et al. (2019), first-year university students in a university in Japan had 6669 word-families on average at the beginning of the academic year and had the average size of 6967 at the end of the year. So, it was reported that the students improved their vocabulary level by approximately 300 word-families over one year on average.

It could be said that there is a consensus in the L2 literature about the importance of increasing vocabulary knowledge (Laufer et al., 2005; Nation, 2006; Schmitt, 2008; Schmitt & Schmitt, 2014; Webb & Nation, 2017). However, it should not be forgotten that vocabulary learning is just one sub-goal of the other important goals in language learning and language-focused learning, including deliberate vocabulary instruction is just one of the four strands of a well-balanced language course which should not exceed 25% of the learning time (Nation, 2001). It is believed that because of the limited class time helping learners become autonomous in vocabulary learning becomes a crucial issue that could affect learners' success in vocabulary learning and language learning as well. In a similar vein, researchers (Laufer et al., 2005; Nation, 1998, 2003, 2011; Webb & Nation, 2017) emphasize the importance of vocabulary learning autonomy in L2 learning. The teaching of vocabulary learning strategies is recommended as a (Nation, 2001; Webb & Nation, 2017) a good way of fostering vocabulary learning autonomy in language classes.

One outstanding finding we can note is that no statistically significant correlation was found between general vocabulary learning autonomy and the vocabulary size of the participants. However, a significant positive correlation was expected. In other words, we expected that the participants with high vocabulary size would have high-level autonomy in learning vocabulary. The students' past experiences can explain this result in language classes. It is believed that they had studied in language classes where the teachers and the students made all the choices had never had a chance to choose the words they needed to learn, monitor, and evaluate their progress in vocabulary learning. In line with this opinion, Nation (2003) asserts that taking responsibility for learning is generally difficult for language learners partly because of their past learning experiences. So, we are of the opinion that the result of no correlation between vocabulary size and vocabulary learning autonomy in this study is somewhat unexpected, and teachers should encourage vocabulary learning autonomy in their L2 classes given the limited time available for teaching even the most frequent vocabulary. Nation (2003) suggests that teachers should give information about different types of vocabulary, train their students in different types of learning, and encourage and motivate learners to reflect on their learning. In an article by Laufer et al. (2005), P. Nation advises teachers to encourage and motivate learners to take responsibility for their own vocabulary learning for effective learning to take place. Also, Nation (1998, 2003) signifies the importance of vocabulary learning autonomy in L2 classes in terms of better learning outcomes.

Conclusion

This study explored the vocabulary learning autonomy and receptive vocabulary size of the student teachers of English and the relationship between vocabulary learning autonomy and written receptive vocabulary size. The findings yielded that the participants held a moderate level of vocabulary learning autonomy, and there were significant and positive relationships between the responsibility and ability dimensions of the VLA scale. As for the vocabulary size, it was found that the students had enough vocabulary to deal with unsimplified written texts and enough vocabulary to deal with unsimplified spoken texts. Additionally, the findings regarding the correlation between vocabulary learning autonomy and vocabulary size revealed no statistical significance. The research is limited to only first-year student teachers of English and the data consist of only self-report quantitative data. These findings have some pedagogical implications and the limitations lead to some future research suggestions.

The findings of the present study imply the need to foster vocabulary learning autonomy of learners in teacher education programs. Student teachers hold two identities as learners and teachers of the future. It is crucial to examine their readiness because there is a bulk of evidence in the literature that teachers' readiness for autonomy affects their ability to foster their students' autonomy. Webb and Nation (2017) mention the strategies of guessing from context, using dictionaries effectively, and using flashcards as some of the key strategies for autonomous vocabulary learning. Therefore, strategy training should be exploited to increase the vocabulary learning autonomy of the student teachers. The findings also provide several further research directions. The hypothesis of the significant positive correlation between vocabulary learning autonomy and vocabulary size was rejected. New studies should be conducted to support or contradict the findings of the present study. Further research can also use qualitative data to get deeper insights into vocabulary learning autonomy, vocabulary size, and the relationship between these. Given the importance of vocabulary for L2 reading skills (Grabe & Stoller, 2018), a future study may investigate the relationships among vocabulary learning autonomy, vocabulary size, and reading skills.

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Acta Educationis Generalis
Volume 11, 2021, Issue 1

DOI: 10.2478/atd-2021-0008

The Importance of Sociocultural-Based Reflective Picture Storybook Media to Increase Reading Interest and Social Skills of Elementary School Students

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Received: April 13, 2020; received in revised form: September 12, 2020;
accepted: September 14, 2020

Abstract:
Introduction: Issues of urgency in learning include interest in reading and social skills in primary schools. Interest in reading and social skills are some of the basic things that are always integrated into all learning. Therefore, learning requires appropriate media to overcome these problems, one of which is a sociocultural-based reflective picture storybook (SRPS) media.
Purpose: The purpose of this article is to know the importance of SRPS media to increase the reading interest and social skills of elementary school students.
Methods: In the paper, the method of a comparative literature review is applied.
Conclusion: This concludes that SRPS media is important to increase the reading interest and social skills of elementary school students. To improve social skills and reading fondness, a media that is suitable for the characteristics of students is needed. Students' interest in pictorial stories can be used as a solution to overcome the problem of low social skills and students' fondness of reading characters that need to be improved. SRPS media is important to be developed in future research.

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Key words: learning, modules, sociocultural, elementary school students, critical thinking.

Introduction

Reading is a window to the world that can enhance students' knowledge, abilities, and even characters (Phytanza & Burhaein, 2020; Purwahida, 2018). Reading activities become one of the important programs that need to be promoted as a provision to realize a country and nation that has the knowledge and a high standard of living. Reading as a simple activity can be a means to adjust to world developments.

The character education program launched by the government makes fond of reading as one of 18 characters that need to be developed. This further reinforces that fond of reading is a character that needs to be instilled. Also, Lazy's reading behavior is a character and a chronic disease, but interesting literary reading can be used as a solution to cure the disease (Amalia & Wuryandani, 2020; Nurgiyantoro, 2010). Based on this opinion it can be said that fond of reading is a character that is very necessary for students to have. One way to instill a fondness for reading is to attract student's interests first. Through media books that contain interesting literary readings can be used to attract students' interest in reading.

Through reading activities, students get many useful benefits to their lives. A student who likes to read will give an influence on his environment related to how the student behaves with his social environment. Students who have a fondness for reading will be more experienced and knowledgeable so that it can have a positive impact on the social skills of other students (Burhaein, 2017b; Purwahida, 2018). Reading positive things will encourage students to behave positively based on the content they read. Students can find out about the importance of social skills based on the information they get from reading.

Social skills also become skills that need to be developed (Pramantik & Burhaein, 2019; Rohman & Hairudin, 2018; Turós, 2019). A psychologist named Anna Surti Ariani stated that it is important for children to have social skills because children will be more easily accepted by anyone in their environment, able to solve problems with others, develop various other life skills, help reduce difficulties at school and make them more enthusiastic to go to school (Kedaulatan Rakyat Jogja, 2018). Good social skills can make a child's achievement more optimal and overall the child can enjoy his life and feel happier. Therefore, social skills must be taught from an early age.

The importance of increasing social skills is an ability that supports the learning process of students in the school environment and community as well as provisions for students who will be involved in society and the world of work. Besides, it can prevent the occurrence of criminal cases committed by students.

Criminal cases committed by students have been very worrying because it is detrimental to the school and the community.

Behavior that shows the low social skills of students is "klitih" (violent acts with sharp weapons or criminal activities committed by minors) (Goriup & Lahe, 2018). This phenomenon is one of the cases that is familiar to residents of Yogyakarta. Ironically this criminal act is often done by students. The low behavior of students' social skills is also shown by the behavior of picky friends, not polite, rude towards friends, teachers, and parents. Poor social skills need to be improved so students can have better social skills.

Improving social skills and reading fondness can be done simultaneously and integrated. The 2013 curriculum launched by the government supports learning that encourages students to master three aspects; cognitive, affective, and psychomotor (Burhaein, 2017a; Kemendikbud RI, 2013). Reading characters and students' social skills are included in the affective and psychomotor domains.

Information related to students' problems and needs was obtained from previous research. Based on the results of interviews with classroom teachers in elementary schools it was found that the school had made efforts to improve the character of reading fondness such as the teacher reminded students to do reading activities in their spare time. Another effort made is by implementing a literacy program imposed by the government by reading books for 15 minutes before class begins. However, efforts made by the school have not been successful in improving the character of students' fondness of reading due to several obstacles. One obstacle experienced is the availability of picture books in the library which are still lacking. Students are more interested in reading books that have picture illustrations, but the availability of picture books in schools is limited. Therefore, it needs to be added so that more picture book variations are available.

Based on the results of previous research (Lonto, 2019) conducted on 100 elementary students, information was obtained that the teacher needed media that could help increase reading interest and social skills of fourth-grade students, while students preferred storybooks that contained picture illustrations. Based on these problems and needs, we need a media that allows teachers to improve social skills and students' interest in reading that can be integrated with learning material. One alternative to overcome this problem is that elementary school teachers can use the sociocultural-based reflective picture storybook (SRPS) media.

The selection of SRPS media is adjusted to the stage of child development, where children at primary school age are included in the stages of concrete operational development. A student who is at this stage, in understanding certain concepts requires concrete objects as an effort to understand them, but the concept is abstract, therefore, concrete objects are very necessary. The picture is used to attract students' interest and attention. After reading the stories contained

in the book, students can understand and then reflect on themselves. Self-reflection is conducted by students based on storybooks that contain characters, plot, and mandate. Then this can be used as an example for students to form characters who like to read and have good social skills.

1 Interest in reading

Interest in reading is a concern or a strong desire with its own will accompanied by a sense of pleasure to carry out reading (Hurlock, 2001; Schunk, 2012). Reading is very important because it provides and changes the knowledge and understanding needed. Increasing students' fondness for reading is essential to building their knowledge and turning them into lifelong students (Akanda, Hoq, & Hasan, 2013). Reading fondness is not only useful to build their own lives, but also to contribute positively to the socio-economic development of the nation. Based on these statements it can be concluded that increasing reading fondness is useful for building students' knowledge and making them lifelong learners.

Having an interest in reading is a very good thing because there are many benefits to gain. Reasons why children should develop a fondness for reading among others (Leonhard, 2000); 1) can make children read well, 2) can have a high linguistic understanding such as speaking, writing, and understanding ideas well, 3) excelling in every field, 4) can overcome insecurity about academic abilities, 5) can provide a variety of perspectives, 6) can help children have affection, 7) can expose children to a world filled with possibilities, 8) can develop a creative mindset and gain happiness in life.

Aspects of interest in reading consist of aspects of awareness, aspects of attention, aspects of frequency, and aspects of pleasure (Harris & Sipay, 1985; Sandjaja, 2001). These aspects are used to measure students' interest in reading.

Several factors affect a person's interest in reading; internal and external factors (Harris & Sipay, 1985). It is known that external factors greatly influence an interest in reading. School environment and good reading selection can influence reading interest, so the development of good reading books can be used as a way to increase students' interest in reading (Tarigan, 2008). Increasing students' interest in reading can be done by providing interesting reading content. Interesting readings for students are readings that are by their characteristics (Akanda et al., 2013; Sandjaja, 2001; Tarigan, 2008).

2 Social skills

Social skills include the ability to be able to understand, communicate and interact with others in the environment related to how to overcome differences, solve problems, produce creative solutions, and interact optimally to pursue shared goals and enhance positive interactions in the environment with others (Csoti, 2011; Steedly, Schwartz, Levin, & Luke, 2008). Factors that influence students' social skills are internal and external. Internal factors are factors that

originate from these individuals which include the character, abilities, physical, behavior, and development of students. While external factors are factors that come from outside such as peers, culture, and educational environment (Cartledge & Milburn, 1995; Kauffman & Kinnealey, 2015).

The social and psychological development of children is influenced by social skills. The instilling of skills to children is very important. Having good social skills can help children interact with other children (other students) and solve problems faced (Deniz & Ersoy, 2016; Phytanza, Burhaein, Sukoco, & Ghautama, 2018). This aspect of social skills is also related to students' academics. Some aspects of social skills include (Caldarella & Merrell, 1997): (1) Peer relations, shown through positive behavior towards peers; (2) Self-management, reflecting a student who has good emotions; (3) Academic ability, demonstrated through the fulfillment of tasks independently; (4) Compliance skills, showing a student who can follow the rules and expectations; and (5) Demands (Assertion), dominated by the abilities that enable children to display appropriate behavior in the desired situation.

The teacher's role in improving students' social skills is very important. The teacher can do various alternatives while learning in class to improve students' social skills. One alternative that teachers can do is to provide readings that contain stories about social skills. The use of SRPS media can assist teachers in improving students' social skills because the media contains stories of figures who have good social skills (Cooper, Moore, Powers, Cleveland, & Greenberg, 2014).

3 SRPS media to increase reading interest and social skills

The media is a tool to convey messages and information that contain teaching intentions to achieve learning objectives. The intended teaching purpose is to provide stimulation, equalize experiences, and give rise to the same perception (Munadi, 2013; Purnomo, Tomoliyus, & Burhaein, 2019). Learning media have many types and varieties. Learning media are divided into four groups; audio media, visual media, and audio-visual media. Based on this statement, it can be explained that the audio media only involve the sense of hearing as a voice catcher, for example, radio, tape, recorder, and so forth. Audio-visual media involve a sense of hearing and vision such as video. While visual media involve the sense of sight to capture what is seen as an example is a picture, poster, book, and so forth. Thus the SRPS media are included in the visual media because it is a book that focuses on being seen through the sense of sight (Munadi, 2013).

Print-based media have parts that need to be revised so that the media are good to use. Print-based media have six elements that need to be considered when designing, they are consistency, format, organization, attractiveness, size, and the use of blank spaces. SRPS media must pay attention to the six elements to be

developed into a viable and effective media and to achieve learning goals well (Arsyad, 2016).

Some visual media are printed and some are non-printed. The SRPS media is a printed version of the visual media because it is displayed in printed form and is non-projection. Print category visual media have been around since ancient times and are still used today. One reason for the persistence of it is because of its practicality. The SRPS media includes a print media book type because it is produced through the printing process accompanied by letters and illustrated images prepared on paper for teaching, which provides information to students, is practical to use, and easy to carry (Arsyad, 2016). An SRPS media is a media in the form of a book containing illustrated stories in pictures that contain sociocultural elements. Picture books are used to attract students' attention. One way to communicate a moral message to children is to use a picture book. Even picture books are effective and have the power to convey messages to children. Picture books consist of two components, pictures and words. The picture in the story is used as an attraction so that the child likes the book (Wijaya, Sudjimat, & Nyoto, 2016).

SRPS media that must pay attention to elements of conformity with the level of children's development, compatibility with cultural backgrounds, integrating stories with learning material, stories containing motivational elements, leading to the achievement of learning objectives, meeting literacy standards for elements of literary works (Kemendikbud RI, 2013; Phytanza & Burhaein, 2019).

One way to improve social skills is with the SRPS media. Not all children can socialize naturally and for some people, as has been seen, social skills are difficult to obtain. For children to be together collaboratively, they must learn the skills of discussion and sharing (Trilling & Fadel, 2010). The substance of SRPS media is one of which contains stories related to social skills. Also, there are reflection journal questionnaires and reflection questions. This is like discussing and sharing what students can do in learning activities while reading and using socio-cultural reflective storybooks. The teacher must provide several types of readings, especially those related to the improvement of social skills (Morrison, 2012, p.297).

The SRPS media contains examples of stories that can provide inspiration, information, and role models for students to have good social skills. Providing interesting reading books is the right solution to increase students' interest in reading. Children can use reading short stories and novels to increase their interest in reading (Sinambela, Manik, & Pangaribuan, 2015). Based on this, what most influences children's reading interest is interesting reading material.

SRPR media can be used as a way to increase students' interest in reading. Nurgiyantoro (2010) stated that interesting literary reading can be used as one solution to reduce lazy reading. Based on the opinions of these experts, the

literary reading made must be attractive to students. Therefore, the use of pictures and stories must be following the characteristics of students.
Stories can be used to influence the character of students, where children who have behaved badly or incorrectly can be told through a story that shows the consequences or solutions such a behavior (Humprey, 2005). It can be said that lazy reading is an example of bad behavior. Social stories can give children's perspective on the thoughts, emotions, and behavior of others. It is hoped that after reading the SRPS media, students can have perspectives, emotions, and become fond of reading so that when it becomes a habit it will form a character who likes to read.

Conclusion

It is concluded that the SRPS media increases the reading interest and social skills of elementary school students are important. Teachers need learning media as a means to achieve learning objectives. Books are one of the media that play an important role in learning. Books can be used as a tool to communicate, obtain information, and as a learning resource that still exists today. Through books, students can find out everything. The availability of books as a learning tool needs to be developed based on the needs of teachers and students. Current conditions indicate that the low character of students who love to read has an impact on the achievement of learning goals that are not optimal. Also, students' social skills need to be improved so students can interact positively in the social environment. Behavior that shows the low social skills of students is shown by the way students communicate with friends and older people in a manner that is not polite. Two things related to reading fondness and social skills are things that should not be ignored to achieve educational goals and prepare students as a generation that has a bright future. To improve social skills and reading fondness, a media that is suitable for the characteristics of students is needed. Students 'interest in pictorial stories can be used as a solution to overcome the problem of low social skills and students' fondness of reading characters that need to be improved. SRPS media are important to be developed in future research.

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